

**THE INFLUENCE OF GENERATIONAL COHORT AND SELF-
CONGRUITY IN SOCIAL SPONSORSHIP: A STUDY IN A
DEVELOPING COUNTRY**

by

Mohamad-Noor Salehhuddin Sharipudin

A thesis
submitted to Victoria University of Wellington
in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
in Marketing

Victoria University of Wellington

2016

This page is intentionally left blank.

ABSTRACT

Social sponsorship has increased interest both in the academic area and in practice as a marketing communication tool to achieve brands' objectives. Participation in social sponsorship enhances a brand's goodwill and brand equity as well as image. Despite growing interest in social sponsorship, few studies have utilised generational cohort and self-congruity theory in one study, especially in a social sponsorship context.

This study explored how generational cohorts' self-congruity influences sponsorship attitude within social sponsorship, particularly in the context of a developing country, Malaysia. Three specific questions have been raised: (1) does self-congruity of different generational cohorts affect preferences for social sponsorship programmes? (2) Does it affect sponsor attitudes and loyalty? (3) To what extent does ethnicity impact generational cohorts' preferences for sponsorship programmes? This study believes that generational cohorts have varying degrees of self-congruity, and a brand might consider participating in social sponsorship programmes congruent with its target consumers.

This study applied generational cohort theory as a segmentation technique to identify consumers' characteristics and the segmentation of the consumers. Besides, self-congruity theory was used to evolve the degree of consumers' self-congruity with social sponsorship programmes based on generational cohort profiles (e.g. characteristics, preferences, and attitudes). Malaysia was chosen as a context for this study because of the country's ethnic diversity, as well as being a plural society where all ethnic groups experience socialisation processes separately.

An experimental method was applied in this study. Among the respondents, there were two generational cohorts (Boomers and Generation Y) and two ethnic groups (Malays and Chinese). The respondents included current students, alumni, students' parents or relatives, and staff of Malaysian public universities. In total, this study collected 501 useable responses among the treatment and control groups.

Single and multi-group analysis was applied to analyse the data since this study aimed to investigate differences between generational cohorts and ethnic groups with respect to attitudes towards sponsorship and brand loyalty. Hence, a combination of analysis methods has been employed such as the t-test, ANOVA and Covariance-based Structural Equation Modelling (SEM).

This study found that generational cohort profiles influenced consumers' responses on perceived congruency with a social sponsorship programme (i.e. event, brand and media). Findings from the research suggest that consumers held a more favourable attitude towards social sponsorship and brand loyalty that was congruent to them. On the other hand, both generational cohorts did not statistically differ on their attitudes toward sponsorship for international events and brands. In terms of ethnicity, the study found mixed findings on social sponsorship preferences and sponsorship attitudes. Interestingly, this study found that ethnicity affects Malays and Chinese Gen Y's attitudes towards sponsorship on both brand conditions (i.e. ethnic-based and international) since both ethnic groups perceived congruency differently.

This study contributes to the growing body of research on social sponsorship since it is the first study that attempts to utilise Generational Cohort Theory and Self-congruity theory in a social sponsorship context and developing country. It also contributes to developing and empirically testing models in heterogeneous environments (i.e. across generational cohorts and in a multicultural society), especially in a developing country. From a managerial perspective, this study allows brands to identify a social sponsorship programme's congruence with its own consumers' self-congruity. Brands will then be able to implement social sponsorship programmes that are congruent with their target consumers and that achieve their objectives.

DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this thesis to:
my Mum, Nooraini Md Zin
my Wife, Naziah Mohd Alias,
my Son, Aqil

And
to those I lost during my PhD journey:
My Dad, Sharipudin Mahmud
My Grandmother, Banun Omar

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First, I am eternally grateful to my primary supervisor, Prof. Kim-Shyan Fam, for his valuable input, guidelines and encouragement throughout my PhD journey. I am greatly indebted to my secondary supervisor, Dr Aaron Gazley, of his thoughtful comments, insight, and for always assisting me in analysing and writing-up of my results.

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to Associate Professor Dan Laufer, the Head of the School of Marketing and International Business, Professor Siah Hwee Ang, the Chair of Research Committee, Dr James Richard, the Ph.D. Director, and to all academic staff at the School of Marketing and International Business (SMIB) for the support and facilitating my Ph.D. studies. I also extend my grateful thanks to Jacqui Fitzgerald, Jessie Johnston, Asako Clear, Kim Hann, Helen Hynes, Mary Alexander and Katrina Walsh for their administrative assistance.

I would like to thank the Malaysian Ministry of Higher Education and Universiti Utara Malaysia for awarding me the scholarship and study leave which are necessary to complete my Ph.D. studies. Their trust is greatly appreciated. I would also like to thank Dr Rosli Mohammed, the Dean of the School of Multimedia Technology and Communication, Universiti Utara Malaysia for his friendship and support.

Thank you for the encouragement, sharing thought, motivation, coffee and fun times to all fellow PhD colleagues: Vu, Lachie, Bill (Bo), Suzana, Richa, Thao, Honghong, Gloria, Lin, Farhana, Ardy, Martyn, Mao, Stephan Gerschewski, Ingrid, Sinh, Heath, Steffen Bertram and Rene.

I would like to thank the Malaysian community in Wellington for the support and assistance throughout my stay in New Zealand: Khairul, Brother Niklin, Fahimi, Nizam, Iskandar, Brother Ali, Brother Shafiq, Kak Zah, Maliki, Edi, Dasuki, Syahril, Jestin, Hanim, Faris, Wong, Daus, Su EMNZ, Koji and Prasad. To my friends in Malaysia: Sam, Fadhli, Hilmi, Suffian and Nora. To my neighbours in Johnsonville and Paparangi: Mark & Janina Avery, Dave & Jo Staite, Ranjesh, Terry and Richuka. Many thanks to Paparangi Kindergarten teachers: Anna, Isabel, Robyn, Liz and Philly for their wonderful cooperation to my family and an excellent treatment to my son. To all my friends and colleagues who have helped me along this journey, I am not able to mention all of them here, but they all have my sincere thanks.

I would like to acknowledge everyone who has participated in this study and the organisations that helped with my data collection. Thank you for your assistance.

Thank you to the Select Committee, New Zealand Parliament and Traffic Design Group for giving me the opportunity to join their organisations and gain new experience.

I would like to express my deepest appreciation to my wife, Naziah Mohd Alias, for her patience, support, sacrifices and unconditional love through this entire journey. Thank you for taking care of our autistic son, Aqil. It was a daunting challenge, but we have bounced back. To my son, I was busy with my thesis, and I did not have much time to focus on your development. Now, I will cherish every moment that we will spend together. To my mum, Nooraini, mother-in-law, Sapura and family, I am grateful for your support and prayers to ensure success in my study and life.

Finally, my utmost thanks to The Almighty for giving me the opportunity, ability and strength to complete this thesis.

This page is intentionally left blank.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	i
DEDICATION.....	iii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	vii
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background to the study	2
1.2 Research problem, question and objectives.....	5
1.3 Research contributions	10
1.4 Structure of the thesis	11
CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW	13
2.1 Social sponsorship Overview	14
2.1.1 Social sponsorship in developing countries	16
2.1.2 Social sponsorship outcomes	18
2.2 Drivers of attitudes to social sponsorship.....	20
2.2.1 Self-congruity overview.....	21
2.2.2 Overview of congruence in social sponsorship	22
2.2.3 Consumer and brand congruence.....	24
2.2.4 Consumers and event congruence.....	28
2.2.5 Consumers and media congruence.....	32
2.3 Generational cohort theory	36
2.3.1 The factors influencing a generational cohort	38
2.3.2 The need to identify generational cohorts in different countries	47
2.3.3 Generational cohorts in Malaysia	49

2.3.4	Generational cohort studies in marketing	51
2.3.5	Generational cohort and type of event congruence.....	54
2.3.6	Relationship between generational cohort theory and self-congruity in social sponsorship	56
2.4	Chapter summary.....	58
CHAPTER 3 CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT		61
3.1	Overview	62
3.2	Generational cohort and event.....	63
3.3	Generational cohort and brand	65
3.4	Generational cohort and media.....	66
3.5	Event self-congruity and attitude towards sponsorship.....	67
3.6	Brand self-congruity and attitude towards sponsorship	68
3.7	Media self-congruity and attitude towards sponsorship	69
3.8	Attitude toward the sponsorship and brand loyalty	70
3.9	Ethnicity and social sponsorship programmes	72
3.10	Conceptual model	76
3.11	Chapter summary.....	77
CHAPTER 4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY		79
4.1	Research paradigm	80
4.2	Research method and technique	81
4.3	Preliminary study.....	82
4.3.1	Sampling and data collection	82
4.3.2	Questionnaire of the preliminary study.....	84
4.3.3	Preliminary study results.....	85
4.4	Main study - Experimental research.....	86
4.4.1	Pre-test 1	87
4.4.2	Pre- test 2	88
4.4.3	Main study – experimental study	90
4.4.4	Study administration - Online vs. pen-and-pencil	91
4.4.5	Experimental design and stimuli.....	93
4.4.6	Stimuli.....	94
4.4.7	Sampling and data collection	95
4.4.8	Procedures.....	96
4.5	Questionnaire development	98
4.5.1	Generational cohorts self-congruity.....	99
4.5.2	Attitude towards sponsorship.....	101
4.5.3	Brand loyalty.....	102
4.5.4	Check question.....	102
4.5.5	Expert evaluation and back translation	103
4.6	Sample size in the study	104

4.7	Ethical Considerations	106
4.8	Chapter summary.....	106
CHAPTER 5 DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS.....		107
5.1	Data analysis technique	108
5.2	Preliminary Data Analysis	109
5.2.1	Response rate and completeness	109
5.2.2	Respondent profiles	111
5.2.3	Missing data	112
5.2.4	Outliers.....	113
5.2.5	Normality (Skewness & Kurtosis)	113
5.2.6	Common Method Variance	113
5.3	Confirmatory Factor Analysis model	114
5.3.1	Goodness-of-Fit in assessing measurement model	114
5.3.2	Assessing measurement model validity and reliability.....	116
5.4	Single-group or overall measurement analysis.....	118
5.4.1	Initial single-group measurement model CFA.....	119
5.4.2	Final single-group measurement model	120
5.4.3	Manipulation check.....	123
5.5	Hypotheses testing	123
5.5.1	T-test analysis (H1a, b; H2a, b; H3a, b)	124
5.5.2	Single-group structural model (H4, H5, H6, H7)	125
5.5.3	Mediator analysis	127
5.6	Multi-group analysis.....	128
5.6.1	Multi-group invariance analysis	129
5.7	Procedures of Multi-group Confirmatory Factor Analysis.....	132
5.7.1	Events - ethnic-based and international (H4a, 4b).....	133
5.7.2	Brands – ethnic-based and international (H5a, H5b).....	137
5.7.3	Media – newspaper and Facebook (H6a, H6b).....	138
5.7.4	Attitudes towards sponsorship and brand loyalty (Additional analysis)	140
5.8	Multi-group analysis for ethnicity and generational cohorts.....	141
5.8.1	Analysis of Variance (H8a, b, H9a, b).....	142
5.8.2	Multi-group analysis on ethnicity (H8c, 89c)	144
5.8.3	Ethnic-based and international brands (H8d, H9d).....	146
5.8.4	Ethnicity and brand loyalty (Additional analysis)	147
5.9	Conclusion	149
CHAPTER 6 DISCUSSION.....		151
6.1	Generational cohorts and self-congruity (event, brand, and types of media)	152
6.1.1	Generational cohorts' congruity with events and brands (H1a, b, H2a, b)...	152
6.1.2	Generational cohorts with types of media (H3a, b)	154
6.2	Generational cohorts' congruity and attitudes towards social sponsorship.....	155

6.2.1	Event congruity and attitudes towards the social sponsorship (EVT→ATS)	156
6.2.2	Brand congruity and attitudes towards the social sponsorship (FIR→ATS)	158
6.2.3	Media congruity and attitudes towards social sponsorship (MED→ATS)...	160
6.3	Attitudes towards social sponsorship and brand loyalty (ATS→LOY)	162
6.4	Ethnicity and social sponsorship	165
6.4.1	Ethnicities' congruity with events and brands (H8a, b, H9a, b)	166
6.4.2	Ethnicities and attitudes towards social sponsorship (ethnic-based and international events) – H8c, H9c	166
6.4.3	Ethnicities and attitude towards social sponsorship (ethnic-based and international brands) - H8d, 9d	168
6.5	Conclusion	172
CHAPTER 7 CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS		
173		
7.1	Theoretical contributions	174
7.2	Methodological contributions	178
7.3	Managerial implications	179
7.3.1	Implications for brands	179
7.3.2	Implications for charitable organisations	180
7.4	Limitations and suggestions for future research	181
7.5	Conclusion	183
REFERENCES		185
APPENDICES		211
Appendix 1:		211
Appendix 2.1: Generational cohort in Malaysia		231
Appendix 4.1: Preliminary study results		239
Appendix 5.1: Skewness and Kurtosis		240
Appendix 5.2: Initial single group measurement model (before deleted REVT_2)		241
Appendix 5.3: Final single group measurement model		242
Appendix 5.4: Residual Covariances		243
Appendix 5.5: Original model – factor loadings, communality, AVE, and CR		244
Appendix 5.7: Goodness-of-Fit for ethnic-based brands (Boomers and Gen Y)		245
Appendix 5.8: Goodness-of-Fit for international brands (Boomers and Gen Y)		245
Appendix 5.9: Goodness-of-Fit for newspaper (Boomers and Gen Y)		245
Appendix 5.10: Goodness-of-Fit for Facebook (Boomers and Gen Y)		245
Appendix 5.11: Goodness-of-Fit for ethnic-based events (Ethnic groups)		246
Appendix 5.12: Goodness-of-Fit for international events (Ethnic groups)		246
Appendix 5.13: Goodness-of-Fit for ethnic-based brands (Ethnic groups)		246
Appendix 5.14: Goodness-of-Fit for international brands (Ethnic groups)		246

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1: <i>Generational cohorts in Malaysia</i>	51
Table 4.1: <i>The finalised external events</i>	86
Table 4.2: <i>Experimental design</i>	94
Table 4.3: <i>Event, brand, and media congruity scales</i>	101
Table 4.4: <i>Attitude towards social sponsorship scale</i>	102
Table 4.5: <i>Brand loyalty scale</i>	102
Table 5.1: <i>Respondent characteristics</i>	112
Table 5.2: <i>Harman's single factor test</i>	114
Table 5.3: <i>Goodness-of-Fit Indices and Acceptable Thresholds</i>	116
Table 5.4: <i>Re-specification model after deleted item REVT_2</i>	121
Table 5.5: <i>Discriminant validity</i>	122
Table 5.6: <i>Final measurement model items, Loadings, and significance values</i>	122
Table 5.7: <i>t-test analysis</i>	125
Table 5.8: <i>Comparison of paths in structural model</i>	126
Table 5.9: <i>Indirect effect (BS=1000, BCCI=95%)</i>	128
Table 5.10: <i>Multi-group Goodness-of-Fit Cut-Off</i>	132
Table 5.11: <i>Goodness-of-Fit for ethnic-based event (Boomers and Gen Y)</i>	134
Table 5.12: <i>Goodness-of-Fit for international event (Boomers and Gen Y)</i>	135
Table 5.13: <i>latent mean differences (ethnic-based and international events)</i>	136
Table 5.14: <i>latent mean differences (ethnic and international brands)</i>	138
Table 5.15: <i>latent mean differences newspaper and Facebook</i>	139
Table 5.16: <i>Generational cohorts' comparison (events, brands and media) on attitude towards social sponsorship</i>	140
Table 5.17: <i>Generational cohorts' comparison between attitude towards social sponsorship and brand loyalty (events, brands and media)</i>	141
Table 5.18: <i>ANOVA analysis for four groups</i>	144
Table 5.19: <i>Ethnicity comparison for ethnic-based and international events (H8c, H9c)</i>	146
Table 5.20: <i>Ethnicity comparison for ethnic-based and international brands (H8d, H9d)</i>	147
Table 5.21: <i>Ethnicity comparison on brand loyalty (events and brands)</i>	148
Table 5.22: <i>Summary of Hypotheses Testing</i>	150

LIST OF FIGURES

<i>Figure 2.1: Model of generational influences on consumer socialisation (Rindfleisch, 1994)</i>	<i>39</i>
<i>Figure 3.1: Relationship between generational cohorts' self-congruity towards sponsorship attitude and brand loyalty</i>	<i>72</i>
<i>Figure 3.2: Relationship between ethnicity and social sponsorship programmes.....</i>	<i>76</i>
<i>Figure 3.3: Conceptual model of generational cohorts' congruity in social sponsorship</i>	<i>77</i>
<i>Figure 5.1: single group structural model</i>	<i>127</i>
<i>Figure 6.1: Relationship between generational cohorts' congruity and attitudes towards social sponsorship.</i>	<i>162</i>
<i>Figure 6.2: Relationship between attitude towards the social sponsorship and brand loyalty</i>	<i>165</i>

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the foundation of this thesis. It commences with a background to the study, followed by the research problem, question and objectives. Later on, this chapter describes the significant research contributions of this thesis. Finally, it presents the structure of the thesis.

1.1 Background to the study

In the past 30 years, there have been increasingly rapid advances in the field of sponsorship. Sponsorship is one of the most rapidly growing areas in marketing (Chien, Cornwell, & Pappu, 2011; Meenaghan, 2001a, 2001b, 2013) and is becoming a popular marketing communication tool (Cornwell & Maignan, 1998; Cornwell, Roy, & Steinard II, 2001; Johnston & Spais, 2015; Lee, Sandler, & Shani, 1997; Mazodier & Rezaee, 2013; Olson, 2010; Pickton & Broderick, 2005; Ryan & Fahy, 2012). Previously, sports sponsorship was the main focus of the sponsorship field (Rifon, Choi, Trimble, & Li, 2004). Recently, however, sports sponsorship became saturated and brands began to shift their sponsorship to social sponsorship and community-based activities (Madill & O'Reilly, 2010; Quester, Plewa, Palmer, & Mazodier, 2013).

Social sponsorship has received increasing interest from both academics and practitioners as a marketing communication tool to achieve a sponsor's or brand's¹ objectives (Becker-Olsen & Simmons, 2002; Fahy, Farrelly, & Quester, 2004; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006). Its growth in importance can be translated into increased total expenditure on social sponsorship from \$816 million in 2002, to \$1.62 billion in 2010, and \$1.85 billion in 2014 (International Event Group, 2012, 2015), especially in developed countries (Madill & O'Reilly, 2010). Brands' involvement in social sponsorship enhances their goodwill, image and brand equity (Becker-Olsen & Simmons, 2002; Meenaghan, 2001a; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006).

A number of factors have boosted the importance of social sponsorship: the global economic downturn, global climate change, consumer empowerment, new digital technologies (e.g. internet, social media) and globalisation (Kotler, Kartajaya, & Setiawan, 2010; Randle & Dolnicar, 2011). These factors encourage consumers to be more concerned about community-based activities (Randle & Dolnicar, 2011). They contribute to current consumer trends which require brands to offer more than just products or services (Kotler et al., 2010) and urge brands to participate in socially-responsible activities (Becker-Olsen, Cudmore, & Hill, 2006; Lacey, Close, & Finney, 2010).

¹ Sponsors may be firms or brands; this study generally refers to brands (Becker-Olsen & Simmons, 2002).

From a brand's perspective, the current economic situation is causing financial difficulties. Budget constraints encourage brands to participate in community-based sponsorship rather than using other marketing communication tools (e.g. advertising) (Lacey et al., 2010; Quester et al., 2013). Previous studies have reported that consumers were willing to switch to and purchase a brand that was involved in charitable causes (Smith & Alcorn, 1991; Strahilevitz, 1999; Strahilevitz & Myers, 1998). It can be argued that participating in social activities is good as a brand is showing its support to the community by sharing its profits and giving back to community activities (Cui, Trent, Sullivan, & Matiru, 2003). This contributes toward the fact that brands tend to undertake activities related to a community or social activities such as social sponsorship.

Congruence or fit is a vital element in social sponsorship. This current study defines conceptual congruence as a strategic match between a brand and an event at the organisational level (e.g. corporate values, mission, brand image, target audience, and product positioning) (Becker-Olsen & Simmons, 2005; Kuo & Rice, 2015). For example, the sports brand Adidas' sponsorship of the New Zealand All Blacks rugby team is considered a high fit since both parties are perceived as being congruent in terms of target audience, image, and product category.

Previous studies have shown that a perceived high conceptual congruence between brand and sponsee² contributes to favourable outcomes in social sponsorship (Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006; Becker-Olsen & Simmons, 2002, 2005; Kim & Boo, 2011; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006). However, other studies have argued that a high conceptual congruence between brand and event does not guarantee a positive effect in social sponsorship (Lafferty, 2007; Nan & Heo, 2007; Zdravkovic, Magnusson, & Stanley, 2010). These studies further suggested that congruence from the consumer's point of view provides a more favourable impact on social sponsorship than conceptual congruence between a brand and an event. This is because consumers evaluate based on their self-congruity with a brand and an event rather than conceptual congruence.

² Refers to a social event, social cause, social program, or event organisation, and it can be a government or non-profit organisation (Madill & O'Reilly, 2010). This study generally refers to event.

Hence, this current study focuses on consumers' perspective congruence instead of conceptual congruence. This study also attempts to utilise two theories (i.e. Generational Cohort and Self-Congruity Theory) as the drivers in explaining congruence from consumer perspectives. Scant research has employed both theories in one study (Gardiner, Grace, & King, 2013), especially in a social sponsorship context.

As mentioned earlier, there are two theories underpinning this current study: Self-Congruity and Generational Cohort Theory. Self-image congruence, also known as self-congruity, is the degree of consumer-perceived congruence between self-concept (e.g. actual, ideal, social and ideal social) and the image of a brand, product or sponsorship event (Johar & Sirgy, 1991; Kressmann et al., 2006; Sirgy et al., 1997; Sirgy, Lee, Johar, & Tidwell, 2008). Consumers perceive high self-congruity with the brand that participates in events congruent with their self-concept (Randle & Dolnicar, 2011; Sirgy et al., 1997). Moreover, a high self-congruity with events leads to positive outcomes such as attitude toward the brand, purchase intention and brand loyalty in a sponsorship context (Close, Krishen, & Latour, 2009; Mazodier & Merunka, 2011; Randle & Dolnicar, 2011; Sirgy et al., 2008). In terms of media, the digital divide between Digital Native and Digital Immigrant generations (Prensky, 2001, 2004) may be useful as an indicator of consumers' self-congruity with digital (e.g. internet, social networking sites) or non-digital media (e.g. printed newspaper, television).

Nevertheless, a brand needs to identify consumer characteristics before becoming involved in social sponsorship (Sirgy et al., 2008). This is to ensure that the target consumers' self-congruity is congruent with the social sponsorship programme. Therefore, it is crucial for a brand to identify and segment its target consumer characteristics, attitudes and preferences before initiating social sponsorship.

Generational Cohort Theory (GCT) has previously been used to identify and segment consumer characteristics. Previous studies suggested that GCT was more efficient and reliable in segmenting consumers than traditional methods such as demographic variables and cross-sectional studies (Eastman & Liu, 2012; Loro & Helgeson, 2013; Rentz & Reynolds, 1991; Rentz, Reynolds, & Stout, 1983; Schewe, Noble, & Meredith, 2000). GCT is defined as a group of individuals who were born in the same period and experienced the socialisation of external events (e.g. social, political, economic and technological) during their coming of age (Mannheim, 1952; Meredith & Schewe, 1994;

Ryder, 1965; Schuman & Scott, 1989). In GCT, external events experienced by individuals have an impact on the formation of a generational cohort. Generational cohort profiles are homogeneous among the same generational cohort members, however, the profile is distinct from other generational cohorts (Motta, Schewe, & Rossi, 2002; Schewe & Noble, 2000). Each generational cohort has a unique profile (e.g. characteristics, values, attitudes, and preferences) as they have experienced different external events. This requires brands to identify significant external events encountered by a generational cohort that would affect its profile (Schewe et al., 2000). In spite of the heterogeneity of the profile for each generational cohort, only a limited number of studies have compared different generational cohort profiles in a social sponsorship context (Cui et al., 2003; Laufer, Silvera, McBride, & Schertzer, 2010; Pentecost & Andrews, 2010).

This current study focuses on the developing country context and chooses Malaysia as a multi-ethnic country with a diverse cultural background and a plural society (Ridhwan Fontaine, Richardson, & Foong, 2002; Jali, 2003; Milner, 1991). Malaysia has unique characteristics not only among generational cohorts but also between ethnic groups. As a result, this present study investigates how the differences between generational cohorts' profiles in Malaysia influence consumer responses towards social sponsorship.

Comparisons of ethnic groups are also of interest in this thesis. GCT implies that a generational cohort is a unit where members are homogeneous and share a common profile (e.g. characteristics, preferences, and attitudes). However, ethnicity may bring about variation in generational cohort profiles. This could lead to a different degree of self-congruity on social sponsorship. Therefore, this study attempts to identify other factors that may influence consumers' evaluation alongside the generational cohort effect (e.g. external events), especially in diverse and heterogeneous consumers.

1.2 Research problem, question and objectives

Nowadays, brands face challenging conditions to remain competitive such as current consumers' trends and the current global financial crisis (Kotler et al., 2010; Meenaghan, 2013; Randle & Dolnicar, 2011). These challenges cause brands to be more careful in using marketing budget allocations to reach target consumers. Brands need to

choose social sponsorship activities that are in line with their target consumers in order to achieve their own objectives.

In GCT, each generational cohort has a different profile (e.g. characteristics, attitudes, and preferences) based on external events that it encountered during its coming of age (Meredith & Schewe, 1994; Schewe et al., 2000; Schuman & Scott, 1989). Previous studies have indicated the advantages of segmenting consumers using GCT in various marketing contexts such as consumer consumption (Eastman & Liu, 2012; Rentz & Reynolds, 1991; Rentz et al., 1983), tourism marketing (Gardiner, Grace, & King, 2014; Gardiner, King, & Grace, 2013; Pennington-Gray, Fridgen, & Stynes, 2003), buying behaviour (Dittmar, 2005; Pentecost & Andrews, 2010), and advertising (Fam, Waller, Ong, & Yang, 2008).

In terms of the charitable context, a number of studies have found that generational cohort theory is capable of identifying social sponsorship that are congruent with target consumers and lead to favourable outcomes such as purchase intention and loyalty (Cui et al., 2003; Hyllegarda, Yana, Oglea, & Attmann, 2011; Lee, Park, Rapert, & Newman, 2012). The theory enables researchers or practitioners to identify and understand consumer profiles and implement social sponsorship programmes congruent with their target consumers (Noble & Schewe, 2003; Schewe & Noble, 2000). However, previous studies have mainly focused on only one specific generational cohort (Cui et al., 2003; Hyllegarda, Yana, Oglea, & Attmann, 2011; Lee et al., 2012; Yavas, Woodbridge, Ashill, & Krisjanous, 2007). In spite of the stated advantages of GCT, few studies have focused on GCT as a segmentation method in a social sponsorship context, especially in comparing different generational cohorts. It can be argued that each generational cohort member is homogeneous and shares similar profiles among its members; however, their profiles are different from other generational cohorts (Motta et al., 2002; Noble & Schewe, 2003). It is useful to understand how different generational cohorts respond to social sponsorship (Cui et al., 2003; Laufer et al., 2010; Pentecost & Andrews, 2010).

Given that each generational cohort has a unique profile that affects its degree of self-congruity with social sponsorship, there is a need for an investigation of the heterogeneity of generational cohorts' profiles. Therefore, this study focuses on comparing generational cohorts' profiles thereby making a significant contribution to social sponsorship knowledge.

Meanwhile, consumers' self-congruity is an important determinant that influences the effectiveness of marketing activities. In the sponsorship context, previous studies found that perceiving a high self-congruity to an event provided more possibility of obtaining favourable outcomes such as purchase intention (Close et al., 2009), consumer preferences (Randle & Dolnicar, 2011) and brand loyalty (Mazodier & Merunka, 2011; Sirgy et al., 2008). Besides, previous studies focused on event promotion (Close et al., 2009), volunteerism (Randle & Dolnicar, 2011) and sports sponsorship (Mazodier & Merunka, 2011; Sirgy et al., 2008). Despite the advantages of consumers' self-congruity, there are limited empirical studies that investigate consumer profiles that influence consumers' self-congruity and how these profiles affect the degree of social sponsorship, especially in comparing different generational cohorts. This study contributes to new knowledge since it employs Self-Congruity Theory in social sponsorship and investigates how the profile heterogeneity of generational cohorts influences their self-congruity degree with social sponsorship. Hence, this current study aims to address limitations by extending Self-Congruity Theory to a social sponsorship context in heterogeneous environments (i.e. generational cohorts).

Furthermore, this study attempts to utilise both GCT and Self-Congruity Theory in one study, and extend these theories in a social sponsorship context. GCT has been widely used in marketing, for example in consumer consumption (Eastman & Liu, 2012; Rentz & Reynolds, 1991; Rentz et al., 1983), tourism marketing (Gardiner et al., 2014; Gardiner et al., 2013; Pennington-Gray et al., 2003), buying behaviour (Dittmar, 2005; Pentecost & Andrews, 2010), and advertising (Fam et al., 2008). These studies found numerous advantages of using the theory to identify and segment consumers. In terms of self-congruity, a number of studies applied the theory to event promotion (Close et al., 2009), volunteerism (Randle & Dolnicar, 2011) and sports sponsorship (Mazodier & Merunka, 2011; Sirgy et al., 2008), and the studies suggested that self-congruity leads to positive outcomes such as brand loyalty, purchase intention and consumers preferences. As far as researcher knowledge is concerned, Gardiner, Grace, & King (2013) is the only study that has combined both theories, however the study was aimed at understanding GCT and generational cohorts' self-identity. The study aimed to validate generational cohorts' labels and profiles to see whether they were similar with consumers' sense of self-identity. The current study aims to address this limitation by utilising both theories in one study, particularly in the social sponsorship context. Lyons

and Kuron (2014) argued that most previous studies in GCT mainly focused on descriptive findings rather than theoretical underpinning. This current study, however, goes beyond validating generational cohort profiles and their self-congruity. It utilises both theories to identify and segment generational cohorts' self-congruity and is conceptually tested in social sponsorship in a developing country.

Several studies have suggested that consumers in developing and collectivistic countries are more willing to donate and are more generous in charitable activities than consumers in developed and individualistic countries (La Ferle, Kuber, & Edwards, 2013; Laufer et al., 2010). This provides an opportunity for brands to participate in charitable activities particularly in developing countries. However, previous studies in developing countries that investigated philanthropy and cause-related marketing (CRM) only focused on one generational cohort (Alon, Lattemann, Fetscherin, Li, & Schneider, 2010; Anuar & Mohamad, 2011, 2012; Ramasamy & Yeung, 2009; Tian, Wang, & Yang, 2011). This was a motivation for the current study to examine how social sponsorship works in the context of a developing country. It could be argued that social sponsorship has become an important marketing communication tool in developed countries (Madill & O'Reilly, 2010); however, it has received less attention in developing countries (Bal, Quester, & Plewa, 2010). Malaysia was chosen as the study's context since it is one of the developing countries with a multi-ethnic population with a diverse cultural background (Westwood & Everett, 1996). This study attempts to overcome the limitation by conducting research in Malaysia as a developing country. This current study compares generational cohorts' profiles their influence on the degree of self-congruity in social sponsorship, especially in a developing country.

Previous studies have found that micro socialisation factors (e.g. family, religion, and ethnicity) have an impact on generational cohort profiles alongside external events and contribute to variation in the profiles of members of a generational cohort (Carlsson & Karlsson, 1970; Gardiner et al., 2013; Noble & Schewe, 2003; Petroulas, Brown, & Sundin, 2010). Since this current study is conducted in Malaysia, a multi-ethnic and plural society (Ridhwan Fontaine et al., 2002; Jali, 2003; Westwood & Everett, 1996), there is a possibility that micro-socialisation can affect a generational cohort's profile, especially with regard to ethnicity. Despite people experiencing similar external events

during their formative years, this current study assumes that ethnicity may influence the variation of responses among generational cohorts in social sponsorship.

In short, this study attempts to address the identified gaps by using GCT to identify and segment consumer profiles in social sponsorship within the context of the developing multi-ethnic society. This study examines degree of self-congruity as an antecedent of generational cohorts in social sponsorship.

Based on the above discussions, the main research question in this research is: does the self-congruity of different generational cohorts influence their preferences, attitude towards sponsorship, and brand loyalty in social sponsorship? There are three specific research questions guiding this study:

1. Does the self-congruity of different generational cohorts affect preferences toward social sponsorship programmes?
2. Does the self-congruity of generational cohorts with social sponsorship programmes influence attitudes towards sponsorship and brand loyalty?
3. To what extent does ethnicity impact the preferences of generational cohorts towards sponsorship programmes?

Meanwhile, below are three objectives that this study aims to achieve:

- 1) To examine the influence of the self-congruity of generational cohorts on preferences towards social sponsorship programmes.
- 2) To investigate the effect of the self-congruity of generational cohorts' within social sponsorship programmes and its contribution to attitude towards sponsorship and brand loyalty, especially in a developing country
- 3) To examine whether ethnicity influences generational cohorts within social sponsorship.

1.3 Research contributions

This current research has both theoretical and managerial contributions. From a theoretical perspective, it contributes to consumer behaviour and marketing literature by extending the use of Generational Cohort Theory and Self-Congruity Theory in social sponsorship. It also compares different generational cohorts in a developing country.

Firstly, this study contributes to the development of a conceptual model that consists of two theories: GCT and Self-Congruity Theory. The model utilises GCT and Self-Congruity Theory in one study in the context of social sponsorship. The model is used to identify and segment consumers based on generational cohorts' profiles. Profiles are an important indicator in forecasting consumers' degree of self-congruity with social sponsorship. Secondly, the study contributes to social sponsorship literature by focusing on Malaysia, a developing rather than a developed country (Madill & O'Reilly, 2010).

Thirdly, this study contributes to the application of GCT in identifying and segmenting consumers profiles (e.g. characteristics, values, and preferences) in a social sponsorship context. As mentioned earlier, previous studies have mainly focused on one generational cohort (e.g. Cui et al., 2003; Hyllegarda et al., 2011; Lee et al., 2012); however, this current study provides a better understanding of the responses of different generational cohorts to social sponsorship (i.e. Gen Y and Boomers). This study contributes to knowledge since it investigates the heterogeneity of generational cohort profiles and their influence on social sponsorship.

In addition, it allows researchers to test whether the generational cohort, as an antecedent of consumers' self-congruity, influences brand loyalty in social sponsorship. This research provides a better understanding of how GCT is used to identify consumer profiles, and it also helps researchers or brands to identify the congruence of social sponsorship programmes with the self-congruity of generational cohorts. It also addresses a possible antecedent of self-congruity (Quester et al., 2013), by proposing GCT as an antecedent.

Finally, this study contributes to existing knowledge in GCT by considering other factors, such as ethnicity, that might cause variation in generational cohorts' profiles. This study indicates that ethnicity has an impact on generational cohorts despite being in the same group.

From a managerial perspective, this study allows brands to identify and segment their target consumers. Afterwards, they may find a suitable social sponsorship programme congruent with their target consumers and be involved in sponsoring the programme. Therefore, brands can implement a social sponsorship programme that is congruent with the needs of their target consumers while at the same time achieving the brand's objectives.

Moreover, it helps charitable organisations to approach brands to participate in sponsoring an event or programme. The findings of this study are expected to provide an indicator or guidance for brands in engaging in social sponsorship in developing countries and in multi-ethnic societies.

1.4 Structure of the thesis

This thesis consists of seven chapters. Chapter 1 described an introduction of the thesis (e.g. background) including the research questions, objectives, and expected contributions of this study.

Chapter 2 is a detailed review of the literature on social sponsorship, self-congruity, and generational cohort theory. This chapter also highlights gaps in the literature. Chapter 3 develops the proposed conceptual model and hypotheses based on the literature review. Chapter 4 outlines the research methodology employed in this study. Chapter 5 describes the procedures used to analyse the data and findings of the hypotheses testing. Chapter 6 provides an in-depth discussion of the study's findings. Finally, Chapter 7 presents an overall conclusion that includes the implications, limitations, and potential areas of future research.

This page is intentionally left blank.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

The main purpose of Chapter 2 is to review the literature relating to: social sponsorship, self-congruity and generational cohort theory. As mentioned in the previous chapter, the primary objective of this current study is to compare the self-congruity of different generational cohorts on a social sponsorship programme. Hence, the focus of the literature review is limited and relevant to comparing between generational cohorts. The chapter commences with an overview of social sponsorship in developing countries. It then discusses consumer congruence in social sponsorship by drawing on literature on brand, media and social sponsorship. Finally, the chapter discusses the Generational Cohort Theory (GCT) literature.

2.1 Social sponsorship Overview

The term social sponsorship was initially derived from commercial sponsorship (Madill & O'Reilly, 2010; Meenaghan, 2001a). The difference is the sponsorship context, whether it is a social cause or charitable event instead of another context (e.g. sports, arts). There are several definitions of sponsorship, and generally the meaning of sponsorship is similar among scholars (Cornwell, 1995). Sponsorship is defined as “a cash and/or in-kind fee paid to a property (typically sports, entertainment, non-profit event or organisation) in return for access to the exploitable commercial potential associated with that property” (International Event Group, 2011). Meenaghan (1991a) defined it as “an investment, in cash or in kind, in an activity, person or event (sponsee), in return for access to the exploitable commercial potential associated with that activity, person or event by the investor (sponsor)”. Cornwell and Maignan (1998) asserted that sponsorship involves two activities: (1) an exchange between a sponsor and a sponsee whereby the latter receives a fee, and the former obtains the right to associate itself with the activity sponsored and (2) the marketing of the association by the sponsor. Hence, this current study defines social sponsorship as a relationship between a brand (i.e. sponsor or firm) and an event (i.e. a sponsee), whether financial or non-financial in nature, that allows the brand to associate and capitalise on sponsorship of the event in order to achieve its commercial marketing objectives.

Social sponsorship has grown in importance and achieved increasing attention among academicians and marketers (Fahy et al., 2004). It can be seen especially in developed countries (e.g. the United States, Canada and Australia) since brands believe that social sponsorship is less saturated than other types of sponsorship (e.g. sport sponsorship) (Madill & O'Reilly, 2010). Moreover, the growth in not-for-profit and government organisations offering social development programmes contributes to catalysing the rapid evolution of social sponsorship (Madill & O'Reilly, 2010). The trend is reflected in the amount of total spending on social sponsorship. For example, total social sponsorship expenditure was \$816 million in 2002, and dramatically increased to \$1.62 billion in 2010, and \$1.85 billion in 2014 (International Event Group, 2012, 2015).

A number of studies have indicated that brands employed social sponsorship as a promotional tool to achieve their marketing objectives (Becker-Olsen & Simmons, 2002; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006). Surprisingly, Madill and O'Reilly (2010) found

that the brand and event have similar objectives, and it helps both parties to be more determined in terms of success in social sponsorship. In addition, sponsoring events contributed to enhancing favourable outcomes for the brands such as a positive attitude towards the brand, brand equity and an enhanced corporate image (Becker-Olsen & Simmons, 2002; Cornwell & Maignan, 1998; Mazodier & Rezaee, 2013; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006).

In respect to consumers' perspectives, Randle and Dolnicar (2011) pointed out that current consumers have increased their awareness of community-based activities, and are encouraged to support activities associated with global issues (e.g. economic downturn, poverty and climate change). This view was supported by Becker-Olsen et al. (2006), whose study found that more than 80% of respondents sought corporate involvement in social activities. Several studies have revealed that consumers have more positive feelings, such as donation intention, and willingness to switch and purchase brands, towards brands involved in event activities or that sponsor an event (Smith & Alcorn, 1991; Strahilevitz, 1999; Strahilevitz & Myers, 1998).

In spite of the growth of social sponsorship development, there is confusion around how to distinguish between social sponsorship and other socially responsible activities such as cause-related marketing (CRM). Varadarajan and Menon (1988, p. 60) defined CRM as “the process of formulating and implementing marketing activities that is characterized by an offer from the brand to provide a specified amount to a designated cause when customers engage in revenue-providing exchanges that satisfy organisational and individual objectives”. Usually brands will determine the size of their contribution to a cause or charitable event, and it is transaction-based, i.e. it depends on the number of transactions or sales (Cornwell & Coote, 2005; Cui et al., 2003; Dean, 2003). For example, a brand might agree to donate a dollar for every transaction involving its products or services to a selected cause or charitable organisation.

Unlike CRM, a contribution in social sponsorship does not depend on consumers purchasing a brand's products or services since the brands have to pay a sponsorship fee to a social or charitable organisation in advance (Cornwell & Coote, 2005). Dean (2002) states that social sponsorship requires brands to fix the cash (i.e. donation or right fee) or in-kind contribution (e.g. facilities, employee participation and products) to the social

or charitable organisation beforehand. He points out that the main objectives in social sponsorship are to integrate the brand with an event and to attract stakeholders and earn goodwill, as well as to increase the sponsor's image.

Despite being part of the corporate social responsibility (CSR) umbrella, there are distinctions among the CSR activities (i.e. philanthropy, CRM and social sponsorship) in terms of definitions and how the CSR initiatives work (Brennan, Binney, & Brady, 2012; Lii, Wu, & Ding, 2013). A number of studies have focused on philanthropy and CRM especially in developing countries like China (Ramasamy & Yeung, 2009; Tian et al., 2011), Brazil (Alon et al., 2010), India (Alon et al., 2010; La Ferle et al., 2013), Taiwan (Lii & Lee, 2012; Lii et al., 2013), Indonesia (Bucic, Harris, & Arli, 2012) and Malaysia (Anuar & Mohamad, 2011, 2012).

As pointed out earlier, this section provides an overview of the social sponsorship literature that supports this study. As such, it motivates brands to be more involved in social sponsorship since both parties (e.g. brands and events) have similar objectives (Madill & O'Reilly, 2010). The next section provides a review of social sponsorship in developing countries.

2.1.1 Social sponsorship in developing countries

The purpose of this section is to review the literature related to charitable activities in developing countries. Several studies have investigated charitable causes, comparing developed and developing countries. Bucic et al. (2012) explored perceived positive attitudes and motivation to engage in CRM activities. The study found differences in the purchasing behaviour of Gen Y in Australia and Indonesia. The study indicated that Indonesian respondents did not convey actual purchase behaviours even though they had favourable responses to the CRM activities as compared to their Australian counterparts.

Laufer et al. (2010) examined how the congruence of charitable messages with the cultural background of Gen Y subjects from the U.S. and Mexico affected their donation intentions. The study showed that both the U.S. and Mexican respondents perceived as more favourable the message that had congruence with their own culture rather than the incongruent message. In contrast to Bucic et al. (2012), this study found

that Mexican samples (developing country) were seen to be more generous in donating behaviours than the U.S. samples. Likewise, La Ferle et al. (2013) compared Gen Y consumers in the U.S. and India on CRM. The study depicted that the Indian samples perceived more favourable responses (e.g. novelty, attitudes towards the campaigns) to the CRM campaigns than the American samples. This study suggested that brands could capitalise on beneficial responses by participating in charitable activities, especially in developing countries.

In Malaysia, Anuar and Mohamad (2011) investigated the influence that cause proximity (i.e. local vs. international) had on consumers' attitudes towards CRM campaigns among Gen Y. They found that most of the respondents had a favourable attitude towards the CRM campaigns (i.e. local and international). Nonetheless, there were no significant differences between local and international CRM campaigns. Moreover, Anuar and Mohamad (2012) investigated the CRM campaign's influence on consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions. The study suggested that Gen Y consumers had a favourable attitude towards the CRM, which led to high purchase intention.

Despite the growing importance of charitable programmes among scholars and practitioners, studies on sponsorship provide limited empirical evidence related to developing countries (Bal et al., 2010), especially in the Malaysian context (Anuar & Mohamad, 2012). The above studies argued that there is potential for brands to be involved in charitable programmes in developing countries. The studies found that in regards to charitable programmes consumers in developing countries have a more favourable responses and greater intention to donate compared to consumers from developed countries (La Ferle et al., 2013; Laufer et al., 2010). Besides, there is a lack of research that compares different generational cohorts in charitable programmes, especially in a developing country. It could be interesting to explore the responses of consumers from various generational cohorts to charitable programmes (Laufer et al., 2010).

Meanwhile, most of the previous studies have mainly focused on other CSR contexts such as CRM and philanthropy rather than social sponsorship. As mentioned earlier, despite all the types of CSR being related to charitable events, it can be argued that the definition and how it works may be different for each context. Therefore, this current

study aims to address the gap and contribute to the social sponsorship literature in the context of developing countries (i.e. Malaysia) by comparing different generational cohorts. The next section explores the outcomes of social sponsorship.

2.1.2 Social sponsorship outcomes

This section discusses the outcomes of social sponsorship in this study. It starts with a review of brand loyalty, and is followed by attitudes towards social sponsorship.

2.1.2.1 Brand loyalty

There are two concepts of brand loyalty: attitudinal and behavioural (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001; Oliver, 1999). Brand loyalty may be defined as “a deeply held commitment to rebuy or patronise a preferred product/service consistently in the future, thereby causing repetitive same-brand or same brand-set purchasing, despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behaviour” (Oliver, 1999, p. 34). Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001) refer to behavioural loyalty as consumers’ willingness to repurchase the brand, whereas, attitudinal loyalty is defined as how consumers rate the brand value related to them. Meanwhile, Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman (1996) describe brand loyalty as being related to consumers’ preferences towards a particular brand, devotion to repurchase and support the brand in the future. Pickton and Broderick (2005) defined it as “a consumer’s willingness to buy other brands of the brand owner (cross-selling strategy) and to buy higher value brands (upselling strategy)”. In other words, consumers will be devoted to a specific brand, and won’t purchase other brands in a similar product category.

In a sponsorship context, previous studies mainly focused on attitudinal measures (e.g. attitude towards the company or brand, cause, activity), brand image and purchase intention (e.g. Chien et al., 2011; Cornwell & Coote, 2005; Grohs & Reisinger, 2014; Quester & Thompson, 2001; Woisetschläger & Michaelis, 2012); however, there is a lack of testing of behavioural measures as outcomes (Peloza & Shang, 2011), especially brand loyalty. In this thesis, brand loyalty refers to consumers’ behaviour and feelings towards a brand which sponsors an event (Sirgy et al., 2008).

To the best of the researcher’s knowledge, only two studies have employed brand loyalty as the outcome in the sponsorship context (Mazodier & Merunka, 2011; Sirgy et

al., 2008). However, these studies focused on sports sponsorship, and did not compare different generational cohorts. This study uses brand loyalty as an outcome variable to address the scarcity of empirical research, making a contribution to the social sponsorship literature.

2.1.2.2 Attitude towards social sponsorship

Generally, attitude is defined as “a response to an antecedent stimulus or attitude object. The stimulus may or may not be observable and can best be thought of as an independent or exogenous variable. Effect, behaviour, and cognition are three hypothetical, unobservable classes of response to that stimulus” (Breckler, 1984, p. 1191). Meanwhile, attitude towards social sponsorship is an attitudinal measurement originating from how consumers measure a brand alliance, where collaboration of more than two brands or products occurs in a short or long term period (Rao & Ruekert, 1994; Simonin & Ruth, 1998). In terms of the charitable context, cause and brand alliance are portrayed as a strategic synergy between a charitable organisation and a brand, and could be an in-kind or monetary contribution to support the event (Lafferty, 2009; Lafferty & Goldsmith, 2005; Lafferty, Goldsmith, & Hult, 2004).

According to Simonin and Ruth (1998), if both parties (e.g. a brand and an event) involved have a favourable perception of consumers, then the spill-over effect emerging from the partnership influences a positive outcome. In contrast, there is a probability of a negative effect on the partnership if one of the parties has a negative perception. Therefore, brands or events need to ensure that they choose their partnership wisely in order to avoid a negative situation. In evaluating the partnership, this current study uses the term attitude towards social sponsorship to refer to the consumers' attitudinal measures on the sponsorship programme (i.e. event, brand or media).

Previous studies discovered the predictors of consumers' attitudes towards social sponsorship, especially in a charitable context. For example, a number of studies found that consumers' familiarities (i.e. low or high) with a cause-brand alliance influence their attitude towards the alliance (Lafferty & Edmondson, 2009; Lafferty & Goldsmith, 2005). Zdravkovic et al. (2010) added that consumers' familiarity with a cause influences their attitude towards the sponsorship.

Meanwhile, several studies demonstrate that conceptual congruence³ between a brand and sponsee (either social cause or sports) influences the degree of attitude towards sponsorship (Basil & Herr, 2006; Mazodier & Merunka, 2011; Olson, 2010; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006). Basil and Herr (2006) revealed that positive consumer perceptions of a brand and event yielded a higher sponsorship attitude. The study suggested prior perception of a brand and event to be antecedents of a consumer's attitude towards the alliance. Meanwhile, Simmons and Becker-Olsen (2006) found that low and high conceptual congruence between a brand and event play an important role in determining sponsorship attitude. This notion was supported by Olson (2010) who discovered that conceptual congruence is the most important predictor in sponsorship attitude, where high congruence triggered a favourable attitude towards sponsorship (Mazodier & Quester, 2014).

With the exception of these studies (Olson, 2010; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006), few studies have employed this attitudinal measure in a social sponsorship context, especially as a mediator (Olson, 2010). Attitude towards social sponsorship has been found to mediate social sponsorship outcomes such as brand equity (Olson, 2010; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006). Moreover, previous studies mainly focused on conceptual congruence between a brand and an event as a predictor of the sponsorship attitude. Therefore, this current study aims to address the gap by employing attitude towards sponsorship as a mediator between congruence and loyalty in a social sponsorship context.

2.2 Drivers of attitudes to social sponsorship

This section discusses drivers of attitudes in social sponsorship. Using Self-Congruity Theory as a theoretical underpinning, this section describes consumers' self-congruity with brands, events, and media as a driver for their attitudes.

³ Fit or congruence can be defined as a strategic match between brands and sponsee in mission, target audience, and/or values.

2.2.1 Self-congruity overview

Self-image congruence may be defined as the level of consumers' perceived or evaluated self-concept congruence with the brand, product, store, sponsorship event image or personality (Johar & Sirgy, 1991; Kressmann et al., 2006; Sirgy, 1985; Sirgy et al., 2008). Self-image congruence is also known as “self-congruity” (Kressmann et al., 2006; Sirgy, 1985; Sirgy et al., 1997; Sirgy et al., 2008) and this current study uses self-congruity throughout the thesis. There are four types of self-congruity: actual self-congruity (how the consumer views himself or herself), ideal self-congruity (how the consumer wants to portray him, or herself), social self-congruity (how others perceive the consumer), and ideal social self-congruity (how a consumer wants others to see him or herself) (Randle & Dolnicar, 2011; Sirgy, 1982; Wang, Yang, & Liu, 2009).

Self-Congruity Theory is widely used in various marketing contexts such as consumer decision making (Aguirre-Rodriguez, Bosnjak, & Sirgy, 2012; Quester, Karunaratna, & Goh, 2000), brand (Kressmann et al., 2006), advertising (Xue & Phelps, 2013) and tourism marketing (Ahn, Ekinci, & Li, 2013; Boksberger, Dolnicar, Laesser, & Randle, 2010; Gardiner et al., 2014; Gardiner et al., 2013), and it provides a beneficial impact when consumers perceive congruence with a brand (Sirgy et al., 1997). In spite of that, the application of Self-Congruity Theory in the sponsorship context is still new (Mazodier & Merunka, 2011), particularly in social sponsorship.

In the sponsorship context, self-congruity refers to how consumers perceive congruence between the consumer's self-image and the event (Sirgy et al., 2008), and the brand's involvement in the sponsorship. It suggests that consumers will perceive high self-congruity when the event and the brand are congruent with their own self-image (Randle & Dolnicar, 2011; Sirgy et al., 2008) and as a result they will actively participate in the sponsorship programme (Lee et al., 2012).

There are two types of congruence in social sponsorship. Firstly, sponsorship congruence can be categorised as congruence between a brand and an event (Prendergast, Poon, & West, 2010). This current study defines conceptual congruence as the congruence of both parties at the organisational level (e.g. corporate values, mission, brand image, target audience, and product positioning) (Becker-Olsen & Simmons, 2005; Kuo & Rice, 2015). Secondly, congruence from a consumer perspective is defined as “the sponsoring company's brand, product or service, and its

perceived closeness to an event, based on consumers' perceptions and expectations” (Jagre, Watson, & Watson, 2001).

Next, this study reviews the literature regarding congruence in the social sponsorship context followed by consumers' self-congruity with the sponsor (or brand), event and media.

2.2.2 Overview of congruence in social sponsorship

Congruence or fit in social sponsorship has received attention from academicians and practitioners (Olson & Thjømmøe, 2011; Prendergast et al., 2010). In terms of conceptual congruence, a number of studies have revealed that a high perception of conceptual congruence between a brand and event transfers to positive outcomes, whereas low perception of congruence reduces the effectiveness of social sponsorship (Becker-Olsen & Simmons, 2002; Pracejus & Olsen, 2004; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006).

Previous studies reported that it is essential for consumers to perceive a high congruence between brand and event in social sponsorship to attain positive responses (e.g. Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006; Becker-Olsen & Simmons, 2002; Pracejus & Olsen, 2004; Quester et al., 2013; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006). For example, Becker-Olsen and Simmons (2002) conducted a study comparing the relationship between three congruence conditions (i.e. high, low, and created congruence). The study found that perceived high congruence between the brand and the event increased the sponsor's brand equity compared to the low congruence condition. The study suggested that perceived high congruence between the brand and the event will increase brand equity, whereas, low congruence relationship between a brand and an event will dilute the sponsor's equity.

Becker-Olsen and Simmons (2005) supported the above notion, and found that the high congruence between brand and event positively influences favourable responses in social sponsorship (e.g. brand image, brand credibility, brand feelings, intention to support the event). Similarly, Becker-Olsen and Hill (2006) depicted that high congruence strengthened brand identity, brand meaning, brand response and brand relationship.

Simmons and Becker-Olsen (2006) further demonstrated that brand and event congruence was a significant predictor in determining social sponsorship effectiveness. The study found that high congruence positively affected sponsorship clarity and attitude towards the sponsorship, and led to a favourable response on brand equity. On the other hand, low congruence relationships engendered less clarity, less favourable sponsorship attitude and reduced brand equity. In the same vein, Quester et al. (2013) discovered that perceived congruence between a brand and a community-based event had a significant influence on sponsorship effectiveness. In short, a perceived high congruence relationship will induce a positive impact on social sponsorship, and most of the studies suggested that brands need to choose suitable events comparable with their characteristics.

Conversely, a number of authors have reported disagreement and flawed findings in conceptual congruence between brand and event. For instance, Lafferty (2007) argued that perceived congruence between the brand and the event does not have an impact on the attitude towards the brand, or towards brand and purchase intention regardless of the degree of corporate credibility. The study suggested that perceived congruity between consumers with an event is more important than perceived brand-event congruence. The study further argued that consumers are more likely to choose and support events organised by brands that have congruity with their own characteristics.

Similarly, regardless of conceptual congruence conditions (i.e. high or low), Lafferty (2009) demonstrated that perceived event and brand congruence did not affect consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions. The study indicated that engaging with an important cause from the consumers' perspective would give more positive outcomes, especially for an unfamiliar brand. It is more important to identify an event that is relevant to consumers than to have conceptual congruence (i.e. brand-event congruence).

Nan and Heo (2007)'s study showed that there were no significant differences between the brand and the event regardless of the conditions of conceptual congruence (e.g. high or low) on evoking consumers' attitudes towards a brand or advertising. This study suggested that perceived congruence between brand and event only has a positive impact if consumers have a high brand consciousness or awareness, whereas there was no effect on the low brand consciousness condition.

Meanwhile, Zdravkovic et al. (2010) found that when consumers have a greater familiarity with the event, perceived congruence between the brand and the event will not be applicable to evaluating the social sponsorship relationship. In fact, a greater familiarity with the event enhances the effectiveness of congruence on attitude towards the brand. Hence, the study asserted that consumer congruity with the event is more beneficial in social sponsorship than the brand and the event congruence.

Recently, Vanhamme, Lindgreen, Reast, and van Popering (2012) discovered that congruence between consumers and event attributes have an impact on corporate image. The study added that consumers who perceived the event as personally relevant to them transferred a more favourable attitude than those who perceived it as less relevant.

As mentioned above, research has provided evidence that conceptual congruence between a brand and an event does not always lead to favourable outcomes in a social sponsorship. Despite brand and event congruence engendering positive responses, several studies have discovered the disadvantages of the congruence relationship. Some authors have found that the congruence from a consumer's perspective (e.g. consumer familiarity, consciousness and relevance) have more impact on social sponsorship responses than just brand-event congruence (e.g. Lafferty, 2009; Nan & Heo, 2007; Vanhamme et al., 2012; Zdravkovic et al., 2010). Hence, the current study chooses to explore congruence from a consumer perspective in social sponsorship.

This current study focuses on consumer self-congruity with an event, brand, and media rather than a conceptual congruence (Prendergast et al., 2010; Sirgy et al., 2008). The term self-congruity in the social sponsorship context entails a consumer's perception of their self-image being congruent with an event, brand and media. Throughout the thesis, self-congruity refers to consumers' perceived congruence with an event, brand and media. The next section discusses consumer congruence with a brand, an event, and media.

2.2.3 Consumer and brand congruence

In terms of consumer and brand congruence, this relationship focuses on how consumers perceive the congruence of their profiles (e.g. characteristics, values and preferences) with a brand or a brand involved in sponsorship activity. This relationship

refers to consumer perceived congruence between their personality and the sponsoring brand's image (Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001; Sirgy et al., 2008). Several studies have investigated consumer and brand congruence and have discovered that high consumer congruence with the brand influences positive outcomes in a charitable context (e.g. Currás-Pérez, Bigné-Alcañiz, & Alvarado-Herrera, 2009; Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001; Stokburger-Sauer, Ratneshwar, & Sen, 2012) or other marketing context (e.g. Chebat, Sirgy, & St-James, 2006; Huber, Vollhardt, Matthes, & Vogel, 2010; Kressmann et al., 2006; Sprott, Czellar, & Spangenberg, 2009).

Sen and Bhattacharya (2001) conducted a study on consumers' evaluation responses of consumer and company congruence. The study found that consumers' perceived congruence with a brand influenced their evaluations and led to a positive evaluation for high congruence brands. Gupta and Pirsch (2006) investigated consumers' identity congruence between a brand and event in CRM. The study indicated that consumers' congruence was an important factor to success. It suggested that consumers perceiving high congruence triggered a positive attitude and purchase intention toward the brand since consumers had a strong congruence with the brand.

Similarly, Currás-Pérez et al. (2009) extended the use of consumers' and brands' congruence in a charitable context. The study found that consumers' congruity with a brand was capable of producing a positive attitude towards the brand, as well as purchase intention. In the same vein, Tuškej, Golob, and Podnar (2013) found that consumers' value congruity positively influenced their identification with a brand. The study demonstrated that consumers' perceived high brand congruence with their identity transferred a positive brand commitment and word-of-mouth.

As discussed earlier, consumer congruity with a brand or sponsor contributed to favourable attitudinal and behavioural outcomes, especially in a charitable context (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003; Currás-Pérez et al., 2009; Gupta & Pirsch, 2006). The above studies testified that consumer profiles affected the degree of consumers' perceived congruence with a sponsor. As a result, brands no longer worried about contextual congruence (i.e. high or low) between a brand and an event since prior studies proved that congruence from a consumer point of view gives more benefit (Bigné-Alcañiz, Currás-Pérez, Ruiz-Mafé, & Sanz-Blas, 2011; Kuo & Rice, 2015).

Despite the advantages of consumers' image congruence with a sponsor, there is a call for future study to examine relationships between consumers and brand self-congruity (Sirgy et al., 2008; Tuškej et al., 2013) especially in the social sponsorship context. In the next subsection, this current study explores literature related to consumer congruence with an event.

Self-congruity with a brand

A number of studies have found that the higher a consumer's self-congruity with the brand, the more the consumer shows a favourable response to the brand (Escalas & Bettman, 2005; Kressmann et al., 2006; Sirgy et al., 2008). This section discusses self-congruity with a brand based on general and specific age-group studies (i.e. generational cohort).

Kressmann et al. (2006) investigated whether consumers' self-congruity in general affected brand loyalty in the automobile industry. The study showed that self-congruity positively affects consumer brand loyalty towards an automobile brand. The study suggested that the higher consumers perceived their self-congruity with the brand, the greater the tendency for consumers to have a favourable attitude towards brand loyalty. Likewise, in a similar industry, Wang et al. (2009) argued that consumers' self-congruity on brand, brand personality and product personality played a pivotal role in influencing decisions of purchase intention. In the meantime, Chebat et al. (2006) found that consumer self-congruity had a positive impact on the perceived image of a mall's quality. They pointed out that a perceived high-quality shopping mall had a significant relationship with the level of consumers' self-congruity. The study further suggested that brands should consider the mall's image congruence with the culture and identity of the target consumers before incorporating any marketing activities.

In terms of a specific age group's perspective (i.e. generational cohorts), several studies found that each age group has their own self-congruity with a brand, disregarding any incongruent brand. For example, (Escalas & Bettman, 2005) found that Gen Y perceived a high brand connection with the brand consistent with their self-image. In contrast, the study showed that respondents perceived a low brand connection for brands incongruent with their self-image. Gen Y consumers did not feel belonging to the brand since the brand was incongruent with their self-image.

Sprott et al. (2009) indicated that consumers with a high or a low congruity had an impact on consumer response particularly for Gen Y. The study found that respondents who had a high congruence with the brand responded with more positive outcomes (e.g. favourable attitude and increased brand response). Conversely, respondents have shown a tendency to distance themselves from a brand incongruent with their self-image.

In an analysis of self-congruity among Gen Y in the United States and Korea, Sung and Choi (2010) revealed that a high perceived self-congruity with the brand had an influence on respondents' attitudes towards the brand. The study illustrated that consumer high self-congruity with the brand elicited a high brand attitude response. In contrast, Gen Y respondents from both countries showed that a brand incongruent with their self-image contributed to unfavourable attitudes towards the brand.

Meanwhile, Xue and Phelps (2013) discovered that self-congruity affects brand evaluation for Gen Y respondents. Comparing the same product category, the study discovered that Gen Y respondents showed a more favourable attitude towards a congruent brand than an incongruent brand. Consumers tended to choose the brand that had more similarity with their self-image. Hence, it is crucial for brands to ensure that their brand has similarity with the target consumers' self-image in order to compete with other brands in the same product category, especially for young consumers (i.e. Gen Y).

As discussed above, consumers' self-congruity with a brand plays a pivotal role as a predictor of desirable outcomes (e.g. brand loyalty, brand attitude and purchase intention), especially in social sponsorship (Quester et al., 2013). Numerous study findings suggested that the greater a consumer's perceived congruency with a brand, the higher the possibility for a positive spillover effect on the brand (Chebat et al., 2006; Choi & Rifon, 2012; Escalas & Bettman, 2005; Kressmann et al., 2006; Sirgy, Johar, Samli, & Claiborne, 1991; Sirgy et al., 2008; Xue & Phelps, 2013). However, consumers have a tendency to avoid incongruent brands and form negative perceptions about them (Escalas & Bettman, 2005; Sprott et al., 2009).

As noted above, it is necessary for brands to identify consumer characteristics in order to ensure that the brand's image is congruent with its consumers' self-image. This is because an incongruent brand leads to a backlash from consumers especially for young

generations (i.e. Gen Y) (Escalas & Bettman, 2003; Sprott et al., 2009). It could be argued that each generational cohort has its own self-congruity which varies from other generational cohorts since they have different generational cohort profiles (e.g. characteristics, preferences) (Noble & Schewe, 2003; Schewe & Noble, 2000). In this regard, the current study believes that generational cohorts' profiles play an important role in determining the level of consumer-brand congruity.

On the other hand, despite the advantages of brand self-congruity effecting favourable outcomes on brands (e.g. Chebat et al., 2006; Escalas & Bettman, 2005; Huber et al., 2010), there is limited empirical research focusing on congruity between a brand and consumer self-congruity, especially in the social sponsorship context (Sirgy et al., 2008). It also seems there is limited research comparing generational cohorts in social sponsorship (i.e. seems to focus on just one generational cohort or did not specify). Hence, the current study intends to fill the gap, and contribute to brand self-congruity literature (i.e. brand image and consumers' self-image) in social sponsorship.

2.2.4 Consumers and event congruence

Consumers and event congruence have been widely studied in a sponsorship context, namely sports (e.g. Deitz, Myers, & Stafford, 2012; Sirgy et al., 2008), arts (Close et al., 2009), and social causes (e.g. Gupta & Pirsch, 2006; Lee et al., 2012). Consumer-event congruence refers to how consumers believe that a sponsored event has a similar image to their personality and evokes higher degrees of event congruence (Sirgy et al., 2008). Like consumer-brand congruence, this relationship develops from the consumer's point of view.

The relationship between consumer-event congruence also has positive responses, similar to consumer-sponsor congruence, as long as consumers perceive event congruence with themselves. For example, a number of studies have reported that consumer congruence with sporting events elicited positive responses such as sponsor loyalty (Sirgy et al., 2008), favourable attitudes (Deitz et al., 2012; Gwinner & Swanson, 2003) and purchase intention (Lings & Owen, 2007). Hence, this current study believes that the congruence between consumers and events might have a similar effect to consumer-brand congruence.

Regarding consumer-event studies, Gupta and Pirsch (2006) found that high congruence influenced positive attitudes and increased purchase intention. In this research, there were two studies conducted with two different sample age groups (i.e. study 1: students; study 2: people aged 18-74). Interestingly, the findings illustrated that consumer and event congruence were only statistically different for study 2, however, not significantly different for study 1. It might be argued that study 1 samples are university students, and they belong to the same generational cohort (i.e. Gen Y). The consumer-event congruence was not significantly different since they shared a similarity in terms of event preferences. Conversely, study 2 samples consisted of mixed age groups (aged 18-74). The study found that there were significant differences among high and low congruence in regard to events. In other words, differences between generational cohorts might contribute to consumers' perceived congruity towards an event.

Cornwell and Coote (2005) found that the consumer identification with an event played a significant role in determining purchase intention. The study found a positive relationship between consumers and event identification that lead to purchase intention. Meanwhile, Lee et al. (2012) investigated how consumer lifestyles and value congruence influenced consumer loyalty in the social responsibility. The study showed that consumer values and lifestyle congruity with social responsibility activities positively impacted consumer loyalty for the younger generation in South Korea. They argued that brands should choose appropriate activities that are congruent with their consumers in order to achieve better outcomes.

Robinson, Irmak, and Jayachandran (2012) compared two types of events selected by a brand and consumers to determine consumer-event congruence. The study illustrated that consumers have more favourable responses (e.g. support the causes, donate to the causes) to the events chosen by them rather than by the brand. Additionally, the study revealed that the event's objectives or goals should be in line with consumer values and characteristics in order to achieve positive attitudes and high purchase intention especially for Gen Y. Therefore, brands are not only required to choose the event preferred by their target consumers, but also need to ensure that the objectives of the event are congruent with the consumers' objectives.

In brief, brands might consider choosing an event that has a similar self-congruity with their target consumers (Gupta & Pirsch, 2006), since consumers have a more favourable

evaluation of events congruent with themselves. As such, this current study believes that the relationship between consumer-event congruence might have a similar effect to consumer-brand congruence does, as long as an event has congruence from a consumer perspective. Later, the study elaborates consumer congruence with event according to generational cohort theory⁴ (GCT) perspective (the details of generational cohort are discussed in the next section).

Self-congruity with event

Several studies applied self-congruity theory in sponsorship and it was revealed to have a similar impact to other marketing contexts. The first systematic research that used Self-Congruity Theory in the sponsorship context was conducted by Sirgy et al. (2008). The study evaluated the impact of brand loyalty towards the relationship between consumers' self-congruity with sports events. The study demonstrated that self-congruity significantly influenced consumers' brand loyalty towards the sponsoring brand. In a similar context, Mazodier and Merunka (2011) analysed how consumer self-congruity affects brand loyalty. The study indicated that consumer self-congruity was a predictor to influencing brand loyalty. The study also added that high self-congruity with the event positively affected consumer loyalty.

In addition, Close et al. (2009) demonstrated that consumer self-congruity to the events contributed to positive attitudes towards the promotion, event persuasiveness, as well as purchase intention in art sponsorship (e.g. a fashion show event). The study suggested that when the respondents perceived that the event was congruent with their own self-image, they were more likely to respond with a positive attitude towards the event which henceforth influenced their purchase decision on the brand's products.

In terms of the social sponsorship context, Randle and Dolnicar (2011) investigated how volunteers' self-congruity determined the choice of volunteering organisation. The study found that volunteers preferred to choose organisations that transferred image and

⁴ Generational cohort refers to people who are born in the same period, experienced similar external events, and lived in similar location are inclined to have common profiles (e.g. characteristics, values, and preferences) (Mannheim, 1952; Meredith & Schewe, 1994; Ryder, 1965; Schuman & Scott, 1989).

characteristics congruent to them. Recently, Quester et al. (2013) discovered that perceived congruence with a brand's image improved consumers' self-congruity towards the sponsoring brand. This suggested that sponsoring community-based activities might change consumers' self-congruity with the sponsoring brand. The study further suggested that brands might achieve favourable outcomes in sponsorship alliance if they identified the antecedent of the consumers' self-congruity. As discussed above, consumer self-congruity with an event has a positive impact not unlike other marketing fields.

Despite self-congruity having a positive influence on consumers' attitudes towards sponsorship associated with brands, there is a scarcity of research that uses Self-Congruity Theory in the social sponsorship context, especially in comparing different generational cohorts. Previous studies did not address generational cohorts' profiles that probably influence the degree of consumer congruity with events (Quester et al., 2013; Randle & Dolnicar, 2011). Moreover, Quester et al. (2013) highlighted the need for further study the antecedents of self-congruity in social sponsorship.

Therefore, this current study employs Self-Congruity Theory to explain the relationship between different generational cohorts' profiles on social sponsorship programmes. This study believes that perceived generational cohorts' self-congruity on social sponsorship provides similar outcomes as corporate sponsorship. This view is supported by Madill and O'Reilly (2010) whereby the study indicated that a brand's manager perceived social sponsorship effect equally to corporate sponsorship. In fact, the study added that the brand and event worked together to achieve their social sponsorship objectives.

Although consumer self-congruity has a positive impact in the context of sponsorship, there is lack of studies focusing on how the heterogeneity of consumer profiles might influence consumer self-congruity. It could be argued that consumers that have different profiles may have different degrees of self-congruity with an event. Gen Y (e.g. education, poverty, environment) and Boomers (e.g. health, and religion) have their event preferences, as the influence of socialisation processes and external events during formative years shaped their generational cohorts' profiles (Cone Inc., 2006; Hyllegarda et al., 2011; Loro, 2006; Loro & Helgeson, 2013; Meredith, Schewe, & Karlovich, 2002; Noble, Schewe, & Kuhr, 2004) (see Section 2.3.5). Hence, it would be useful to

identify and segment consumers based on their personal characteristics (Sirgy et al., 2008), and alliance with events that have a high consumer self-congruity.

2.2.5 Consumers and media congruence

There are two types of media focus in this current study: new and traditional media. The term new media refers to digital media (e.g. websites, social networking sites), whereas, traditional media refers to non-digital media (e.g. newspaper, television and radio). The difference between both types of media is in terms of user interactivity. Liu and Shrum (2002) proposed three elements to define interactivity in media. Firstly, active control (users can control the media by accepting or declining information), secondly, two-way communication (online communication between the media and the users), and finally, synchronicity (the degree of synchronisation between a user's input to a communication and the response they receive from the communication). All the interactivity elements are available only in new or digital media, and cannot be found in traditional or non-digital media. Taking the above discussion into consideration, this current study uses the definition to differentiate between new and traditional media.

Self-congruity with media

This section discusses consumers' profiles (e.g. characteristics, preferences) which influence their degree of congruence on a type of media. From the consumer point of view, the basis for determining media congruence is derived from Prensky's (2001) digital definition. Prensky (2001) coined the terms "Digital Native" and "Digital Immigrant" to distinguish groups based on their knowledge and capabilities in digital technologies (e.g. internet, social networking sites). He defined a Digital Native as "a group of people who grow up in the digital world and are fluent with the digital language". Technology influences their profile, especially when it comes to media selection and preferences. On the other hand, a Digital Immigrant belongs to the generation born before digital technology emerged. These people need time to learn and understand digital technology (Prensky, 2001, 2004). Therefore, it is unlikely for both generations, Digital Native and Digital Immigrant, to share similar preferences in terms of digital technologies since their capabilities and knowledge of the digital technology may be different.

Based on Prensky's definition, the digital native generation in this current study refers to Gen Y (who were born in 1980 to 1995), whose experience of the emergence of digital technology during their formative years could possibly have influenced their profile (e.g. values, characteristics, and preferences). Previous generations (e.g. Boomers) are more competent and more knowledgeable in digital technologies as compared to the Digital Immigrant generation. In contrast to the Digital Native generation, the Digital Immigrant generation needs more time to learn about digital technologies since the technologies were not available during their childhood. Based on the above discussion, it can be argued that both digital generations may have a different degree of congruity in terms of digital technologies.

A number of studies have reported that Gen Y had a higher preference than other generational cohorts for digital media such as the internet (e.g. websites) and social networking sites (SNS) (e.g. Facebook, MySpace) than non-digital media or traditional media (e.g. television, printed newspaper, radio) (Chappuis, Gaffey, & Parvizi, 2011; Luck & Mathews, 2010; Moore, 2012; Obal & Kunz, 2013; Reisenwitz & Iyer, 2009; Thomas Kilian & Langner, 2012). Gen Y also spent more time using the internet than other traditional media (e.g. newspaper, radio, television) (Chan & Fang, 2007), and they were deemed to be more competent with digital technologies than older generations (Salajan, Schönwetter, & Cleghorn, 2010). In addition, they regularly used SNS as a medium of communication (Ellison, Steinfield, & Lampe, 2007; Subrahmanyam, Reich, Waechter, & Espinoza, 2008). In contrast, older generations relied more on traditional media than digital media as a medium of information and purchase decision (Harmon, Webster, & Weyenberg, 1999; Keane & Fam, 2005) since they seemed to have little trust in the internet as compared to Gen Y (Kilger & Romer, 2007; Obal & Kunz, 2013).

Gen Y experienced the emergence of the internet era (i.e. digital technology) during their coming of age. This is considered a significant event that could have influenced them. Thus, this current study believes that consumers belonging to the Digital Native generation (e.g. Gen Y) may have a high degree of congruity with digital media compared with Digital Immigrant consumers (e.g. Boomers).

In addition, brands must select an appropriate form of media that suits the target consumers in order to promote or communicate their event since each generational

cohort has its own media preferences (Bennett, Sagas, & Dees, 2006b). The use of media as a communication channel is important for promoting an event sponsored by a brand. Moreover, media has been demonstrated to be an important driver especially in a charitable context (Zyglidopoulos, Georgiadis, Carroll, & Siegel, 2012). It is crucial to choose the right communication strategies (e.g. new or traditional media) that have more congruency with consumers to improve consumers' perceived congruence on a brand (Bridges, Keller, & Sood, 2000), elicit a positive attitude (Rodgers, 2007; Suh, Kim, & Suh, 2011) and invoke more intention to purchase or join an event (Jeong & Lee, 2013; Poddar, Donthu, & Wei, 2009). As a result, this current study chooses new and traditional media as a communication channel for events.

Previous studies have explored the differences of generational cohort congruity in terms of media preferences or sponsorship context (Bennett, Sagas, & Dees, 2006a; Bennett et al., 2006b; Sneath, Finney, & Close, 2005; Zyglidopoulos et al., 2012); however, very few studies have been conducted on the employed media's self-congruity in a social sponsorship context, especially by differentiating between each generational cohort. Recently, Jeong and Lee (2013) examined how Gen Y perceived self-congruity towards SNS in events. The study found that Gen Y preferred to use SNS, and showed a high intention to join the cause communicated via SNS platforms. The study suggested that SNS was an appropriate medium to use, especially in a charitable context. However, the study only focused on one generation (i.e. Gen Y), and that might be the reason why respondents preferred SNS over non-SNS media. It could be argued that different generational cohorts could generate different congruity with media depending on which digital generations they belong to (Prensky, 2001). Hence, this current study intends to contribute to the literature on how congruity differences among generational cohorts affect the choice of media as a communication channel especially in a social sponsorship context.

As mentioned earlier, the digital divide between two digital generations affects the level of congruency on digital and non-digital media since Gen Y experienced the emergence of the internet era (i.e. digital technology) during their coming of age, and this is considered as a significant event that influenced them. Thus, this current study believes that consumers belonging to the Digital Native generation (e.g. Gen Y) may have a high degree of congruity with new or digital media when compared to Digital Immigrant

consumers (e.g. Boomers), while Digital Immigrant or older generational cohorts have more self-congruity to non-digital or traditional media such as printed newspaper, television, and radio. Next, this study discusses the use of media as an activation medium in a sponsorship context.

Media as activation in social sponsorship

Originating as a part of sponsorship leverage⁵, activation entails “communications that promote the engagement, involvement or participation of the sponsorship audience with the sponsor” (Weeks et al., 2008). Activation has been extensively studied and shown to be useful in assisting brands in achieving favourable responses (e.g. perceive congruence, brand and sponsorship attitude) especially in a sponsorship context (e.g. Becker-Olsen & Simmons, 2002; Mazodier & Quester, 2014; Olson & Thjømmøe, 2011; Thjømmøe, Olson, & Brønn, 2002; Zdravkovic et al., 2010).

Prior studies demonstrated positive responses from a consumer point of view in regard to activation. For instance, Olson and Thjømmøe (2011) indicated that effective activation helped brands to improve more than 30% of an overall congruence fit in sponsorship. In the same vein, several studies testified that effective activation contributed to positive consumer perceived congruence, involvement and image, as well as brand and sponsorship attitudes (Kuo & Rice, 2015; Mazodier & Quester, 2014; Yong Seok, Jin, & Sung-Hack, 2012; Zdravkovic et al., 2010). Thus, brands are encouraged to employ effective activation initiatives to support and communicate with their sponsorship programme since prior studies demonstrated positive responses from a consumer point of view.

In addition, this study utilises media as an activation medium for communicating and promoting sponsorship programmes (i.e. brand and event relationship) to their target consumers. Thompson and Speed (2007) stated that the benefits of engaging with media can reach both attendees and non-attendees for a particular event. It could be argued that media seems to be an important tool in promoting and communicating events especially

⁵ Sponsorship leverage refers to “the act of using collateral marketing communications to exploit the commercial potential of the association between a sponsee and a sponsor” (Weeks, Cornwell, & Drennan, 2008)

charitable campaigns (Zyglidopoulos et al., 2012). It has been shown that employing media in events obtained favourable responses from a consumer perspective such as sponsorship congruence (Kuo & Rice, 2015; Yong Seok et al., 2012), purchase intention (Lii et al., 2013), donation and involvement intention (Jeong & Lee, 2013). Furthermore, brands will increase consumers' knowledge and awareness of sponsorship programmes since they receive the information through media (Cornwell, 2008). By taking these points into consideration, this current study chose to employ media as a communication tool incorporated into the social sponsorship programme.

The evidence presented in this section suggests the importance of selecting media that is congruent with target consumers. It might be argued that each generation has its own media preferences (Bennett et al., 2006b) and choosing suitable media as sponsorship activation helps brands to achieve their objectives in social sponsorship.

2.3 Generational cohort theory

Generational Cohort Theory (GCT) originated from Mannheim (1952) essay "The Problem of Generations", and attempted to understand the attitude and behaviour of youths towards political situations in Germany. Mannheim defines GCT as a group of people who experience the same external events⁶ during their late adolescence and early adulthood (Mannheim, 1952).

Several scholars have supported Mannheim's idea of generational cohorts. For instance, Ryder (1965) defined a generational cohort as individuals who were born around the same period and shared social or historical events during critical developmental periods. Schuman and Scott (1989) stated that "the generational character created by the events a generational cohort experiences during its youth is assumed to exert an important, even decisive, influence on the future attitudes and actions of its members". They added that the events and changes that occurred in the youth period had a greater impact on individual memory and remained unchanged. From a consumer perspective, a generational cohort is a group of consumers who experienced similar socialisation

⁶External events such as historical, political, social, economic and technological (D'Amato & Herzfeldt, 2008; Mannheim, 1952; Schewe & Meredith, 2004; Schewe & Noble, 2000).

periods and external events (e.g. social, economic and political, etc.) when they were young adults, and these events affect their values, characteristics, attitudes and behaviour, (Meredith & Schewe, 1994; Meredith, Schewe, & Karlovich, 2002; Petroulas et al., 2010; Schewe et al., 2000). These definitions give a clearer idea of the generational cohort concept, and how this theory can be used in segmenting consumers.

Motta et al. (2002) have pointed out that individuals in the same generational cohort are homogeneous. However, they are heterogeneous among other generational cohorts. Similarly, Schewe and Noble (2000) stated that each generational cohort might have a different profile to other generational cohorts based on external events that they encountered during their coming of age⁷ period. These events are believed to determine the consumer's values, attitudes and beliefs, and these values can distinguish one generational cohort from another. In this regard, each generational cohort member shares a similar profile (e.g. values, characteristics and attitudes) which was formed based on their experiences during their coming of age.

In addition, a number of scholars believe that external events have an impact on individuals' values, characteristics, attitudes and behaviours (Gardiner et al., 2014; Mannheim, 1952; Motta & Schewe, 2008; Ryder, 1965; Schewe et al., 2013; Schewe & Noble, 2000; Schuman & Scott, 1989). Segmenting generational cohorts based on external events might be useful to distinguish one generational cohort from another (Gardiner et al., 2013; Schewe & Noble, 2000). Thus, it is essential for marketers to identify significant events experienced by consumers during their formative years in order to understand their values, characteristics and preferences (Noble & Schewe, 2003; Schuman & Scott, 1989).

In short, this current study categorises consumers as a group of people who were born at the same time, lived in the same location and experienced similar significant events during their coming of age (i.e. late adolescence and early adulthood). They experienced macro and micro socialisation processes together. The socialisation processes influenced and shaped the equivalent values, characteristics, attitudes and preferences

⁷ Late adolescence or young adulthood, aged between 17 and 23 (Noble et al., 2004; Schewe et al., 2000)

among generational cohort members. Therefore, brands need to identify a generational cohort's features in order to facilitate consumer segmentation and marketing activities (Schewe & Noble, 2000). The next section discusses the factors that contribute to the establishment of a generational cohort.

2.3.1 The factors influencing a generational cohort

This section discusses two socialisation factors (i.e. macro and micro) that may influence the formation of generational cohort profiles. In this regard, this study uses the Model of Generational Influences on Consumer Socialisation (Rindfleisch, 1994) to explain how both factors influence generational cohort profiles (see figure 2.1).

Adapted from the Model of Consumer Socialisation (Moschis & Churchill, 1978), the model depicts two socialisation factors that may lead to the outcome of socialisation processes (e.g. generational cohort profiles): namely, antecedents (e.g. social structure, life stage) and socialisation processes factors (e.g. family generation relationship). The model proposes that antecedent factors have a direct effect on the formation of generational cohort profiles (e.g. characteristics, values and attitudes). The current study refers to antecedents in the model as macro socialisation factors since most members of a generational cohort experienced similar socialisation processes and this has a direct impact on the generational cohort profiles.

Meanwhile, despite experiencing similar macro socialisation processes, individuals might have different profiles compared to other generational cohort members. It could be argued that the influence of micro socialisation factors such as family, friends, ethnicity and media may cause variance among the profiles of the generational cohort members (Rindfleisch, 1994). Hence, the current study refers to socialisation processes as a micro socialisation factor that has an indirect effect on the influence of generational cohort profiles, alongside macro factors.

As mentioned earlier, GCT is a group of individuals, who were born in the same period, experienced similar defining moments (e.g. external events), were living in the same place during their late adolescence or early adulthood and were inclined to have common generational cohort profiles since the defining moments that they experienced influenced them (Moschis & Churchill, 1978; Ryder, 1965; Schuman & Scott, 1989).

Hence, this current study considers defining moments or external events (e.g. historical, political, social and technological) as macro-level socialisation factors; while the influence of family, peers, religion and ethnicity are examples of micro-level socialisation factors (Noble & Schewe, 2003; Petroulas et al., 2010; Rindfleisch, 1994; Schewe & Meredith, 2004; Schewe & Noble, 2000; Schewe et al., 2000; Schuman & Scott, 1989). Next, this study discusses macro and micro socialisation factors that influence a generational cohort's profile.

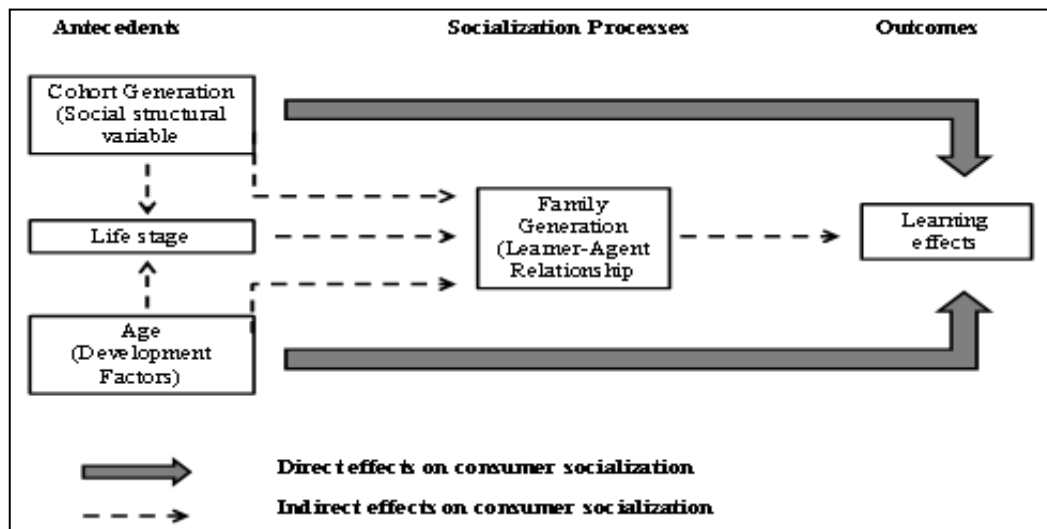


Figure 2.1: Model of generational influences on consumer socialisation (Rindfleisch, 1994)

2.3.1.1 External events

As discussed in the previous section, this current study refers to macro-level socialisation as defining moments or external events experienced by a generational cohort's members. A number of scholars have suggested that external events experienced by individuals during their formative years (e.g. age 17-23) affect the formation of generational cohort profiles (Kritz & Arsenault, 2006; Mannheim, 1952; Noble & Schewe, 2003; Ryder, 1965; Schuman & Scott, 1989). Historical events, political ideologies, unrest, social turmoil, economic changes and technological innovations are examples of defining moments, and may have occurred at international, national and local levels (Mannheim, 1952; Noble & Schewe, 2003; Ryder, 1965; Schuman & Scott, 1989). At the international level, more than one country will experience and be affected by the external events. For example, in World War II, Malaysia was affected due to the invasion by the Japanese. In addition, a number of countries were affected and involved in World War II such as the US, Great Britain and

New Zealand (e.g. Japanese attacks in Southeast Asia and the bombing of Pearl Harbour).

In contrast, countries may have different national-level defining moments since only people living in that particular country experienced the events. For instance, Malaysia's Independence Day on 31st of August 1957 was the most remarkable event for Malaysians; however, not for other countries (Liu, Lawrence, Ward & Abraham, 2002). Meanwhile, at the local level, individuals who only lived in a specific area have experienced and may be affected by local events rather than national ones. Hence, these defining moments may influence a generational cohort profile as well as differentiate one generational cohort from another regardless of the levels (Gardiner et al., 2013; Petroulas et al., 2010).

Meanwhile, researchers should consider some factors when identifying defining moments that have a direct impact on influencing generational cohort profiles. Meredith, Schewe, and Karlovich (2002) suggest identifying external events that give directly cause effect to generational cohort members to form a generational cohort. For example, Shuman and Scott (1989) found that more than one generational cohort recalled World War II and the Vietnam War as the most significant events in the US. This study argues that the younger generational cohort probably learned the events through media or their family members instead of personally experiencing them since both events were famous events and easy for people to recall.

Similarly, Noble and Schewe (2003) argued that some of the external events are not impactful enough to create a generational cohort effect. Their study found that even though the external events occurred during the individuals' coming of age, they were not directly involved in the events (e.g. Gulf War, Kosovo War). GCT proposes that those individuals who directly experienced the external events during their coming of age will have an impact on the formation of generational cohort profiles. Hence, brands should categorise generational cohorts carefully and choose external events that directly or personally affect the generational cohort since misidentifying the external event could lead to a misinterpretation of the consumers' profiles.

In addition, unlike the traditional generation segmentation method, a generational cohort period is not determined by a length of time (e.g. 20 to 25 years) (Meredith &

Schewe, 1994; Motta & Schewe, 2008). It can be shorter or longer than other generational cohorts, and does not have a fixed period since it depends on external events experienced during the generational cohort's coming of age (D'Amato & Herzfeldt, 2008; Meredith & Schewe, 1994; Meredith, Schewe, & Karlovich, 2002; Schewe et al., 2000). For example, the World War II cohort in the US is only six years in duration, and the Post War cohort is 18 years (Meredith & Schewe, 1994). In contrast, The Post War cohort in Brazil is eight years long, and the next generational cohort, "The Optimism" is 12 years (Motta et al., 2002). Therefore, a generational cohort's duration may be varied and it could be different from other generational cohorts based on the significant events that they experienced during their formative years.

Several studies discovered that external events have a direct influence on determining of a generational cohort's profile (e.g. values, preferences, attitudes), and this profile remains unchanged for a person's entire life (Motta et al., 2002; Petroulas et al., 2010; Rindfleisch, 1994; Schewe & Noble, 2000; Schuman & Scott, 1989). External events are capable of creating homogeneity among the generational cohort members, however different they are from other generational cohorts (Gardiner et al., 2013; Meredith, Schewe, & Karlovich, 2002; Motta et al., 2002; Schuman & Scott, 1989). In this regard, each generational cohort member shared similar profiles which were developed based on individuals' experiences during their formative years.

As such, this current study employs external events as a benchmark for identifying a generational cohort. As mentioned earlier, it only selects the external events that have had a direct effect on the establishment of generational cohort profiles to avoid misinterpretation of the generational cohort. It helps brands to sponsor a social sponsorship programme that relates to a generational cohort's profile. Next, this current study discusses the critical period known as the "coming of age" or "formative years" mentioned by previous scholars, that has an impact on the formation of a generational cohort's profile.

Coming of age

Coming of age or formative years is a crucial period for an individual in the establishment of their profiles (e.g. characteristics, preferences, values and attitudes)

(Mannheim, 1952; Meredith & Schewe, 1994; Schuman & Scott, 1989). Several scholars suggested that an individual's coming of age occurs from late adolescence and early adulthood or during the youth period (Mannheim, 1952; Ryder, 1965; Schuman & Scott, 1989). It could be argued that coming of age is a vital period in the development of an individual's profile (e.g. characteristics, attitudes and personal views) (Loroz & Helgeson, 2013; Mannheim, 1952; Meredith & Schewe, 1994; Meredith, Schewe, Hiam, & Karlovich, 2002)

Several studies have supported the notion that coming of age is a crucial period in the development of an individual's values. For instance, Schuman and Scott (1989) conducted a study on significant events (e.g. national or international events) that influenced individuals for the past 50 years. The study demonstrated that the majority of significant events recalled by the respondents were from their youth period. For example, respondents' highest recall for World War II was at age 16 to 24 and the Vietnam War at age 15 to 27 years. Holbrook and Schindler (1989) investigated how the individual's development of tastes for popular music peaked at a certain age. The results showed that the respondents most likely preferred popular music when they were aged 23. The study suggests that individuals were inclined to determine their popular music during their youth period.

In addition to the youth period, Holbrook (1993) conducted research on nostalgia proneness to determine an individual's characteristics and preferences. The respondents were required to choose their favourite movies. The study found that the older respondents tended to choose their favourite movies from their younger years; however, young respondents preferred current movies. In supporting the youth period as a crucial time for individuals, Marchegiani and Phau (2011) conducted a study to investigate the historical nostalgia which occurred between 1960 and 1970 among Gen Y. The study found that the historical nostalgia was unlikely to impact the respondents. It might be argued that historical nostalgia occurred outside Gen Y's critical period or formative years and they did not personally experience them. The above findings indicate that individuals have strong memories of the external events which occurred in their youth period (Schuman & Scott, 1989). Hence, this current study believes that the youth period is a vital time for individuals to develop their profiles.

In Generational Cohort Theory (GCT), the consequences of defining moments on individuals' socialisation processes have a greater impact during their youth period (Noble et al., 2004). As mentioned earlier, the youth period is a powerful period to create individuals' profiles and the profiles remain unchanged for their entire life (Loroz & Helgeson, 2013; Meredith, Schewe, & Karlovich, 2002). Therefore, this current study selects 17 to 23 as the coming of age period to identify consumers' defining moments (Schewe & Meredith, 2004; Schewe et al., 2000). This study aims to identify external events that occurred during individuals' coming of age since the period is a vital time in shaping consumers' profiles (Meredith & Schewe, 1994).

In short, the consumer segmentation in GCT was based on the external events encountered by cohort members, and it could be a short or long period depending on the events (D'Amato & Herzfeldt, 2008; Meredith & Schewe, 1994; Motta & Schewe, 2008; Noble & Schewe, 2003). Hence, it is necessary for brands to identify defining moments that occurred during consumers' coming of age since that period is a crucial time for the generational cohort to create their profiles (Mannheim, 1952; Meredith & Schewe, 1994; Ryder, 1965; Schewe et al., 2000).

2.3.1.2 Micro-level socialisation

As discussed earlier, macro-level socialisation is an important determinant of specific profiles of a generational cohort; however, micro-level socialisation could contribute to a variation in individuals in the same generational cohort (Carlsson & Karlsson, 1970; Gardiner et al., 2013; Noble & Schewe, 2003; Petroulas et al., 2010). According to Rindfleisch's model (see Figure 2.1), despite sharing similar external events, micro-level socialisation processes would have an impact on consumers' socialisation and contribute to the variation of generational cohort members' profiles (Rindfleisch, 1994). Micro-level factors such as family, peer, religion, media and ethnicity are seen as an agent that may influence the variation of generational cohort profiles (Noble & Schewe, 2003; Rindfleisch, 1994; Shim, Serido, & Barber, 2011).

A number of studies have reported that micro-level factors have an impact on the differences among generational cohort members despite experiencing the external events together. Schuman and Scott (1989) demonstrated that gender and ethnic groups played a pivotal role in influencing generational cohort effect and collective memory.

For example, the study found that the Women's Rights Movement was more likely to be mentioned by women than men. In terms of ethnicity, more Black people posited that civil rights movements and black assassinations were significant external events than Whites.

Ethnic differences also contribute to the collective memory of a variety of individuals' (Schuman & Scott, 1989). For example, Jewish people were more affected than other ethnic groups by the assassination of Yitzhak Rabin, the Prime Minister of Israel (Noble et al., 2004). Rindfleisch (1994) pointed out that social class also led to differences among generational cohort effects. For instance, despite being in the same generational cohort, US Baby Boomer members had different perceptions towards the Vietnam War. Baby Boomers who served as soldiers supported the government action in Vietnam. On the other hand, upper middle-class people opposed the government policy in the Vietnam War.

In spite of the Racial Riot in 1969 being a memorable event for Malaysians, Liu et al. (2002) demonstrated that the respondents' ranking of the importance of the historical event varied among ethnic groups. Hence, the above evidence clearly showed that micro-level socialisation processes (e.g. ethnicity, social class) were able to influence a generational cohort even though it experienced similar external events.

Meanwhile, Noble and Schewe (2003) have argued that the impact of external events alone is inadequate for creating a distinctive generational cohort effect for an individual. They asserted that micro-level socialisation should be taken into account in the determination of the generational cohort effect since it has an impact on the generational cohort creation. In supporting this notion, Gardiner et al. (2013) found that external events alone were not enough to determine generational cohort profiles. The study proposed that even though external events were useful for identifying generational cohort gaps, micro socialisation processes could be important in influencing generational cohort effect.

As discussed above, the current study believes that different socialisation processes at the micro-level provide a different effect among generational cohort members despite being in the same generational cohort, especially in a Malaysian context. Malaysia is a multicultural country with a diverse ethnic mix (Ridhwan Fontaine et al., 2002).

Therefore, this current study assumes that ethnicity could influence variation in a generational cohort's profiles despite being in the same generational cohort and sharing similar external events. In this regard, this current study chooses ethnicity as a micro-level factor in the individual's socialisation process.

In conclusion, the generational cohort members' ethnicity might influence the degree of self-congruity on a social sponsorship in spite of being in the same generational cohort. Generational cohort members will probably have different degrees of self-congruity on a social sponsorship because of the micro-level socialisation processes experienced by them.

Ethnic Marketing

As discussed earlier, micro socialisation processes influence generational cohorts' characteristics, values and attitudes along with external events (Gardiner et al., 2013; Noble & Schewe, 2003; Petroulas et al., 2010; Rindfleisch, 1994; Schuman & Scott, 1989). In this regard, the current study chooses ethnicity as a micro socialisation process. The study examines the influence of ethnicity on consumers' self-congruity towards a social sponsorship programme in Malaysia.

Ethnic marketing refers to marketing communication elements (e.g. advertisements, sales promotion and sponsorship) that are used by a brand for a targeted ethnic group (Holland & Gentry, 1999). The brand embeds its marketing communications that are congruent with ethnic elements in order to attract or influence a target ethnic group (e.g. language, cultural attributes, spokesperson or brand ambassador, music and art) (de Run, 2007; Holland & Gentry, 1999). Hence, ethnic marketing has received growing interest among researchers as an important strategy to target specific consumers (Cui, 2001).

Several studies show that the implementation of marketing activities targeted at ethnic group yields positive results. Forehand and Deshpande (2001) revealed that despite being in the same age group (university students), respondents responded differently towards advertisements related to their ethnic groups (e.g. Asian and Caucasian). For example, Asian respondents had a higher ethnic identification than Caucasian. In the same vein, Appiah and Liu (2009) illustrated the differences between young Chinese

and White respondents towards advertisements; high and low culturally-embedded advertisements. The Chinese respondents showed a more favourable attitude to high Chinese culturally-embedded advertisements than low culturally-embedded ones in contrast to the White respondents.

Meanwhile, Chattaraman, Rudd, and Lennon (2009) conducted a study comparing Hispanic and mainstream product cultures among young Hispanics. The study found that the young Hispanic respondents had a more positive attitude towards the product related to their culture than to a mainstream product. The study indicated that ethnic group (e.g. culture) played an important part in terms of product evaluation. Hence, the current study believes that each ethnic group has its preferences in terms of advertisements, products and brands.

As previously mentioned, Malaysia is a country with a multi-ethnic population with a diverse cultural background (Westwood & Everett, 1996) and plural society (Ridhwan Fontaine et al., 2002). The Malaysian population is diversified in terms of ethnicity, religion, language, culture and economic interests despite living in the same country (Milner, 1991). Therefore, ethnic groups in Malaysia are not integrated and they socialise in different settings, especially older generational cohorts (e.g. the end of colonial era, post-independence).

In respect to the Malaysian context, several studies have addressed targeted and non-targeted advertisements by comparing ethnic groups (e.g. Malay and Chinese). Malaysian consumers responded more favourably to advertisement, brand, and intention to purchase for advertisements specifically targeted to their ethnic group compared with non-targeted advertisements (Butt & de Run, 2011; Butt & Run, 2012; de Run, 2007). These studies indicated that the influence of ethnic groups on consumers' perception of advertisements led consumers to be inclined to react positively towards advertisements congruent with their own culture.

As discussed above, ethnicity seems to be an important factor to take into consideration as a micro socialisation process in this current study. Socialisation processes at the micro-level will probably provide a different effect among generational cohort members even within the same generational cohort (Rindfleisch, 1994). Since Malaysia has a multi-ethnic community as well as a plural society (Ridhwan Fontaine et al., 2002), this

current study chooses ethnicity as a micro-level socialisation agent in the individual's socialisation processes (Schuman & Scott, 1989).

2.3.2 The need to identify generational cohorts in different countries

This section discusses why generational cohort profiles (e.g. characteristics, attitudes and behaviours) differ from one country to another. As discussed in Section 2.3.1.1, there are three levels of external events: international, national and local level. Generational cohort effect might differ from one country to another since individuals experienced different types of external events, are in different locations and belong to different cultures (Schewe et al., 2013). Socialisation processes experienced by individuals will probably distinguish their values and characteristics even though they share a similar context culture (e.g. western culture), religion and external events (Usunier, 1996).

Several studies have shown that there are differences in generational cohort effect among different countries. Schewe and Meredith (2004) investigated the external events for generational cohorts comparing three countries (i.e. the US, Brazil, and Russia). The study found differences in terms of significant external events cited by the respondents. For example, World War II was a remarkable event for the American and Russian respondents; however, the event was not powerful enough to influence Brazilian respondents. The study suggested that people in both the U.S. and Russia had a direct experience with the event. Those affected by the war might have had an unpleasant experience and have experienced scarcity in terms of economy, security and freedom. Hence, these experiences influenced the U.S. and Russian cohorts and shaped their cohort profiles, but were insufficient for creating a generational cohort effect for Brazilians.

Schewe et al. (2013) conducted a study on Gen Y's values by making a comparison of three countries: the U.S, New Zealand, and Sweden. The study found that there was a similarity between the U.S. and New Zealand. In contrast, the study found a huge difference in term of values between U.S. and Swedish respondents. The study suggested that the national cultural differences might contribute to the similarity and differences between the U.S. and Swedish respondents. Cultural differences have an influence on generational cohort effect even in the same age group. Hence, identifying

generational cohort is important since a different country might have a different culture and generational cohort effect.

Fam, Waller, and Erdogan (2004) examined consumers' attitudes towards controversial advertising across six countries (e.g. Turkey, Malaysia, China, Taiwan, Britain, and New Zealand). The study found that the respondents had differences in attitude towards controversial advertising in spite of sharing the same age group and education level (e.g. Gen Y, college students). Hence, the study suggested that generational cohorts' attitudes varied across the countries and other factors (e.g. culture, religion, or socialisation processes) could contribute to the generational cohort effect. Moreover, Waller, Fam, and Erdogan (2005) discovered that the respondents from Malaysia and Turkey differed in terms of perceptions and views on attitudes towards controversial products and advertisements. Despite the majority of the population being Muslim, both samples perceived advertisements and products differently. For example, Turkish respondents perceived gambling and alcohol as highly offensive but this view was contradicted in Malaysian samples. It could be argued that Malaysia is a multi-ethnic country and more tolerant in order to maintain social and cultural understanding. In Malaysia, advertisers are allowed to promote gambling and alcohol in Chinese, English, and Tamil newspapers and magazines to cater for the non-Muslim market (Waller & Fam, 2000). The study indicated that socialisation processes might influence individuals' attitudes in spite of having the same religion. Individuals who have the same religion, but differ in their environment of socialisation (e.g. different country or different external events) will probably be distinctly different in their generational cohort profiles.

The above studies indicated that each country has a unique socialisation process despite experiencing similar external events, socioeconomics, culture, geography, religion, and politics (Schewe & Meredith, 2004). As mentioned earlier, consumers should be in the same country and experience similar external events during their coming of age in order to have a similar generational cohort effect, (Mannheim, 1952; Ryder, 1965; Schuman & Scott, 1989). Therefore, identifying generational cohorts' profiles (e.g. values, attitudes, and characteristics) in a particular country is pivotal in consumer segmentation. It is useful for brands to understand and develop marketing strategies streamlined with their target generational cohort.

2.3.3 Generational cohorts in Malaysia

GCT states that individuals are inclined to be influenced by external events (e.g. historical, political, economic, and technological) which occurred during their formative years. The external events established generational cohorts' profiles (e.g. characteristics, values, attitudes, and behaviours) (Mannheim, 1952; Meredith & Schewe, 1994; Meredith, Schewe, & Karlovich, 2002; Noble & Schewe, 2003). This current study identifies the significant external events that occurred in Malaysia, and contributed to the establishment of generational cohorts' profiles during their coming of age (Schewe & Meredith, 2004; Schewe et al., 2000).

This study focuses on Malaysia as a developing country context. Malaysia is a multi-ethnic country with a diverse cultural background (Westwood & Everett, 1996). It also has a heterogeneous and plural society (Ridhwan Fontaine et al., 2002). Furnivall (1948) defined plural society as “characterised by ethnic groups who live under one political unit (a country), but are not integrated, while every ethnic group has its language, culture, religion, values, thinking, and way of life” (Cited in Jali, 2003, p. 163). Moreover, Milner (1991) states that the Malaysian population is diversified by ethnicities, religions, languages, cultures, and economic interests despite living in one and the same country. In fact, the Malaysian population is divided by geographic separation (e.g. Chinese in towns, Malays in villages), recognition of ethnicity by employment (e.g. Malays in agriculture, Chinese in mining), social contact (e.g. ethnic-based school or education), and culture (Jali, 2003).

A number of studies have explored generational cohorts in Malaysia (e.g. Choong, Ong, & Moschis, 2013; de Run & Ting, 2013; Fon Sim Ong, J. Philip Kitchen, & Jama, 2008; Moschis & Ong, 2012; Ting & De Run, 2012; Ting & de Run, 2013; Ting, Run, & Fam, 2012); nevertheless, there is still a scarcity of research in GCT (Ting & De Run, 2012), especially in identifying generational cohorts in Malaysia. Recently there were studies done to identify generational cohorts in Malaysia (e.g. de Run & Ting, 2013; Ting et al., 2012), however, these studies mainly focused on Sarawak, one state in Malaysia. Even in the same country, different settings or locations might influence a generational cohort effect. Previous studies showed the differences of generational cohort effect despite being in the same country (Elliott & Tam, 2014; Fam et al., 2008; Lin & Wang, 2010). Therefore, this current study believes that identifying and

validating generational cohorts' external events is important to segment consumers, especially in Malaysia since this current study aims to conduct the study in the western part of Malaysia and not only one state.

Based on the literature reviews related to Malaysian history and past events (Appendix 2.1), this current study has identified five generational cohorts in Malaysia (see Table 2.1). In spite of discovering five generational cohorts in Malaysia; the study only focuses on two cohorts: namely, Boomers and Gen Y. The reason the current study chose Gen Y is that it has a larger representation in Malaysia's than the other cohorts (Department of Statistics Malaysia, 2010, 2012). Meanwhile, most of the Boomers are established in their careers and incomes, and probably hold higher positions in an organisation than Gen Y. Thus, it helps brands to engage with a social sponsorship programme (e.g. event, brand, and media) congruent with both generational cohorts' profiles. Next, the current study explores generational cohort studies in various marketing contexts.

Table 2.1: *Generational cohorts in Malaysia*

Generational cohort	External events	Profiles
1. The end of colonial era <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Born : 1924 to 1940 Coming of age: 1941 to 1957 Current age 74 to 90 (2014) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> World War II, Japanese occupation Malayan Union The Malaysian emergency The first general election in Malaysia The Malaysian Independence Day 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Depression, scarcity of resources (e.g. food), safety and security concern Obedient follower and embrace with "command and conquer" Independence of spirit and more nationalism than other cohorts
2. The post-independent cohort <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Born : 1941 to 1952 Coming of age: 1958 to 1969 Current age 62 to 73 (2014) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Confrontation between Malaysia, Indonesia and Philippines, The formation of Malaysia The separation of Singapore from Malaysia Racial Riot in 1969 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Frustration – the failure of economic plans and government policy Deprivation/poverty, Scepticism, Communalism/racism, Prejudiced.
3. Boomers <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Born : 1953 to 1963 Coming of age: 1970 to 1981 Current age 51 to 61 (2014) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> New Economic Policy (NEP) National Ideology 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> conformity/unity stability economic growth national unity stereotyping discrimination unfair treatment
4. Generation X <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Born : 1964 to 1979 Coming of age: 1981 to 1997 Current age 35 to 50 (2014) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> First national car Privatization policy Vision 2020 Look east policy "Lalang" operation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Economic bloom Work hard – Japanese and Korean work culture Forced to obey the government - autocratic
5. Generation Y <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Born : 1980 to 1994 Coming of age: 1997 until recent Current age 20 to 34 (2014) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> advent of the Internet Financial crisis Malaysian Deputy Prime Minister expelled Reform movement Coalition for Clean and Fair Elections (BERSIH) demonstration 2008 General Election 1Malaysia concept 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Democracy/human right Digital native Educated Ethnic tolerance & accepting diversity Freedom Information savvy Knowledgeable society Transparent & integrity

2.3.4 Generational cohort studies in marketing

This section discusses generational cohort studies comparing different generational cohorts. Several studies found that the generational cohort is a more efficient and reliable method for segmenting consumers than traditional methods (e.g. demographic variables, cross-sectional) especially in a marketing context (Eastman & Liu, 2012; Loro & Helgeson, 2013; Rentz & Reynolds, 1991; Rentz et al., 1983; Schewe et al., 2000).

For instance, in consumer consumption, Rentz et al. (1983) discovered the influence of cohort effect on consumer behaviour. Based on 1979 data, consumers aged 20-29 were more frequent drinkers of Coca-Cola. The study found that those generational cohort members, who had a high intake of Coca-Cola at a young age still continued a similar consumption pattern as they grew older. Hence, the study suggested that consumers who preferred the brand during their young adulthood were still loyally consuming the brand in the later age.

Rentz and Reynolds (1991) conducted a study focusing on coffee consumption in the U.S. Based on a cross-sectional analysis, the study anticipated that coffee consumption for the younger generation in 1980 might have a similar pattern to the next generation in 1989. Surprisingly, the actual data revealed that young consumers in 1989 consumed less coffee than the previous generation (i.e. 1980). In contrast, despite moving to a later age, the study showed that young consumers in 1980 had a similar consumption pattern for coffee consumption to their younger age group. The above studies highlighted a disadvantage of cross-sectional analysis in determining the sample, since the generational cohort members were likely to continue their consumption pattern in their later stage. On the other hand, the young generational cohort who replaces the older cohort will probably not have the same consumption pattern as the older one.

Dittmar (2005) showed the differences between generational cohorts in compulsive buying among three age groups. The study found that the young respondents had a higher degree of compulsive buying behaviour than the older respondents. In addition, the young cohort also had a more materialistic value than the older generational cohort. Additionally, Pentecost and Andrews (2010) found differences in consumers' purchasing frequency, expenditure, fashion consciousness, attitudes, and impulsive buying across four generational cohorts. For instance, Gen Y respondents were reported to purchase more frequently than previous generational cohorts.

Eastman and Liu (2012) noticed differences in status consumption across three generational cohorts: Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Generation Y. Gen Y respondents had higher status consumption as compared to the two previous generational cohorts. The study further indicated that relationships between generational cohorts and status consumption were not affected by demographic variables (gender,

income, and education). The study postulated that the generational cohort is the most useful method for determining the consumer's consumption.

In regards to controversial advertising, Fam et al. (2008) discovered differences in levels of offence caused by controversial products among three generational cohorts in China (Red Generation, Cultural Revolution Generation, and Gen Y). The older respondents showed a high level of offence than younger cohorts when it came to attitudes towards controversial products (e.g. sex-related products). The study argued that external events experienced by the generational cohort members had an impact on their attitudes towards controversial advertising.

In terms of tourism marketing, Pennington-Gray, Kerstetter, and Warnick (2002) stated that generational cohort segmentation was an effective way to determine tourist behaviour. The study argued that each generation cohort had different preferences on the travelling patterns (e.g. younger cohorts favoured worldwide vacations more than the older generation). This study believes that generational cohort analysis is a proven method to forecast travellers' behaviour because characteristics and preferences of travellers derive from the experience of external events occurring during their young adulthood.

Pennington-Gray et al. (2003) examined travel behaviour among the four generational cohorts (GI Generation, Silent generation, Baby Boomers Generation, and Gen X). The study found that there were differences across generational cohorts in terms of travel behaviour. Baby Boomers and Gen X were more interested in nature-based tourism than older generational cohorts. On the other hand, the Silent cohort favoured a higher quality of accommodation more than other generational cohorts. The study argued that the Silent cohort experienced an economic boom during their coming of age, and the event affected their travel behaviour. The study suggested that brands were required to provide products or services that were congruent with target travellers' preferences. Thus, brands needed to understand and identify generational cohort characteristics and provide services or products tailored to consumers' preferences.

Recently, Gardiner et al. (2013) discovered that external events were a useful method for determining generational cohort and creating the "generation gap". The study argued that the external events themselves were insufficient for affecting generational cohort

behaviour in travel decision making. This study believes that cohort effect is unique and different across the generational cohorts; however, other factors might need to be considered in order to determine travel decision making (e.g. micro socialisation).

In the Malaysian context, a number of studies showed that the differences among generational cohort profiles contributed to the differences in the attitudes towards advertising, well-being, materialism, consumer preferences, and consumption (e.g. Choong et al., 2013; de Run & Ting, 2013; Fon Sim Ong et al., 2008; Moschis & Ong, 2012; Ting & De Run, 2012; Ting & de Run, 2013; Ting et al., 2012). Hence, the current study believes that external events have an impact on Malaysian consumers as suggested in the previous studies.

As discussed above, it may be concluded that there are many reasons (e.g. reliable and efficient) to consider segmenting consumers using generational cohort analysis (Eastman & Liu, 2012; Loroz & Helgeson, 2013; Rentz & Reynolds, 1991; Rentz et al., 1983; Schewe et al., 2000). Through GCT, brands can identify consumer profiles based on the external events experienced during their coming of age. This is because these experiences are useful in the establishment of consumers' profiles, and will remain unchanged through their entire lives (Meredith, Schewe, & Karlovich, 2002; Parment, 2013; Schewe & Noble, 2000; Schuman & Scott, 1989).

In spite of the advantages of using generational cohort as a consumer segmentation, there is still a lack of study in the use GCT in comparing different generational cohorts in a social sponsorship and developing country context (Bal et al., 2010; Laufer et al., 2010; Pentecost & Andrews, 2010), especially for multi-ethnic countries like Malaysia. Segmenting consumers using generational cohort profiles (e.g. characteristics, values) enables brands to develop marketing and communication activities that are congruent with their target consumers (Noble & Schewe, 2003). In terms of social sponsorship, brands might consider associating themselves with events and media congruent with their consumers' profiles in order to achieve sponsorship objectives.

2.3.5 Generational cohort and type of event congruence

This current study employed GCT to segment its respondents. Briefly, GCT proposed that individuals in the same generational cohort have common profiles (e.g. values,

characteristics, and preferences) since they experienced similar socialisation processes together (e.g. external events) (Mannheim, 1952; Noble & Schewe, 2003; Ryder, 1965) (see Section 2.3). Hence, the level of congruence on a type of event may be different since each generational cohort has a different profile and is distinct from others.

Previous studies found that identifying and segmenting consumers' profiles had a positive impact on consumers' responses in social sponsorship (Cui et al., 2003; Hyllegarda et al., 2011; Lee et al., 2012). Yavas, Woodbridge, Ashill, and Krisjanous (2007), found Tweeners (aged 10-12) perceived an animal cause more favourably than social and humanitarian causes. They suggested that brands should consider sponsoring animal causes if their target consumers are Tweeners. Meanwhile, Cui et al. (2003) found that Gen Y showed differences in regard to the type of cause. For instance, Gen Y consumers had a more positive support of events related to disasters (vs. ongoing causes), non-transactional-based (vs. transactional-based), and long-term events (vs. short-term). Respondents tended to perceive more purchase intention for brands involved in an event that was congruent with them (e.g. disaster, non-transactional based).

Also, Hyllegarda et al. (2011) examined the influences of gender, type of cause, amount of charitable support, and message appeal impact on attitudes and purchase intention among Gen Y. Likewise, Lii et al. (2013) found that the more Gen Y perceived their psychological distance (i.e. social and spatial distance) of social responsibility activities related to them, the higher their attitude towards brand and campaign credibility.

In the meantime, Gen Ys are more socially conscious and environmentally aware, and more in favour to events related to social causes, education, poverty, and the environment (Cone Inc., 2006; Hyllegarda et al., 2011; Meredith, Schewe, & Karlovich, 2002). On the other hand, Boomers would likely prefer events associated with health and religious causes (Loroz, 2006; Loroz & Helgeson, 2013; Noble et al., 2004). Despite that, Reisenwitz and Iyer (2009) found that Gen Y and previous generational cohorts have an equivalent degree of volunteerism on social causes. As such, it could be useful for sponsors to identify the event and tailor with the event campaign that has a high congruence with target consumers to attain positive responses.

As discussed above, a number of studies suggested that identifying and segmenting consumers based on their characteristics had a positive impact on consumers' responses in social sponsorship (Cui et al., 2003; Hyllegarda et al., 2011; Lee et al., 2012). However, most of the studies focused only on one specific generational cohort, namely the young generation. There is a need for a study to investigate how older generational cohorts respond to events (Cui et al., 2003; Laufer et al., 2010) since the differences in generational cohorts' profiles may affect outcomes. It could be argued that each generational cohort has a unique profile, and comparing different generational cohorts would foster a better understanding in a social sponsorship context. Hence, the lack of studies on the comparison between generational cohorts in a social sponsorship context motivates this study to address this limitation.

2.3.6 Relationship between generational cohort theory and self-congruity in social sponsorship

As discussed earlier, segmenting consumers based on a Generational Cohort theory (GCT) approach will likely assist a brand to identify consumers' self-congruity with an event, brand, and media. Section 2.2.1 discusses four types of self-congruity (i.e. actual, ideal, social, and ideal social), however, this current study chooses an actual self-congruity (how the consumer views him or herself) as an evaluation of a social sponsorship programme. The main reason to choosing actual self-congruity was the use of GCT as a benchmark to identify consumers' profiles. According to the theory, generational cohorts' profiles were shaped through the experience of the external events that occurred during individuals' coming of age (Howe & Strauss, 2000; Mannheim, 1952; Meredith & Schewe, 1994; Noble & Schewe, 2003).

The actual self-congruity is relevant in this study because consumers experienced the external events personally and this can have a direct effect on perceptions of self-congruity (Meredith, Schewe, & Karlovich, 2002). It is therefore crucial to identify the generational cohorts' profiles since the actual self-congruity reflects personal experiences and the individual perceives herself or himself in relation to a social sponsorship. Based on the discussion, the current study chooses the consumer's actual self-congruity as an evaluation of a social sponsorship.

Meanwhile, Sirgy et al. (2008) suggested that brands need to identify consumers' characteristics before becoming involved in sponsorship. Using generational cohorts as a basis for segmenting consumers enables brands to choose social sponsorship activities congruent with their target consumers. Consequently, brands may be capable of identifying the consumer profiles (e.g. characteristics, values, attitudes) that exist in generational cohorts. Then brands can engage in the social sponsorship activities congruent with the generational cohort's self-congruity to achieve their sponsorship objectives.

A number of studies employed GCT and self-congruity in one study. For example, Carpenter, Moore, Doherty, and Alexander (2012) conducted a study comparing two generational cohorts (i.e. Gen Y and Silent Generation) on the acculturation of global consumer culture. The study found that there were significant differences between both generational cohorts in regards to self-identification with global consumer culture and multinational corporations (MNCs). The study indicated that more Gen Y preferred global culture and MNC than the older generations. Recently, Gardiner et al. (2013) explored the uses of self-congruity theory in the understanding of generational cohorts' identities among Boomers, Gen X, and Gen Y. The study found that self-congruity theory was useful for identifying generational cohorts' profiles, especially those of older generational cohort respondents (e.g. Boomers).

Despite that, the segmentation of consumers using both GCT and self-congruity theory in one study is still inadequate (Gardiner et al., 2013), especially in a social sponsorship context. Previous studies on GCT mainly focused on descriptive rather than theoretical underpinnings (Lyons & Kuron, 2014). In the same vein, Quester et al. (2013) suggested conducting research to identify the antecedents of self-congruity, especially in social sponsorship. It could be argued that the use of both theories will further extend our knowledge of social sponsorship. For example, generational cohort profiles and self-congruity are helpful in identifying social sponsorship that are congruent with target consumers. Hence, it motivates this current study to conduct a study integrating GCT and self-congruity in a social sponsorship context. Moreover, the current study attempts to conduct research using GCT and self-congruity theory collectively in order to segment consumers, especially in a social sponsorship context.

Furthermore, this current study focuses on the differences of how generational cohorts perceived their self-congruity, especially in a social sponsorship context. In this regard, this study believes that GCT is useful in discovering generational cohort profiles that have more congruence with a social sponsorship (i.e. event, brand, and media).

2.4 Chapter summary

This chapter has reviewed three main sections in this study. As discussed earlier, this study integrates two theories (Self-Congruity and GCT) in a social sponsorship context. Based on GCT, this study identified five generational cohorts in Malaysia, and each generational cohort has a unique profile (e.g. characteristics, values, and behaviours). Self-Congruity Theory is employed to explain the relationship between generational cohorts' profiles and a social sponsorship programme (i.e. event, brand, and media). As mentioned earlier, self-congruity is described as the more consumers perceive a social sponsorship to be similar to their own profiles, the greater the possibility of exhibiting a positive response (e.g. attitudes, loyalty) (Escalas & Bettman, 2005; Sirgy et al., 2008). Hence, it could be useful for brands to identify their target generational cohorts' profiles since different generational cohorts have different profiles that may contribute to different responses on a social sponsorship.

Based on the literature on social sponsorship, Self-Congruity Theory and GCT, this current study identified a number of gaps that need to be addressed. For instance, this current study aims to address the gap in and contribute to the social sponsorship literature in the developing countries' context (i.e. Malaysia) by comparing different generational cohorts. In terms of Self-Congruity Theory, this current study intends to extend the uses of the theory in social sponsorship. It also aims to address consumers' self-congruity with events and brands by comparing generational cohorts.

From a GCT perspective, this current study aims to explore the use of GCT in comparing different generational cohorts in a social sponsorship and a developing country context, especially in a multi-ethnic society. In multi-ethnic societies, ethnicity might have an impact on generational cohort profile despite members experiencing similar external events. Hence, this study aims to empirically test the influence of ethnicity in a social sponsorship context. The next chapter explores the development of

a conceptual model and outlines hypotheses based on the literature review presented in Chapter 2.

This page is intentionally left blank.

CHAPTER 3 CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

This chapter describes the development of the conceptual model based on the literature review discussed in Chapter 2. It begins with a brief overview of the theories underpinning this study (i.e. generational cohort theory and self-congruity) and develops a conceptual model for social sponsorship (see Figure 3.3).

Next, this chapter discusses the hypotheses expected to emerge from the conceptual model relating to two theories in a social sponsorship context. Firstly, it begins with a generational cohort's congruity with a social sponsorship programme that includes event, brand, and media. Secondly, it discusses the level of the generational cohort's congruity with the social sponsorship programme that affects the generational cohort's attitude towards sponsorship and brand loyalty. Later, this chapter explores the influence of ethnicity in affecting the social sponsorship programme, attitude towards sponsorship and brand loyalty. Finally, it discloses the final conceptual model that was tested in this study (see Figure 3.3).

3.1 Overview

As discussed in Chapter 2, the development of hypotheses and conceptual model derives from two theories: Generational Cohort Theory (GCT) and Self-Congruity Theory. A review of the literature found that there is a lack of empirical studies that employ both theories (i.e. GCT and self-congruity) in one study (Gardiner et al., 2013), especially in a social sponsorship context, comparing different generational cohorts (Cui et al., 2003; Laufer et al., 2010).

Self-congruity proposes that the more individuals perceive their self-concept congruence with brand, product, store, and event image, the higher the possibility of the individuals' self-congruity (Johar & Sirgy, 1991; Kressmann et al., 2006; Sirgy, 1985; Sirgy et al., 2008). In Section 2.2.1, four types of self-congruity were discussed: actual, ideal, social, ideal social. Nonetheless, this study chooses to employ actual self-congruity since it reflects the actual personal experience that influences generational cohorts' profiles (Meredith, Schewe, & Karlovich, 2002).

On the other hand, GCT argues that a group of people who are born in the same period, live in the same location, and experience similar external events during their formative years (e.g. 17-23 age) tend to have a common generational cohort profile (e.g. characteristics, values, and preferences) (Mannheim, 1952; Ryder, 1965; Schewe & Meredith, 2004; Schewe et al., 2000; Schuman & Scott, 1989). GCT is useful in identifying and segmenting consumers' profiles (e.g. characteristics, values), and it is proven to be a more efficient and reliable segmentation method compared to the other methods (e.g. demographic, cross-sectional) (Eastman & Liu, 2012; Loro & Helgeson, 2013; Rentz & Reynolds, 1991; Rentz et al., 1983). As discussed before, each generational cohort has its own profile since the people experienced different external events and socialisation processes during their formative years. With regards to a generational cohort's self-congruity, the current study anticipates that Boomers and Gen Y will have a different degree of congruity with a social sponsorship programme (e.g. event, brand, and media) since both generational cohorts experienced different external events that affected their profiles (see Section 2.3.3 and Table 2.1).

As discussed in an earlier chapter, this study focuses on Malaysia, a developing country (see Section 2.3.3), since Malaysia is a country of multi-ethnic people with diverse

cultural backgrounds (Westwood & Everett, 1996). As a result, the current study assumes that ethnicity plays an important role in determining social sponsorship responses among generational cohorts (i.e. Boomers; Gen Y) in Malaysia. The details of the proposed hypotheses are discussed in this chapter.

Social sponsorship programme

In the social sponsorship context, cooperation between a brand and an event could have a positive or negative effect since consumers have their own perception of each party. It depends on the consumer's perception of the social sponsorship alliance (i.e. event, brand, and type of media). This study uses the term social sponsorship programmes to refer to social sponsorship activities that consist of an event, brand or type of media.

3.2 Generational cohort and event

Several studies had discovered differences in generational cohort congruity in terms of social causes or events. Gupta and Pirsch (2006) discovered some significant differences across generational cohorts on event congruence. However, the study revealed insignificant differences in the same generational cohort. It could be argued that each cohort has its own event preferences that might differ from other generational cohorts (Cone Inc., 2006; Hyllegarda et al., 2011; Meredith, Schewe, & Karlovich, 2002; Yavas et al., 2007). Consumers have more congruence with events that are personally relevant to their self-congruity (Grau & Folse, 2007) and consistent with the objectives of consumers (Robinson et al., 2012).

Events proximity or geographical distance could play an important role from a consumer's point of view. The previous studies discussed how cause proximity influenced consumers' perception towards the events. Most of the studies comprised of cause support for local vs. non-local settings (e.g. local, national, and international). There were mixed findings on consumers' congruity with cause proximity. A number of studies revealed that there were no significant differences between local and non-local causes (Anuar & Mohamad, 2011; Cui et al., 2003; La Ferle et al., 2013; Ross, Patterson, & Stutts, 1992).

While some studies show no significant difference, these studies did find differences on cause proximity (Grau & Folse, 2007; Kim, Oh, & Thorson, 2014; Lii et al., 2013;

Vanhamme et al., 2012). For instance, Grau and Folse (2007) found that the less involved respondents were significantly congruent with local events, however, there were no statistical differences between local and non-local events for the more involved respondents. Vanhamme et al. (2012) claimed that consumers perceive a more positive image of cause identification for a local cause, whereas, they perceive a more corporate image of an international cause as compared to a local cause. Gen Y in Taiwan showed a greater attitude towards national causes as compared to international causes (Lii et al., 2013). Adult respondents in the U.S. perceived more favourable attitudes towards local causes as compared to non-local causes; however, Gen Y perceived no significant difference in both causes (Kim et. al., 2014).

As discussed above, the previous studies have extensively focused on local and non-local cause proximity. However, there were some recommendations made to investigate causes that are more specific, accurate, and closer to the target consumers rather than making comparisons between local and non-local causes (Cui et al., 2003; La Ferle et al., 2013). As a result, this current study introduces the concept of ethnicity by comparing local ethnicity causes and international causes since Malaysia is a multi-racial country, and each ethnicity has its own uniqueness.

In Chapter 2, it is mentioned that generational cohort profiles (e.g. characteristics) differ among Gen Y and Boomer since both generational cohorts experienced different external events. Hence, this might result in both generational cohorts having a different degree of congruity on events. The Internet is one of the significant events contributing to the Gen Y's profiles (values) in Malaysia. It can be argued that Gen Y is a Digital Native generation as they grew up with the Internet (Prensky, 2001), and were exposed to international media (Fam et al., 2008). Gen Y is more concerned with global issues (e.g. poverty, environmental, human rights) since they experienced globalisation (Bucic et al., 2012). Tamam, Tien, Idris, and Hamzah (2006) discovered that Gen Y has a higher level of ethnic tolerance, cultural knowledge, ethnic rights, and positive attitudes towards inter-ethnic relations than the boomer generation. A greater number of Gen Y members receive a higher level of education than the previous generational cohorts (Ministry of Higher Education Malaysia, 2007, 2009, 2010). Thus, this could have led Gen Y to be more exposed to a multi-ethnic environment as a consequence of a longer time with formal education (e.g. kindergarten, school and college or university).

On the other hand, Malaysian Boomers experienced a significant external event during their coming of age (i.e. the New Economic Plan policy introduced by the Malaysian government to reduce economic disparity among ethnicities). As compared to Gen Y, Boomers are still concerned about their ethnicity as a result of the policy. Hence, this current study assumes that Boomers will have more congruence with respect to ethnic-based events than Gen Y. For instance, Malays and Chinese would tend to support events associated with their ethnicity. Engaging with an ethnic-based event is expected to provide a more beneficial impact on the sponsorship programme according to Boomers' point of view. This study refers to social event as "event" throughout the thesis. Therefore, considering the above discussion, the study hypothesises:

H1a: Boomers will have a greater degree of self-congruity with an ethnic-based event than Gen Y.

H1b: Gen Y will have a greater degree of self-congruity with an international event than Boomers.

3.3 Generational cohort and brand

As mentioned earlier, the study uses the term "brand" to refer to a sponsor or firm who sponsored an event (Becker-Olsen & Simmons, 2002). Some studies have found that consumers are more likely to choose brands that are congruent with their self-congruity as compared to incongruent brands (Chebat et al., 2006; Choi & Rifon, 2012; Escalas & Bettman, 2005; Kressmann et al., 2006; Sirgy et al., 1991; Sirgy et al., 2008). Besides, incongruent brands will result in an unfavourable perception from consumers, especially for Gen Y (Escalas & Bettman, 2005; Sprott et al., 2009; Xue & Phelps, 2013).

The previous studies presented dissimilarity among generational cohorts' preferences. In such instances, consumers, especially those from older generational cohorts, had a tendency to favour past nostalgia for events that occurred during their formative age (Holbrook, 1993; Holbrook & Schindler, 1989). In terms of brand, older consumers are more likely to have preferences for brands similar to those they used to use during their young adult period and remain attached to those brands (Lambert-Pandraud & Laurent, 2010). However, young consumers are willing to switch to a new brand (Helm & Landschulze, 2011; Lambert-Pandraud & Laurent, 2010). This means that identifying brand preferences by those generational cohorts during their formative age is crucial to

ensure positive outcomes. Thus, both generational cohorts have different brand preferences since they went through different formative ages.

Gen Y is the generation that embraced globalisation (Bucic et al., 2012; Carpenter et al., 2012), and has more ethnic tolerance (Fam et al., 2004; Tamam et al., 2006) as compared to Boomers, since their external events influence their profiles (e.g. characteristics, values). Waller et al. (2005) claim that Malaysian Gen Ys are more ethnically tolerant compared to their Turkish counterparts since they live in a multi-ethnic society and they have more cultural understanding towards various ethnic groups.

On the other hand, Carpenter et al. (2012) found that Gen Y had a high self-congruity with global consumer culture and preferred a multi-national company as compared to the previous generations (e.g. Boomers). Moreover, the majority of young consumers in Malaysia had a high preference for international brands rather than local brands (Teo, Mohamad, & Ramayah, 2011). In contrast, some evidence revealed that older generations have high religiosity and embrace more local culture than Gen Y (Fam et al., 2008; Loro, 2006; Loro & Helgeson, 2013). With regard to this, this current study expects that both generational cohorts (e.g. Gen Y, Boomers) will have a different degree of congruence since the generational cohorts' profiles influence them. Based on this, the following are the proposed hypothesises:

H2a: Boomers will have a greater degree of self-congruity with an ethnic-based brand than Gen Y.

H2b: Gen Y will have a greater degree of self-congruity with an international brand than Boomers.

3.4 Generational cohort and media

As previously mentioned in Section 2.2.5, Gen Y is labelled as a Digital Native generation as they grew up in the Internet and digital era; however, Boomers are considered Digital Immigrants since they needed to learn about digital technologies such as the Internet and interactive media (Prensky, 2001, 2004). Hence, both generational cohorts will have different media congruity due to digital knowledge and capabilities.

In terms of media preferences, digital immigrant generations still rely on traditional media (Harmon et al., 1999) and have little trust in the Internet (Kilger & Romer, 2007; Obal & Kunz, 2013). In contrast, Gen Y have a higher preference for digital technologies (e.g. interactive media, internet) than the previous generational cohorts (Chappuis et al., 2011; Luck & Mathews, 2010; Moore, 2012; Obal & Kunz, 2013; Reisenwitz & Iyer, 2009; Thomas Kilian & Langner, 2012). It could be argued that Gen Y regularly use social-networking sites (SNS) as a communication medium (Ellison et al., 2007; Subrahmanyam et al., 2008) and spend more time on the Internet rather than with traditional media (Chan & Fang, 2007). Additionally, Jeong and Lee (2013) discovered that Gen Y have a higher preference for SNS especially in events activities.

In terms of media selection, this current study chooses printed newspaper and Facebook to represent both traditional and new media. It is reported that printed newspaper contributed to the highest advertising expenditure in Malaysia as compared to other media (e.g. Free to Air Television, radio) (Association of Accredited Advertising Agents Malaysia, 2011). Meanwhile, Facebook is a popular SNS among youth in Malaysia (Malaysian Communications and Multimedia Commission, 2014; Mustaffa et al., 2011). Based on the previous discussion, it seems that each generational cohort has its own media congruence. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H3a: Boomers will have a greater degree of self-congruity with a newspaper than Gen Y.

H3b: Gen Y will have a greater degree of self-congruity with social media (Facebook) than Boomers.

3.5 Event self-congruity and attitude towards sponsorship

Consumers' self-congruity with events plays a vital role in determining favourable responses in a sponsorship context. A number of researchers have reported that the relationship between consumers' self-congruity with an event contributed to favourable outcomes (Cornwell & Coote, 2005; Deitz et al., 2012; Gupta & Pirsch, 2006; Lee et al., 2012; Lings & Owen, 2007; Randle & Dolnicar, 2011; Robinson et al., 2012; Sirgy et al., 2008; Vanhamme et al., 2012). Several studies on consumers' self-congruity showed that higher self-congruity with an event led to higher positive attitudes towards sponsorship in various sponsorship contexts such as sport (Mazodier & Merunka, 2011),

entertainment (Close et al., 2009), and events (Gupta & Pirsch, 2006; Robinson et al., 2012). Also, consumers tend to have a positive attitude towards events congruent with themselves (Robinson et al., 2012) and possess a positive attitude towards the alliances (Gupta & Pirsch, 2006). Therefore, the general hypothesis is as follows:

H4: The greater the degree of self-congruity with the event, the more positive the attitude towards the sponsorship.

As mentioned earlier (see Section 3.2), this current study posits that Gen Y will have a high self-congruity with international events, while Boomers may have more congruence with ethnic-based events. Hence, generational cohorts' congruity with events (i.e. international, ethnic-based) will influence their attitude towards social sponsorship. Based on these propositions, it is hypothesised that:

H4a: The relationship between self-congruity and attitude towards social sponsorship for an ethnic-based event will be stronger for Boomers than Gen Y.

H4b: The relationship between self-congruity and attitude towards social sponsorship for an international event will be stronger for Gen Y than Boomers.

3.6 Brand self-congruity and attitude towards sponsorship

Consumers' self-congruity with a brand has influenced favourable attitudes from consumers' points of view (Dalakas & Levin, 2005; Kressmann et al., 2006; Quester et al., 2000; Wang et al., 2009). Previous studies found that consumers were more likely to choose brands that were congruent with their own self-congruity as compared to incongruent brands (Chebat et al., 2006; Choi & Rifon, 2012; Escalas & Bettman, 2005; Sirgy et al., 1991; Sirgy et al., 2008). On the other hand, incongruent brands result in negative or unfavourable responses, especially for Gen Y (Escalas & Bettman, 2005; Sprott et al., 2009; Xue & Phelps, 2013). Hence, below is the general hypothesis:

H5: The greater the degree of self-congruity with the brand, the more positive the attitude towards the sponsorship.

In section 3.3, Boomers will have a high degree of self-congruity on ethnic-based brands since the previous studies stated that the old generational cohort is more attached to local culture and has a high level of religiosity as compared to the young

generational cohort (Fam et al., 2008; Loro, 2006; Loro & Helgeson, 2013). Hence, this current study believes that there is a relationship between generational cohorts' congruity with a brand that contributes to the favourable attitude. Consumers' self-congruity would be able to induce a favourable attitude when they possess a high level of self-congruity towards a brand participating in a social sponsorship programme. Accordingly, sponsor self-congruity may lead to a greater and a more positive sponsorship attitude. Taking the above discussion into consideration, it is hypothesised that:

H5a: The relationship between self-congruity and attitude towards social sponsorship for an ethnic-based brand will be stronger for Boomers than Gen Y.

H5b: The relationship between self-congruity and attitude towards social sponsorship for an international brand will be stronger for Gen Y than Boomers.

3.7 Media self-congruity and attitude towards sponsorship

As discussed in section Section 3.4, Gen Y and Boomers have their different degrees of congruity with media. Salajan et al. (2010) revealed the significant difference between Gen Y and the old generational cohorts in relation to digital technologies. For instance, a number of studies have found that Gen Y devote more time and have higher preferences for new media (e.g. Internet, social-networking sites) as compared to traditional media (e.g. television, printed newspaper) (Chan & Fang, 2007; Ellison et al., 2007; Jeong & Lee, 2013; Subrahmanyam et al., 2008). In contrast, older generational cohorts have fewer preferences for using online media (Harmon et al., 1999).

A study revealed that the use of Internet-based media (e.g. online newspaper, e-sponsors) in relation to sponsorship programmes invoked a more favourable attitude towards the brand, especially for a congruent brand (Rodgers, 2004, 2007). A number of studies found that young consumers believed the relationship between website and brand personality with consumers' self-congruity yielded a favourable attitude towards web advertising (Moore, Stammerjohan, & Coulter, 2005; Zhou & Bao, 2002) and purchase intention (Poddar et al., 2009). In the same vein, Taylor, Lewin, and Strutton (2011) discovered that consumers' self-congruity was an important predictor for the

positive attitude towards social-networking sites' (SNS) advertising. Gen Y has a more favourable attitude towards SNS advertising (Chu, 2011) and provided positive responses to events (Jeong & Lee, 2013).

With respect to the above discussion, this study expects a similar effect on attitude towards sponsorship since generational cohorts' media congruence plays an important role as the predictor of favourable attitudes (e.g. web ads, brand). Based on the above discussion, it can be concluded that the higher consumers associate media congruence with their own self-image, the more positive attitude they have towards sponsorship partnership. Therefore, it is hypothesised that:

H6: The greater the degree of self-congruity with the media, the more positive the attitude towards the sponsorship.

H6a: The relationship between self-congruity and attitude towards social sponsorship for a newspaper will be stronger for Boomers than Gen Y.

H6b: The relationship between self-congruity and attitude towards social sponsorship for Facebook will be stronger for Gen Y than Boomers.

3.8 Attitude toward the sponsorship and brand loyalty

With regard to the charitable context, consumers' perceived higher attitude towards the charitable alliance elicited more positive outcomes (Lafferty & Edmondson, 2009; Lafferty et al., 2004; Zdravkovic et al., 2010). It could be argued that when consumers perceive the charitable alliances in a more favourable manner, then the possibility of positive consequences or effects emerges from the alliances (Lafferty et al., 2004; Simonin & Ruth, 1998).

Besides, several studies claim that the attitude towards sponsorship has a mediating effect on antecedents and sponsorship outcomes. For instance, consumers' perceived favourable attitudes towards sponsorship significantly influences a greater brand attitude, sponsor or brand equity and brand loyalty (Mazodier & Merunka, 2011; Olson, 2010; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006).

Previous studies have found that consumers' self-congruity functioned as a significant determinant of brand loyalty in sponsorship (Lee et al., 2012; Mazodier & Merunka,

2011; Sirgy et al., 2008). Nonetheless, more studies are needed to investigate the relationship between consumers' self-congruity and brand loyalty (Mazodier & Merunka, 2011), especially by using attitude towards sponsorship as a mediator. Therefore, the use of brand loyalty as an outcome in this study is expected to address the scarcity and contribute to the social sponsorship literature. In this regard, this current study decided to use brand loyalty as an outcome study (see Section 2.1.2.1).

It is predicted that consumers' attitudes toward sponsorship will act as a mediator between social sponsorship programmes (event self-congruity, brand self-congruity, and media self-congruity) and brand loyalty. The generational cohort will have a higher degree of brand loyalty towards congruent compared to incongruent social sponsorship programmes. Hence, this current study posits that the degree of brand loyalty depends on the consumers' perceived attitude towards the sponsorship. Based on these propositions, it is hypothesised that:

H7: The more positive the attitude towards the sponsorship, the greater the degree of brand loyalty.

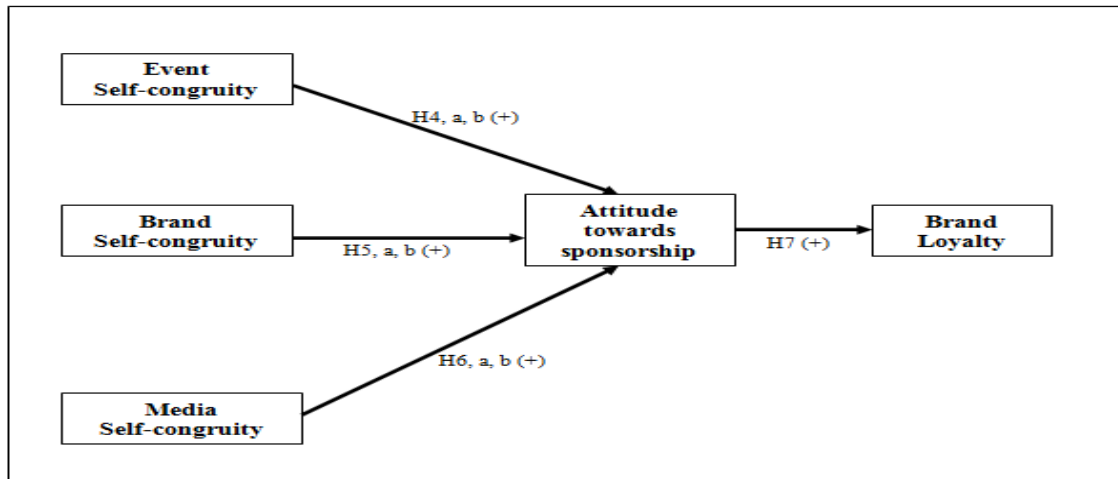


Figure 3.1: Relationship between generational cohorts' self-congruity towards sponsorship attitude and brand loyalty

3.9 Ethnicity and social sponsorship programmes

According to GCT, each generational cohort member shares a similar profile since they experienced the same external events during their coming of age period. GCT considers generational cohort members to be a unit when they share a common profile (Mannheim, 1952; Noble & Schewe, 2003; Ryder, 1965; Schuman & Scott, 1989), they are also distinct to other generational cohorts (Motta et al., 2002; Schewe & Noble, 2000). In the previous chapter (see Section 2.3.1.2), it is mentioned that micro socialisation factors (e.g. family, ethnicity, religion) have an impact on generational cohort profile apart from macro socialisation factors (e.g. external events). With respect to this, several researchers argue that there is a discrepancy in a generational cohort's profiles despite experiencing similar external events during the member's formative years (Gardiner et al., 2013; Noble & Schewe, 2003; Valentine & Powers, 2013), especially when it comes to different ethnic backgrounds (Pennington-Gray et al., 2002; Schuman & Scott, 1989). This current study assumes that micro socialisation factors such as family, religion, social class and ethnicity might influence a variation in generational cohort members' profile.

In multicultural and heterogeneous societies, distinctiveness is an important dimension in predicting an individual's behaviour (McGuire, McGuire, Child, & Fujioka, 1978). Distinctiveness can be defined as a group of individuals that have unique characteristics, personality and attributes, and generally form a numerical minority from a majority population (McGuire, 1984; McGuire et al., 1978; McGuire, McGuire, & Winton,

1979). It could be minority in terms of ethnic group, religion, gender or sexual orientation (Appiah, 2004; Grier & Deshpandé, 2001; McGuire, 1984; McGuire et al., 1978; McGuire et al., 1979). Hence, this current study refers to distinctiveness as a minority ethnic group, while non-distinctiveness refers to a majority ethnic group.

Ethnic targeted marketing has received much attention as a marketing strategy (Cui, 2001) and employs ethnic marketing cues (e.g. spokesperson, advertisements) targeted to consumers' ethnic backgrounds (Holland & Gentry, 1999). Previous studies related to ethnic marketing used cultural cues such as spokesperson (e.g. Holland & Gentry, 1999; Lenoir, Puntoni, Reed II, & Verlegh, 2013; Whittler, 1989), advertisements (e.g. Appiah & Liu, 2009; Butt & de Run, 2011; Forehand & Deshpande, 2001; Karande, 2005; Khan, Lee, & Lockshin, 2015), website (e.g. Appiah, 2004; Bartikowski, Taieb, & Chandon, 2016; Li & Kalyanaraman, 2012), scenario and news (Appiah, Knobloch-Westerwick, & Alter, 2013; Johnson & Grier, 2013) to accommodate targeted ethnic groups. A number of studies compared numerical minority and majority ethnic groups, for instance, Asian and White American (Appiah & Liu, 2009; Forehand & Deshpande, 2001), Asian and White New Zealand (Martin, Lee, & Yang, 2004), Black and White American (Appiah et al., 2013; Grier & Brumbaugh, 1999; Grier, Brumbaugh, & Thornton, 2006), Black and White South Africa (Grier & Deshpandé, 2001; Johnson & Grier, 2013), and Hispanic and White American (Deshpandé & Stayman, 1994; Sierra, Hyman, & Torres, 2009).

Previous studies found minority ethnic groups were more ethnically salient (Appiah, 2004; Deshpandé & Stayman, 1994; Grier & Deshpandé, 2001) and concerned more about their ethnic group than a majority group (Appiah et al., 2013). Minority groups also responded more positively and favourably towards ethnic marketing cues (e.g. advertisements, spokesperson) targeted to their ethnic group than to a majority group (Appiah & Liu, 2009; Grier & Brumbaugh, 1999; Grier et al., 2006; Grier & Deshpandé, 2001; Martin et al., 2004); however, this was not the case for majority groups (Grier et al., 2006). These findings are in line with the distinctiveness proposition where distinctive groups are more salient and attached to their groups as compared to non-distinctive ones (McGuire et al., 1978). Therefore, there are possibilities for differences in evaluation and decision making in terms of ethnic-targeted marketing between numerical minority and majority ethnic groups.

As discussed earlier (see Section 2.3.3), Malaysia is a multi-ethnic country with a population of diverse cultural backgrounds (Westwood & Everett, 1996) and a plural society (Ridhwan Fontaine et al., 2002). The ethnic groups in Malaysia are not integrated and they socialise in different settings such as religion, language, ethnic groups and economic interest despite living in the same country (Milner, 1991). In terms of population, Malays are the numerical majority at 50.1% of the population. Chinese consist of 22.6% (Department of Statistics Malaysia, 2010). This study describes the Chinese as a distinctive group since they are a minority ethnic group compared to Malays (i.e. a majority and non-distinctive). Hence, Malays and Chinese Malaysians might have different profiles although they are classified in the same generational cohort.

The aim of this section is to investigate the influence of ethnicity in a generational cohort. Despite GCT proposing that individuals in the same generational cohort have a common profile since they experienced the same external events, this current study argues that ethnicity might influence its members have different perceptions of social sponsorship programmes. Therefore, it should be tested in order to clarify this assumption.

As shown in previous studies, numerical minority ethnic groups tend to have a more favourable attitude towards ethnic marketing targeted to their ethnic groups as compared to numerical majority ethnic group. Experiencing similar external events during their coming of age, Chinese respondents might have a different evaluation of targeted ethnic marketing as compared to Malays. Based on the above discussion, this current study assumes that Chinese respondents will have a greater degree of self-congruity with ethnic-based events and brands as compared to Malays since they are the numerical minority ethnic group. Moreover, they will show a more favourable attitude and brand loyalty towards ethnic-based events and brands than Malays. This current study proposes that Chinese as a minority ethnic group have more ethnically salient and will show a more favourable attitude towards social sponsorship programmes that accommodate their ethnic group as compared to Malays.

This present study tests hypotheses on events and brands since both have manipulations related to ethnicity as compared to the media (e.g. ethnic-based and international events and brands). With respect to the above discussion, this study posits that, as a numerical

minority ethnic group, Chinese Boomers and Gen Y will have more self-congruity towards ethnic-based social sponsorship programmes than Malays Boomers and Gen Y (a majority ethnic group). Therefore, it is proposed that:

H8a: As a minority ethnic group, Chinese (Boomers and Gen Y) will have a greater degree of self-congruity with an ethnic-based event than Malays (Boomers and Gen Y).

H8b: As a minority ethnic group, Chinese (Boomers and Gen Y) will have a greater degree of self-congruity with an ethnic-based brand than Malays (Boomers and Gen Y).

H8c: The relationship between self-congruity and attitude towards social sponsorship for an ethnic-based event will be stronger for Chinese (Boomers and Gen Y) than Malays (Boomers and Gen Y).

H8d: The relationship between self-congruity and attitude towards social sponsorship for an ethnic-based brand will be stronger for Chinese (Boomers and Gen Y) than Malays (Boomers and Gen Y).

In contrast, the distinctive traits might influence Chinese respondents in evaluating international events and brands. As a numerical minority ethnic group, Chinese respondents might have a low degree of self-congruity with international events and brands as compared to Malay since they are of more salience and concern to their ethnic group. Hence, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H9a: Malays (Boomers and Gen Y) will have a greater degree of self-congruity with an international event than Chinese (Boomers and Gen Y).

H9b: Malays (Boomers and Gen Y) will have a greater degree of self-congruity with an international brand than Chinese (Boomers and Gen Y).

H9c: The relationship between self-congruity and attitude towards social sponsorship for an international event will be stronger for Malay (Boomers and Gen Y) than Chinese (Boomers and Gen Y).

H9d: The relationship between self-congruity and attitude towards social sponsorship for an international brand will be stronger for Malay (Boomers and Gen Y) than Chinese (Boomers and Gen Y).

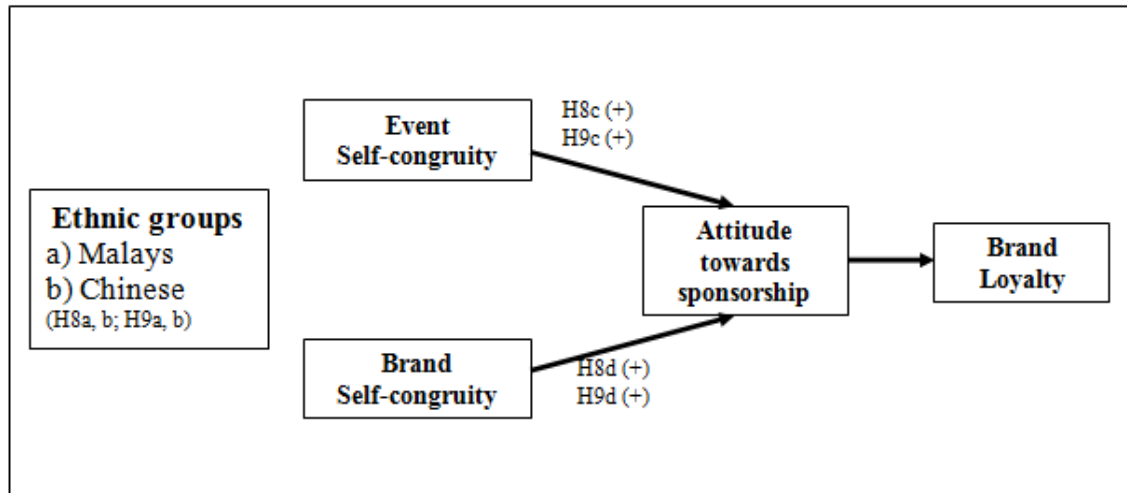


Figure 3.2: Relationship between ethnicity and social sponsorship programmes

3.10 Conceptual model

This chapter discusses the development of a conceptual model and suggests the expected hypotheses proposed in this study. The conceptual model was initially developed based on GCT and Self-Congruity Theory. Based on the previous discussion, the final conceptual model has been established (see figure 3.3). According to the model, both generational cohorts (i.e. Boomers, Gen Y) have their different degrees of self-congruity with social sponsorship programmes that include events, brands, and media. It is proposed that the higher the generational cohorts perceive their self-congruity as congruent with the social sponsorship programme, the more positive attitude they have towards the sponsorship. Moreover, it hypothesised that the attitude towards sponsorship varies among two generational cohorts since they have different profiles. Next, the study assumes that the more positive the attitude towards sponsorship, the greater the degree of brand loyalty. Finally, the study explores the influence of ethnicity on the social sponsorship context following a similar conceptual model.

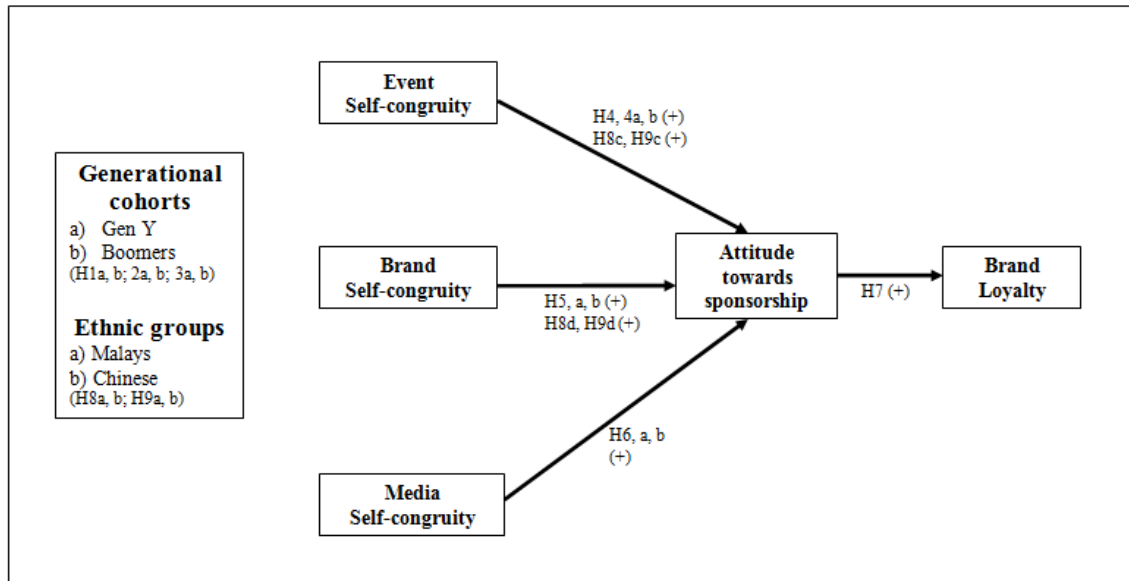


Figure 3.3: Conceptual model of generational cohorts' congruity in social sponsorship

3.11 Chapter summary

This chapter discussed the proposed conceptual model that mainly focuses on generational cohorts' profiles that influence a generational cohort's degree of congruity in a social sponsorship context. Based on the model, the study hypothesised the relationship between generational cohorts' self-congruity and social sponsorship programmes that can generate positive or negative attitude towards sponsorship as well as brand loyalty. Next, the study will test the model in the methodology chapter.

This page is intentionally left blank.

CHAPTER 4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study has three objectives. First, it examines whether the impact of generational cohorts' congruity towards social sponsorship programmes (e.g. events, brands, and media) varies across different generational cohorts. Second, it tests whether generational cohorts' congruity with social sponsorship programmes may lead to positive feelings towards social sponsorship and brand loyalty. Finally, this study examines whether ethnicity influences generational cohorts in their attitudes towards social sponsorship. As discussed in the previous section, a conceptual model has been established to guide this current study. This chapter discusses the appropriate method to employ in achieving the study's objectives.

This chapter consists of seven sections including: research paradigm, research method and technique, preliminary study, main study (i.e. experimental study), questionnaire development, sample size, and ethical considerations.

4.1 Research paradigm

A research paradigm may be defined as the researcher's beliefs and assumptions about their views on a particular phenomenon (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Burns and Burns (2008) use the term “research paradigm” to refer to “a particular way of viewing the world, a framework of assumptions that reflects a shared set of philosophical beliefs about the world which places strict guidelines and principles on how research should be conducted” (Burns & Burns, 2008, p. 13). The research paradigm serves as a guideline for researchers to conduct research (Crotty, 1998). Hence, there is no absolute paradigm to use in the research, nor one paradigm that is superior to others (Creswell, 2009; Crotty, 1998; Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

There are three main research paradigms; positivism, interpretivism, and critical research (Burns & Burns, 2008; Cavana, Delahaye, & Sekeran, 2001). Each paradigm has its advantages and disadvantages (Burns & Burns, 2008; Cavana et al., 2001); however, determining the research paradigm depends solely on the nature and purpose of the study as well as the researcher's point of view (Creswell, 2009; Crotty, 1998).

The positivism paradigm has been widely used in social science research (Guba & Lincoln, 1994); moreover, most of the studies in business and commerce are usually conducted in the quantitative scientific research method that is often associated with the positivism paradigm (Burns & Burns, 2008; Crotty, 1998). In terms of the sponsorship context, a number of studies have applied positivism paradigm quantitative research methods in conducting research (e.g. surveys or experiments) (e.g. Becker-Olsen & Simmons, 2002; Cornwell & Coote, 2005; Gupta & Pirsch, 2006; Mazodier & Merunka, 2011; Pappu & Cornwell, 2014; Quester et al., 2013; Robinson et al., 2012; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006; Sirgy et al., 2008) .

Positivist researchers hold objectivism as their epistemology. In objectivism, researchers measure the subject objectively and make an effort to separate themselves from the research subject in order to guarantee the truth and authenticity of the data (Burns & Burns, 2008; Cavana et al., 2001). In positivism, researchers believe in the scientific method and follow systematic research procedures. Studies using the positivism paradigm employ scientific processes (e.g. rigorous, linear and rigid), and use scientific theories to form hypotheses (Burns & Burns, 2008; Cavana et al., 2001; Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

This study uses deductive reasoning to formulate predictions – a similar approach to the positivism paradigm. As discussed in Chapter 2, this study applies Generational Cohort Theory (GCT) and Self-Congruity Theory as a theoretical underpinning to make predictions on social sponsorship. Both theories were used as a basis for hypotheses development and were subsequently tested in this study. For instance, this study aimed to examine the influence of generational cohorts' profiles (e.g. characteristics, attitudes and preferences) on social sponsorship programmes (e.g. event, brand, and type of media). Based on the GCT and Self-Congruity theories, it was predicted that each generational cohort's profiles have an impact on the level of that generational cohort's congruity with a social sponsorship programme. Additionally, the theories proposed that high or low levels of congruity influence the positive feelings towards social sponsorship and brand loyalty. Based on the above discussion, the current study believes that positivism is the ideal paradigm to be applied in conducting the research. It is also a suitable paradigm because it involves cause and effect predictions (e.g. generational cohorts' profiles influence brand loyalty) (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Sekaran & Bougie, 2010).

4.2 Research method and technique

As mentioned in the previous section, the positivism paradigm is often associated with quantitative methods (e.g. surveys or experiments) in conducting research (Burns & Burns, 2008; Crotty, 1998). Creswell (2009) added that the quantitative method is appropriate for a study that involves the testing of theories and variables. Also, it can empirically test and confirm hypotheses derived from theory (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). Since the study focuses on how generational cohort characteristics influence an individual's preferences towards social sponsorship programmes, the quantitative method was employed.

Research questions, objectives and directions were important factors in determining the appropriate method used for the study (Creswell, 2009). This study intends to compare the influence of two generational cohorts (i.e. Gen Y and Boomers) on social sponsorship programmes (e.g. events, brands, media). To the best of the researcher's knowledge, only three studies exist on generational cohorts in Malaysia (de Run & Ting, 2013; Ting & De Run, 2012; Ting et al., 2012). However, these studies only focus on external events in one particular state in Malaysia (i.e. Sarawak). Since there is a lack

of studies determining generational cohorts in Malaysia (Ting et al., 2012) it is necessary to validate and confirm the external events that classify generational cohorts in the country (Noble & Schewe, 2003; Reisenwitz & Iyer, 2007). Hence, this study intends to address this limitation by conducting a generational cohort study in a developing country, specifically Malaysia.

With regard to validating a generational cohort's external events, this current study conducts a preliminary study on two generational cohorts, Boomers and Gen Y. As discussed in Section 2.3.3, both generational cohorts were chosen based on the greater number of population (i.e. Gen Y) and being established in careers (i.e. Boomers). After establishing the external events for each generational cohort, the present study continues to the experimental study (i.e. the main study). The main study examines the responses and perceptions of the two generational cohorts on the manipulations of social sponsorship programmes. The study anticipates that a generational cohort may develop a favourable attitude towards a social sponsorship programme when the two have a high degree of congruence. Conversely, when the two are incongruent could trigger a less favourable attitude in a generational cohort. Hence, this study conducted a survey for the preliminary study and an experiment for the main study. The next section discusses the preliminary study in regard to identifying and reconfirming the external events before moving to the main experimental study.

4.3 Preliminary study

The preliminary study has three subsections. The purpose of this study was to verify and reconfirm the external events for five generational cohorts in Malaysia (see Table 2.1). As discussed in Section 2.3.3, the external events were identified based on the literature, and the present study requires empirical testing to ensure the accuracy of the events.

4.3.1 Sampling and data collection

As mentioned in Chapter 2, this current study uses GCT as a basis to identify and segment consumers. In GCT, members of a generational cohort tend to share common profiles (e.g. characteristics, preferences, behaviours) since they experienced similar external events (e.g. historical, political, social, and economic events) during their

formative years (i.e. age 17-23) (Mannheim, 1952; Noble & Schewe, 2003; Schewe et al., 2000).

Based on the literature (see Section 2.3.3), this study has identified five potential generational cohorts in Malaysia (see Table 2.1); however, it ultimately chooses only two of these: Gen Y and Boomers. Gen Y has a greater number of members in Malaysia (Department of Statistics Malaysia, 2010, 2012). While most Boomers are mature consumers and are established in their careers (Gardiner et al., 2013). Since the age difference between Boomers and Gen Y is like that between a parent and child (Gardiner et al., 2013; Parment, 2013), it motivates this current study to investigate the differences between these generational cohorts.

Despite the generational cohorts in Malaysia already having been identified, the current study believes in the need to validate and reconfirm the external events to avoid misinterpreting the generational cohorts. Moreover, generational cohort study in Malaysia is still inadequate (Ting & De Run, 2012), especially in the western part of Malaysia. Therefore, it was deemed necessary to validate and reconfirm the external events by conducting a main study using empirical evaluation rather than relying on the literature (Noble & Schewe, 2003; Reisenwitz & Iyer, 2007).

The study's respondents consisted of alumni, staff and current students of major universities in Malaysia, and their involvement was voluntary. They were asked to answer a questionnaire. Then, the study applied a snowball sampling technique and asked respondents to distribute the questionnaire to their family members, relatives and friends. The snowball technique has the advantages of allowing the researcher to reach difficult target respondents (e.g. Boomers), and to increase sample size. Additionally, it is more cost and time efficient when it come to recruiting respondents (Baltar & Brunet, 2012; Malhotra, Agarwal, & Peterson, 1996; Tuškej et al., 2013).

At the end of the questionnaire, the respondents were asked whether they were interested in participating in the future study. In order to ensure anonymity, the researcher provided a separate detachable form that allowed respondents to provide their contact details.

4.3.2 Questionnaire of the preliminary study

As discussed earlier, the aim of this preliminary study was to validate and reconfirm the external events for both Boomers and Gen Y cohorts. The generational cohorts in Malaysia were identified based on literature reviews of Malaysian history and past events (see Section 2.3.3).

The scale was originally adapted from Schuman and Scott (1989) and Noble and Schewe (2003). As seen in Table 2.1, the respondents received a list of the external events obtained from the literature. They were required to choose up to ten external events that were personally important to them (e.g. *Please choose up to TEN (10) of the following historical events that are the most important to you*). Then, they were requested to assign a value from 1 to 10 in order to indicate the importance of the external events (1= the most important event; 2 = second-most important; 10 = the least important event). In addition, the respondents were also asked to list additional external events that were not included in the external events list, but were personally important to them whether in national or international events.

An additional question was also included to check if the respondent lived in Malaysia during their coming of age (e.g. *did you live in Malaysia when you were 17 to 23 years old*) and the respondent was required to respond “yes” or “no”. Only respondents who had lived in Malaysia during their coming of age were considered in this study. This is because other respondents would not have experienced the external events directly and as such, the events would not have affected their profiles (e.g. values, characteristics, and attitudes) (Noble & Schewe, 2003). Hence, this study could avoid bias among the respondents and confirm that the respondents did indeed experience the external events personally.

As a result of this process, the findings on the external events assigned to both generational cohorts should be reliable enough to support or confirm the previous events identified in the literature review. It might be argued that this current study not only relies on the literature, but was empirically validated and confirmed for both Gen Y and Boomers.

4.3.3 Preliminary study results

A total of 370 respondents participated in the first study to validate the external events. The study found that Boomers (n=111) frequently referred to the Racial Riot of 1969, the establishment of the New Economic Policy (NEP), the formation of the National Ideology, the Japanese Red Army hijacking the AIA building, and the “Memali” incident as their influential external events.

Interestingly, the Racial Riot 1969 event was the most cited event for Boomers even though they did not experience the event during their coming of age period. As explained earlier, coming of age (e.g. age 17-23) is a crucial period for individuals to establish their profiles (Meredith & Schewe, 1994; Noble & Schewe, 2003; Schuman & Scott, 1989) and these profiles remain unchanged for entire lives (Motta et al., 2002; Schewe & Noble, 2000). In the case of the Racial Riot, it did not impact the Boomers’ profiles since the event occurred outside the coming of age period (Meredith, Schewe, & Karlovich, 2002; Schewe & Noble, 2000; Schuman & Scott, 1989). It could be argued that the event was one of the significant events for Malaysia and occurred in the previous generational cohort. Boomers might have learned of the event from their family members, friends, education or media instead of experiencing it personally since it was a well-known event (Schuman & Scott, 1989). Hence, this current study does not include the Racial Riot as one of the external events for Boomers.

Meanwhile, Gen Y (n=259) frequently cited influential external events such as the BERSIH demonstration, “Ops Daulat”, the emergence of the Internet in Malaysia, the tsunami in Aceh, the Financial Crisis 1998, and the expulsion of Deputy Prime Minister, Anwar Ibrahim, (see Appendix 4.1). Besides, the 2013 General Election was frequently deemed as an influential external event suggested by respondents, especially for Gen Y. As seen in Table 4.1, this study revised the external events for Boomers and Gen Y according to the preliminary findings.

Table 4.1: *The finalised external events*

Generational cohort	External events
Boomers <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Born : 1953 to 1963 Coming of age: 1970 to 1981 Current age 51 to 61 (2014) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The establishment of the New Economic Policy (NEP) Formation of the National Ideology (after 13th May) Japanese Red Army hijacked AIA building in Kuala Lumpur “Memali” incident
Gen Y <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Born : 1980 to 1994 Coming of age: 1997 until recent Current age 20 to 34 (2014) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Coalition for Clean and Fair Elections (BERSIH) demonstration “Ops Daulat” in Lahad Datu The emergence of the Internet in Malaysia Tsunami in Aceh 1998 financial crisis The expulsion of Deputy Prime Minister, Anwar Ibrahim 2008 General Election 1Malaysia concept⁸ Reform movement 2013 General Election

4.4 Main study - Experimental research

In the main study, an experimental research technique was chosen over a survey. This technique enabled the researcher to control the study's environment and any interference from external influences that could affect the results of the study (Cornwell & Maignan, 1998; Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Quester & Thompson, 2001). This method is well-controlled and useful for providing a better understanding of social sponsorship programme stimuli as compared to a survey method (Cornwell, Weeks, & Roy, 2005; Quester & Thompson, 2001; Speed & Thompson, 2000).

Respondents were given a stimulus in the form of an advertisement and a brief scenario prior to answering the questionnaire. This reduced the respondents' uncertainty in answering the questions. They were required to give their responses based on the social sponsorship programme manipulation (i.e. the event, the brand and the type of media)

⁸ 1Malaysia is a concept to edify unity among multi-racial Malaysian citizens, based on a number of significant values which should be practised by all Malaysians.

provided in the stimulus. There were two types of media used in the advertisement; newspaper and Facebook, which respondents were informed of in the scenario. Thus, the respondents had a clear view of the questions and the specific social sponsorship programme that this current study was referring to. In this regard, the experimental technique is an ideal technique based on the needs of the study.

Experimental research reduces outside influences (e.g. nuisance), is easily controlled and is more focused on a given subject during the study. The respondents could provide a response based on a given stimulus (e.g. events, brands, and media). In line with this study's objectives, the experimental method allowed a comparison with different conditions that were manipulated in terms of the sponsorship programmes.

Therefore, the respondents had a clear idea of the social sponsorship programme that the study referred to since they were given a stimulus and a scenario at the beginning of the study. This was helpful to reduce the uncertainty of the respondents on the subject of the study. As a result, the findings of this study are more efficient and accurate since the respondents were informed in advance about the nature and subject of the study.

4.4.1 Pre-test 1

The purpose of pre-test 1 was to identify an event that is important for Boomers and Gen Y prior to proceeding to the main study. Based on the literature (see Section 2.3.5), there were four events available for respondents to select related to both generational cohorts: a child poverty event, a health event (e.g. involving cancer, kidney, heart etc.), environment-related event (e.g. recycling, climate change), and religious event (e.g. taking place in mosque, church etc.) (Cone Inc., 2006; Cui et al., 2003; Hyllegard, Paff Ogle, Yan, & Attmann, 2010; Hyllegarda et al., 2011).

In regard to event selection, this current study adopted a scale from Robinson et al. (2012), and, as previously reported, the Cronbach's alpha value was .75. The respondents were asked how important the events were to them. They ranked four events using a 7-point Likert-type scale with the anchors "not at all important" and "extremely important".

A total of 66 respondents consisting of Boomers and Gen Y participated in pre-test 1. The results showed that Boomers had a higher mean score on the health event ($M=6.16$)

as compared to Gen Y ($M=5.74$; $p=.799$). In contrast, Gen Y had a higher mean score on the environmental event ($M=5.12$) than Boomers ($M=5.03$; $p=.198$). As a result, this current study decided to choose the child poverty event to accommodate both generational cohorts since the level of the mean was considered high for Boomers ($M=6.13$) and for Gen Y ($M=5.94$; $t=-.907$; $p=.121$).

In terms of product category, previous studies suggested that soft drinks, mineral water, and retail stores were three relevant product categories for Boomers and Gen Y (Harris & Edelman, 2006; Jeong, Paek, & Lee, 2013; Parment, 2013). This current study adapted a single-item scale from Robinson et al. (2012) and Jeong et al. (2013), using 7-point semantic differential items such as unimportant/important; not relevant/relevant; not familiar/familiar. The respondents were asked to indicate their responses towards the product categories.

The study found that both Boomers and Gen Y showed a higher mean on the mineral water (Gen Y, $M=6.56$; Boomers, $M=6.33$, $t=1.580$, $p=.660$) than on soft drinks (Gen Y, $M=4.80$; Boomers, $M=4.60$, $t=1.309$, $p=.303$) and grocery stores (Gen Y, $M=5.40$; Boomers, $M=5.84$, $t=-2.11$, $p=.467$). Hence, the main study employed child poverty as an event and mineral water as a product category.

4.4.2 Pre- test 2

Pre-test 2 was intended to clarify the photo or visual used in a manipulation of event and the selection of a brand name. The advertisements were created based on manipulations in this study. It consisted of ethnic-based and international events and brands, and types of media (i.e. newspaper; Facebook). As mentioned earlier, newspaper and Facebook are the types of media employed in the advertisements. Pretesting was only necessary for the clarity of the events on the advertisement since the study was clearly explained in a scenario that involved a brand owner and type of media (see Appendix 1b). This study ensured that the photo on the advertisement represented the child poverty event for each type of event (e.g. ethnic-based Malays and Chinese, and international).

In the first stage, ten respondents were given three advertisement designs for each event (e.g. Malays, Chinese, and international). They were asked to pick one of the

advertisements for each event that was identical to Malays, Chinese or international child poverty events. In the next stage, the study conducted another pre-test based on the findings from first stage.

At this stage, the aim of the pre-test was to validate the advertisement to see whether it reflected each event (e.g. Malays, Chinese, and international child poverty events). A sample of 53 respondents from Boomers (n=27) and Gen Y (n=26) were recruited. The respondents were given three A4-size advertisements of child poverty events (e.g. Malays, Chinese, and international events). A seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) was used (Whittler, 1989). The respondents were required to respond and identify the advertisements according to the events.

In the study, both generational cohorts managed to correctly identify all three advertisements according to the child poverty events; Malays (Gen Y, $M=6.27$, Boomer, $M=6.19$, $t=.601$, $p=.283$), Chinese (Gen Y, $M=6.31$, Boomers, $M=6.30$, $t=.082$, $p=.311$), International (Gen Y, $M=5.92$, Boomers, $M=6.07$, $t=-1.644$, $p=.413$). As such, this study suggests that all the advertisements were clearly identifiable with Malays, Chinese and international child poverty and will be used in the main study.

Pre-test 1 indicated that mineral water was the preferred product category for respondents. There were three fictitious mineral water brands available for respondents to choose from in order to establish the brand name (e.g. fresh mineral water, pure mineral water, and H2O mineral water). The pre-test aimed to avoid the brand used in the main study with a similar name to an existing mineral water brand. In respect to scale, a single item of seven-point Likert-type scale (with the anchors with 1=strongly disagree to 7=strongly agree) was used adapted from Chien (2009). The respondents were asked to indicate whether the brand names were similar to an existing mineral water brand (e.g. *“the brand name is similar to an existing brand name”*).

The results indicated that Pure Mineral Water (Gen Y, $M=3.15$; Boomers, $M=4.15$, $t=-2.501$, $p=.748$) was rated as a lower degree of mean than the other two brands (Fresh; Gen Y, $M=4.65$; Boomers, $M=3.63$, $t=3.178$, $p=.063$) and H2O (Gen Y, $M=5.27$, Boomers, $M=5.30$, $t=-.101$, $p=.114$). The results found that all brands were not seen as being significantly different between the two generational cohorts. As a result, this

current study could have chosen any of brands since there were no significant differences in regards to brand names. Ultimately, Pure Mineral Water was chosen as a brand since the mean value was lower than other brand names. It could be argued that the objective of this pre-test was to avoid a similar brand name to existing brands. The lower mean value indicated that respondents were not familiar with the brand name or that the brand name was not from the existing brand. Therefore, Pure Mineral Water will be used as the brand name for the main study. Next, the main experimental study is discussed.

4.4.3 Main study – experimental study

A lab experiment or lab setting is one of the techniques used in an experiment. Using this technique, respondents were invited to a lab or classroom for conducting the experiment. The lab experiment had a high internal validity and was easy to control compared to an outside lab experiment (Mutz, 2011; Sekaran & Bougie, 2010; Zikmund, Ward, Lowe, Winzar, & Babin, 2011). However, a lab setting experiment has disadvantages in terms of generalisability and external validity (Burnett & Dune, 1986; Zikmund et al., 2011). Students are traditionally a favourite subject in the lab setting experiment since they are easy to reach compared to non-students (Mutz, 2011). It could be fruitful if a study were to employ non-students as respondents. That study's findings might be different from one using student respondents (Fam et al., 2004). This is because non-student respondents represent an actual consumer, and the findings could increase the external validity (Burnett & Dune, 1986).

As discussed earlier, this study aims to compare the two generational cohorts (Gen Y and Boomers). It was difficult to gather the respondents in a lab due to availability and time constraints, especially for Boomers (i.e. non-students). Moreover, Boomers are often hard to reach and have a low response rate compared to the student samples (i.e. Gen Y) (Powers & Valentine, 2009). For instance, Boomer respondents might have other commitments such as a career, work or family that could hinder their involvement in the study. Besides, conducting an experiment in the lab might incur a financial cost and be time-consuming and so discourage respondents from participating in the study (Mutz, 2011; Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). As pointed out above, this current study decided to conduct an outside-lab experiment.

A number of studies have conducted an outside lab experiment especially in the sponsorship context (Close et al., 2009; Jeong et al., 2013; Mazodier & Merunka, 2011). It seems that this method provides a more natural setting and convenient environment for respondents (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). Additionally, Andrews, Luo, Fang, and Aspara (2014) suggested that conducting a field experiment gives an opportunity for researchers to reach genuine consumers as compared to a lab experiment. With this in mind, this study employed an outside laboratory experiment. Next, this current study discusses the study administration using pen-and-pencil and online tests.

4.4.4 Study administration - Online vs. pen-and-pencil

As mentioned above, this study employs an outside-lab setting experiment. The study was administered through pen-and-pencil and online formats. Pen-and-pencil is a traditional technique of administration and relies on a paper-based questionnaire. Respondents usually receive a questionnaire on paper-based format. Pen-and-pencil and online formats have advantages and disadvantages. For instance, the online format is more cost effective, easy to administer, and reaches a larger number of people than pen-and-pencil questionnaires (Mutz, 2011; Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). The online format has become an emerging and popular format among researchers (Bugbee, 1996; Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010; Meade, Michels, & Lautenschlager, 2007). Conversely, the disadvantages of online tests include a low response rate (Shih & Xitao Fan, 2008) and can discourage respondents from participating if they are not internet savvy or have less accessibility to the Internet. This is especially true of older generations (Lee, Soutar, Daly, & Louviere, 2011) such as the Boomers.

Despite this, there are a number of factors that researchers need to consider before deciding to choose the appropriate medium of administration. For instance, researchers are required to consider the availability of an Internet connection or accessibility, respondents' knowledge about technology and the feasibility of extracting meaningful or appropriate results (Lee et al., 2011). Once again, determining the type of administration to be used depends on the objectives, the nature of the study and the respondents themselves.

Prensky (2001) coined the terms Digital Native and Digital Immigrant to describe individuals with differing digital technology capability (e.g. Internet, social networking

sites). For example, Gen Ys are known as Digital Natives as they grew up in the digital era and most of them are technology savvy. On the other hand, Boomers are labelled as Digital Immigrants since they needed to learn about a new technology such as the Internet, interactive or social media and digital technology. Therefore, researchers might consider respondents' capability in dealing with digital devices since it may influence the findings of the study (Loges & Jung, 2001; Meade et al., 2007). The above digital definition proposed that both groups have different preferences, familiarity and capability when it comes to pen-and-pencil and online formats.

With two generational cohorts, this study had to employ careful consideration in selecting the appropriate administration format so as to obtain a good response without affecting the findings. In terms of the digital divide, the current study believes that providing both pen-and-pencil and online questionnaires would be an ideal format to cater to different age groups, as well as preferences. Moreover, Gen Y might prefer an online format while pen-and-pencil may be more suitable for Boomers (Shih & Xitao Fan, 2008). As a result, Gen Y was assigned an online format, whereas, Boomers received the pen-and-pencil questionnaire.

A number of studies have employed both pen-and-pencil and online formats (Bugbee, 1996; Cole, Bedeian, & Feild, 2006; De Beuckelaer & Lievens, 2009; Meade et al., 2007; Wolf, Hattrup, & Mueller, 2011). The previous literature found that both types of administration had equivalent scores or results across formats (Bugbee, 1996; Cole et al., 2006; De Beuckelaer & Lievens, 2009; Wolf et al., 2011). However, the literature recommends conducting a measurement invariance to compare both formats in order to confirm and validate the equivalence of scales (Bugbee, 1996; Meade et al., 2007).

As a result, this current study conducted multi-group confirmatory factor analysis (MGCFA) to assess measurement invariance across the formats. The analysis was performed simultaneously with the MGCFA of generational cohorts since this study assigned the format of administration according to generational cohorts: Gen Y for online, Boomer for pen-and-pencil. The results indicated that this study achieved measurement invariance across the formats (see Table 5.11, 5.12; Appendix 5.7-5.8).

4.4.5 Experimental design and stimuli

The current study employed 2 generational cohorts (Boomers vs. Gen Y) x 2 events (ethnic-based vs. international) x 2 brands (ethnic-based vs international) x 2 media (newspaper vs. Facebook), and a between-subject factorial design. The between-subject design allowed each participant to view only one manipulation. This setting prevents respondents from having a learning effect elicited by exposure to a multiple-manipulation experiment (Creswell, 2009).

A total of 16 cells for experimental manipulations plus two control cells were used in this study (e.g. nine cells for each generational cohort). In the control groups, respondents received an advertisement with no manipulations of event, brand or media. This study aims to achieve the recommended sample size for an experimental study of 20 respondents, as suggested by Hair et al. (2010). Table 4.2 depicts the details of the experimental design.

The respondents were randomly assigned to the experiment manipulations and this technique is known as a true experiment (Creswell, 2009). The respondents received an online or paper-based stimulus (e.g. an advertisement and a scenario) that consisted of a fictitious social sponsorship programme (see Appendix 1). The manipulations in the advertisement included an event, a brand, and type of media (i.e. newspaper or Facebook).

Table 4.2: *Experimental design*

Generations	Events	Brands	Media	Respondents
Boomers	Ethnic event (EM)*	Ethnic brand (EM)	Newspaper	20
	Ethnic event (EC)*	Int. brand	Newspaper	20
	Ethnic event (EC)	Ethnic brand (EC)	FB	20
	Ethnic event (EM)	Int. brand	FB	20
Boomers	Int. event	Ethnic brand (EC)	Newspaper	20
	Int. event	Int. brand	Newspaper	20
	Int. event	Ethnic brand (EM)	FB	20
	Int. event	Int. brand	FB	20
Gen Y	Ethnic event (EM)	Ethnic brand (EM)	Newspaper	20
	Ethnic event (EC)	Int. brand	Newspaper	20
	Ethnic event (EC)	Ethnic brand (EC)	FB	20
	Ethnic event (EM)	Int. brand	FB	20
Gen Y	Int. event	Ethnic brand (EC)	Newspaper	20
	Int. event	Int. brand	Newspaper	20
	Int. event	Ethnic brand (EM)	FB	20
	Int. event	Int. brand	FB	20

EC: Chinese; EM: Malay

4.4.6 Stimuli

As stated in the previous section, the study used fictitious events and brands instead of existing ones. The fictitious ones were able to avoid drawing on respondents' prior perceptions and creating a compounding effect on a social sponsorship programme (e.g. event, brand) (Appiah & Liu, 2009; Lii et al., 2013; Sung, Choi, & Tinkham, 2012). Hence, the originality of findings based on a particular manipulation or condition without any influence or nuisance from outside is assured (e.g. experience of existing events or brands).

The manipulation of this study was induced from the generational cohort's congruence with an event, a brand and media. The events, brands and media were manipulated, and randomly assigned to the respondents. As seen in Table 4.2, there were two types of each experimental dimension regarding events (e.g. ethnic-based and international), brands (e.g. ethnic-based and international) and media (e.g. newspaper and Facebook).

The stimulus was randomly allocated to the respondents including a manipulated advertisement and a brief scenario (see Appendix 1). The scenario worked like an explanation regarding the advertisement, and the respondent was required to answer the

questionnaire based on the given advertisement and the scenario. Based on the advertisement and the scenario given, the respondents were asked about their level of self-congruity with the event, the brand, and the type of media. As a result, this current study anticipates discovering how the manipulations have an impact on the dependent variables (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010), which are respondents' attitudes towards sponsorship programme and brand loyalty.

4.4.7 Sampling and data collection

This current study chooses a developing country as the context since social sponsorship has received less attention there than in developed countries (Bal et al., 2010). By conducting a study in a developing country, it will contribute to knowledge as well as literature on social sponsorship. It can provide a better understanding of consumers' responses towards social sponsorship, especially in developing country context.

Malaysia was chosen as it is a developing country with a clear multi-ethnic society with a diverse background (Fontaine & Richardson, 2003; Milner, 1991). Despite being from the same country, each ethnic group socialises differently in terms of geography (e.g. villages, towns), type of employment (e.g. agriculture, mining), social contact, and culture (Jali, 2003). Fontaine et al., (2002) found that Malaysia is a heterogeneous country and each ethnic group differs significantly in terms of culture and values. Additionally, Malaysia has experienced conflict among ethnic groups (i.e. the Racial Riot) that may have impacted on integration and unity. This is an interesting line of enquiry as the current study uses GCT as a theory to identify and segment consumers. GCT implies that members of each generational cohort share common profiles since they experienced similar external events during their coming of age. However, profiles will vary within a generational cohort because of ethnic differences. Each ethnic group may respond differently to the external events that occurred during their coming of age despite being in the same generational cohort.

This study focuses on the two main ethnic groups: Malays and Chinese. Malays contribute 50.1% of the population, while Chinese contribute 22.6% (Department of Statistics Malaysia, 2010, 2012). Even though Malays are the largest ethnic group in Malaysia, they are of a lower socioeconomic group and are less wealthy than the Chinese. The Chinese however have more purchasing power since they are wealthier

and largely control the economy despite being in a minority ethnic group. These differences make for interesting comparisons.

As previously pointed out, this study aims to investigate the differences between two generational cohorts and to compare their attitudes toward social sponsorship programmes. There were two generational cohorts identified in this study: Gen Y and Boomers. Gen Y (who were born between 1980-1995) were selected because a majority of the Malaysian population belongs to this group (Department of Statistics Malaysia, 2010, 2012). They also represent future Malaysian consumers. Malaysian Boomers were born during 1953-1963 and most of them have an income, are established in their careers and probably hold a high position in an organisation. They are represented as real consumers, easily generalised in the real world and could increase external validity more than younger samples (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010).

Due to time and financial constraints, this study was conducted at major public universities in Malaysia. The respondents consisted of current students, alumni, students' relatives and staff of the universities. Each individual has an equal opportunity to participate in this study. However, this current study focuses on two generational cohorts (i.e. Boomers; Gen Y) and two ethnic groups (i.e. Malays; Chinese).

The questionnaire was distributed with the assistance of the university's registrar, student associations, lecturers, and the alumni department. In addition, as discussed in section 4.3.1, the respondents were asked in the preliminary study whether they would like to participate in the next study. The researcher contacted the respondents who agreed to participate in the next study. The respondents were briefed that the participation in this study was anonymous and voluntary.

4.4.8 Procedures

Boomers consisted of university staff, alumni and respondents who had expressed an interest in the preliminary study (see Section 4.3.1). As discussed in Section 4.4.4, this study employed a pen-and-pencil administered format for Boomers. The respondents were selected from a name list given by the university registrar, alumni department, and the preliminary study's list. Respondents were invited to participate in the study via

email, telephone or face-to-face. The researcher assigned the questionnaire once the respondents had agreed to join the study.

In regard to time and financial constraints, experiment questionnaires were distributed to respondents who were on campus or near to campus. Respondents were grouped according their time availability and location (e.g. offices, library) without specifying the number of respondents for each session. All the respondents were randomly assigned to one of the nine experimental conditions including the control group (see Section 4.4.3 and Table 4.2). A brief greeting and explanation of the study was given before questionnaires were distributed to respondents.

Respondents received a questionnaire including an information sheet regarding the purpose of the study. They were asked to view the advertisement and read the scenario carefully before answering the experimental questions. The respondents completed a questionnaire based on the advertisement and the scenario given (Appendix 1) and they were advised not to write down their names or any other information related to their identity on the answer.

Each respondent received only one experimental manipulation, and they answered based on the advertisement they saw and the scenario. After completing the questionnaire, they were asked to put it in a covered box provided by the researcher. With this method, the anonymity of the respondents participating in the study could be ensured. As a token of appreciation, each respondent received a shopping voucher. Moreover, since this current study was on a voluntary basis, respondents were permitted to stop and withdraw from the experiment at any time.

For Gen Y, an online experiment was created via Qualtrics, an online survey tool. Several methods were used to distribute the online experiment. For example, the researcher sought assistance from university lecturers and student associations to share the link to the online experiment with their students via the university's course management websites, student email, and the student association's Facebook page. The online experiment was only directed at undergraduate students since this study focuses on Gen Y as a sample. The respondents were randomly assigned to one of the nine experimental manipulations using Qualtrics' randomisation system. As discussed earlier, this study aimed to obtain an equal number of respondents according to ethnicity

(e.g. 15 respondents for each ethnic group). The questionnaire had been set up so that if the target sample size was reached for each ethnic group, the respondents were automatically redirected to another experimental manipulation.

The respondents were required to click the provided link that automatically directed them to the experimental questionnaire page. It was compulsory for respondents to answer the screening question prior to continuing to the main experiment. Since this study focuses on two ethnic groups (e.g. Malays and Chinese), the respondents' ethnic background was identified prior to their proceeding to the main experiment.

The respondents automatically proceeded to the main experiment if they belonged to one of the targeted ethnic groups. In contrast, the questionnaire directed them to the end of the experiment if the respondents did not belong to either of the ethnic groups. Hence, the study ensured that the respondents were from the specific generational cohorts and ethnicity required for the study.

Respondents were given an information sheet including a manipulation of the advertisement, and a scenario consisting of an event, a brand and one type of media (e.g. newspaper or Facebook). Similar to the pen-and-pencil format, they were advised to view the advertisement and read the scenario carefully before clicking 'next' to answer the questionnaire. They were asked to complete a questionnaire based on the advertisement. Respondents had been informed that participation in the study was anonymous and voluntary. In addition, they had the option not to complete the questionnaire and quit the experiment at any time.

After completing the experimental session, respondents were directed to a separate page from the main experiment and invited to participate in a prize draw. An option to participate or to withdraw from the draw was also provided. As discussed earlier, to protect the anonymity of respondents, designs for the experimental questionnaire and the draw were separated. Therefore, the researcher did not have an opportunity to identify respondent identities.

4.5 Questionnaire development

This section discusses the development of the questionnaire and measurement scales employed in the study. The study manipulated social sponsorship programmes (i.e.

events, brands, or types of media) and then recorded respondent's responses towards the advertisement given. The term "social sponsorship programme" refers to social sponsorship activities that consist of events, brands or type of media. For the treatment group, the respondents viewed one advertisement with a manipulation of event and brand (e.g. ethnic-based and international). In terms of media, newspaper and Facebook were used as media manipulations. The treatment group viewed an advertisement which was shown as being from either a newspaper or Facebook as the manipulation. Meanwhile, there was no manipulation involved for the control group respondents (see Appendix 1a).

The following section discusses the scales used to measure the responses to the manipulation (see Table 4.3). It consists of five subsections: the development of the generational cohort self-congruity scale (e.g. event, brand, and media), attitude towards sponsorship and brand loyalty scale, follow by check questions and expert evaluation.

4.5.1 Generational cohorts self-congruity

As discussed in Section 2.2.1, there are four types of self-congruity (e.g. actual, ideal, social, ideal social). However, this current study decides to choose an actual self-congruity over the other self-congruity types since the generational cohort's profiles (e.g. characterises, values, and attitudes) are influenced by the real experience of external events (Meredith, Schewe, & Karlovich, 2002).

Event congruity

Event congruity was assessed as an individual's self-congruity with an event. The original scale, which was developed and used by Sirgy et al. (1997), was used to measure an individual's self-image congruence with their brand preferences. Recently, Sirgy et al. (2008) adopted the scale into a sponsorship context, specifically in sports sponsorship. The items were used to measure a spectator's congruity with a sports sponsorship event (e.g. NASCAR). The study found that the scale was highly reliable at .98 (Cronbach's alpha). Additionally, the reliability of the scale was also confirmed in other studies, for example, in a sports sponsorship (Mazodier & Merunka, 2011) and promotional sponsorship event (Close et al., 2009) with Cronbach's alpha above .83.

Hence, the study adapted the self-congruity scale measured in a social sponsorship context. The scale has three items which were measured using a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) similar to Close et al.'s (2009) study.

Brand congruity

In contradiction to the event congruity scale, the brand congruity scale measured an individual's congruity with a brand that sponsored an event. Hence, the other scales developed by Sirgy et al. (1997) have been used. The original scale was used to measure an individual's self-image congruence with a brand preference. The scale emphasised an individual's response by comparing two different brands (e.g. a focal and a referent brand). The original scale is considered a good scale since the Cronbach's alpha was .82.

All four items were adapted from the original scale, and used a 7-point Likert-type scale (Chebat et al., 2006). The scale anchored at 1 (strongly disagree) and 7 (strongly agree). The study manipulated brand types (e.g. ethnic-based and international brands) who engaged with an event and measured participants' responses about the brand (*e.g. People who drink [brand name] have more similarity with me compared to other brands*). As a result, the study anticipated that the scale might reveal the type of brand that respondents preferred in terms of sponsoring an event.

Media congruity

The media congruity scale intended to measure an individual's preferences on the type of media used in promoting an event (e.g. printed newspaper or Facebook). This scale focused on comparing two types of media; printed newspaper and Facebook. The study used a similar scale to the brand congruity scale and adapted the scale and changed to the type of media instead of a brand's name. For example, one of the items used in this scale; "I am very much like a typical person who prefers to use "Facebook" rather than a printed newspaper". This study changed the word of a brand to Facebook (as a focal media) and a printed newspaper (as a referent media). There were four items and this scale also used a 7-point Likert-type scale with anchors ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

Table 4.3: *Event, brand, and media congruity scales*

Item wording	Scale type	Anchor points
Event congruity:		
1. I feel like I am part of the [event] family	7-point Likert	strongly disagree/ strongly agree
2. People who watch [event] are very different from me	7-point Likert	strongly disagree/ strongly agree
3. Watching [event] reflects who I am	7-point Likert	strongly disagree/ strongly agree
Brand congruity:		
1. People who drink [brand name] have more similarity with me compare to other brand.	7-point Likert	strongly disagree/ strongly agree
2. I can identify with people who prefer [brand name] than other brand.	7-point Likert	strongly disagree/ strongly agree
3. I am very much like a typical person who prefers to drink [brand name] rather than other brand.	7-point Likert	strongly disagree/ strongly agree
4. The image of [brand name] consumers is highly consistent with my self-image.	7-point Likert	strongly disagree/ strongly agree
Media congruity:		
1. People who use [Facebook] have more similarity with me compare to [printed newspaper] reader	7-point Likert	strongly disagree/ strongly agree
2. I can identify with people who prefer to use [Facebook] than [printed newspaper].	7-point Likert	strongly disagree/ strongly agree
3. I am very much like a typical person who prefers to use [Facebook] rather than [printed newspaper].	7-point Likert	strongly disagree/ strongly agree
4. The image of [Facebook] users is highly consistent with my self-image.	7-point Likert	strongly disagree/ strongly agree

4.5.2 Attitude towards sponsorship

The scale for measuring attitude towards sponsorship was taken from Simmons and Becker-Olsen (2006). The scale was assessed by measuring the overall attitude of respondents in a partnership or collaboration in a social sponsorship programme (e.g. an event and a brand). The items in the study demonstrated a high reliability at .97 (Cronbach's alpha). Recent studies have used the scale (e.g. Mazodier & Merunka, 2011; Olson, 2010; Olson & Thjørmøe, 2011) and showed a strong reliability at .91 and above.

Respondents were asked to rate their attitude towards the overall social sponsorship programme based on the advertisement given. As seen in Table 4.4, the current study adapted three semantic differential items (Negative/positive; Unfavourable/favourable; Bad/good) and used a seven-point scale.

Table 4.4: *Attitude towards social sponsorship scale*

Item wording	Scale type	Anchor points
With reference to the [brand name] sponsoring [event] in the advertisement, please evaluate your attitude towards the overall sponsorship programme.	SD (7-point)	Negative/positive
	SD (7-point)	Unfavourable/favourable
	SD (7-point)	Bad/good

Note: *Semantic differential (SD)*

4.5.3 Brand loyalty

Brand loyalty is a scale to measure respondent's behavioural intention on brands that sponsored an event. The brand loyalty scale was adapted from Zeithaml et al. (1996) and was originally used to measure the influence of service quality on company loyalty (see Table 4.5). The Cronbach's alpha for the scale range from .93 to .94 (across four companies). There were five items in the scale and they were measured using a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (not at all likely) and 7 (extremely likely).

Table 4.5: *Brand loyalty scale*

Item wording	Scale type	Anchor points
1. I would say positive things about [brand name] to other people.	7-point Likert	not at all likely / extremely likely
2. I would recommend [brand name] to my friends.	7-point Likert	not at all likely / extremely likely
3. I would encourage friends and relatives to buy [brand name].	7-point Likert	not at all likely / extremely likely
4. I would consider [brand name] as my first choice to buy mineral water.	7-point Likert	not at all likely / extremely likely
5. I would buy more [brand name] in the next few years.	7-point Likert	not at all likely / extremely likely

4.5.4 Check question

The purpose of the check question was to avoid bias among respondents. In generational cohort theory, individual's values, characteristics, and attitudes develop from their experiences through external events (Noble & Schewe, 2003; Schuman & Scott, 1989). Therefore, it is important to identify respondents who experienced the external events. For this purpose, a check question to ask whether the respondent

resided in Malaysia during their coming of age (e.g. *Did you live in Malaysia when you were 17 to 23 years old?*, and a yes or no scale) was included. If the respondent's answer was no, they would be excluded from the data since they had not experienced the external events directly thus the event could not be reflected in their values, characteristics, and attitudes (Noble & Schewe, 2003). As a result, this study could avoid bias among the respondents and confirm that the respondents experienced the external events personally.

4.5.5 Expert evaluation and back translation

The expert evaluation involved obtaining comments from research experts on the items intended to measure each research construct, the overall wordings and the structure of the research questionnaire (Hair et al., 2010; Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). Three academic staff members reviewed and rated the questionnaire. The questionnaire was altered according to the comments and feedback. Next, the questionnaire was translated from English to Malaysian.

The scales were originally adapted from a western context culture and were in English. Since the study was conducted in Malaysia, it was necessary to conduct a back translation in order to fit in with the Malaysian context (Brislin, 1970; Sinaiko & Brislin, 1973). As recommended, the procedures for back translation started with translating the original English questionnaire into the target language, Malaysian, and retranslating from Malaysian back to English. After that, the translated questionnaire was compared with the original questionnaire to check on any inconsistencies in terms of the questionnaire's scales and meaning.

Bilingual experts or translators produced the translations (Sinaiko & Brislin, 1973). A total of four translators were recruited to conduct back translation. Specifically, two translators were required to translate the questionnaire from English to Malaysian, and another two translators converted the Malaysian version back to English. All translators were English lecturers or coordinators in a Malaysian university and fluent in both languages. The advantage was that the translators knew about the Malaysian context and easily chose appropriate words in the questionnaire's scales without losing the original meaning. It was important to ensure cultural relevance and equivalence of the items rather than their similarity with the English scales (Hulin, 1987).

In the next step, two English native speakers were required to validate and check any discrepancies in the questionnaire by comparing the original questionnaire with the newly translated questionnaire. Then the questionnaire was revised based on the comments and feedback.

The final version of the questionnaire was given to two university members to be checked and validated before being distributed to the respondents of the study. As a result, this study believes that the questionnaire was reliable not only from an expert point of view, but also in terms of cultural context (e.g. meaning, context, and easily to understand).

4.6 Sample size in the study

As discussed in an earlier section (see Section 4.4.5), there were a total of 16 cells (groups) for experimental manipulations and two cells for control groups in this study. The experiment employed a between-subjects factorial design regarding 2 generational cohorts (Boomers vs. Generation Y) x 2 events (ethnic-based vs. international) x 2 brands (ethnic-based vs. international) x 2 types of media (newspaper vs. Facebook). This study aimed to collect 20 respondents per cell (320 for treatment groups and 40 for control groups), following the recommended number of samples per cell (Hair et al., 2010).

Statistical power is important in SEM analysis since it is able to distinguish between good and poor models (Hair et al., 2010; McQuitty, 2004). A number of determinant factors influenced the statistical power (e.g. effect size, bias, number of dependent variables), and sample size is one of those factors (Hair et al., 2010; McQuitty, 2004; Wolf, Harrington, Clark, & Miller, 2013). Therefore, it is important to identify a minimum sample size in order to achieve an adequate statistical power of analysis in SEM.

In terms of sample size, there are various rules-of-thumb for determining a minimum sample size. For instance, a conventional rule-of-thumb for sample size for SEM analysis is 200 (e.g. Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2011). Hoelter (1983) suggested that a sample size of 200 or more is adequate to analyse a model. Barrett (2007) urged that journals should reject any article that has less than 200 respondents. These studies indicated that a minimum sample size of 200 was required to analyse in SEM.

Recently, Westland (2010) conducted a meta-analysis study regarding sample sizes in five main Management Information Systems (MIS) and e-commerce journals (e.g. MIS Quarterly, Management Science, Decision Sciences, Information Systems Research and Journal of MIS). The study analysed the articles published in the journals between 1989 and 2007. Surprisingly, the study found that 80% of the findings were generated from insufficient sample sizes. Similarly, Shook, Ketchen, Hult, and Kacmar (2004) discovered most of the previous studies used inadequate sample sizes (e.g. below 200 samples); however, they managed to receive significant findings.

A number of studies supported this proposition. Fan, Thompson, and Wang (1999) believe that a minimum of 100 respondents is sufficient to analyse in SEM. The study argues that there are no significant differences in sample sizes of 100 or 1000. Iacobucci (2010) recently supported the argument and suggested that a sample size of 50 to 100 is enough for SEM analysis.

Another rule-of-thumb for a minimum sample size is based on a ratio of sample size to number of indicators. Previous studies suggested ratios such as 2:1, 3:1, 5:1 and 10:1 as an indicator for a minimum sample size (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012; Bentler & Chou, 1987; Kline, 2011). However, this current study decided to choose the 5:1 ratio as a guideline to determine a minimum sample size since previous studies indicated that the ratio is sufficient for the minimum sample size. For instance, Nevitt and Hancock (2004) suggested that a minimum sample ratio of 5:1 is sufficient in SEM analysis. The study found that the rejection rates for Type I error were reduced when the sample sizes increased from ratio a 1:1 or 2:1 to a 5:1 ratio. The study found that a sample of 5:1 is enough to generate an adequate statistical power in SEM analysis. Likewise, Bentler and Chou (1987) also recommended the ratio of 5:1 for the minimum sample size. Furthermore, several studies stated that smaller (e.g. invalid model) and larger sample sizes (more than 400) could affect statistical power and results (e.g. invalid model, generalisability, over fitting and over sensitive tests) (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012; Hair et al., 2010). As a result, this current study employed a sample size to number of indicators ratio as 5:1 as the rule-of-thumb to determine the minimum sample size since it is adequate for statistical power.

4.7 Ethical Considerations

This study received approval from the Human Ethics Committee (HEC) of the School of Marketing and International Business at Victoria University of Wellington. The study complied with the guidelines of the HEC in undertaking this research. The respondents were clearly informed that the research was voluntary, all responses were anonymous, and they had the option to withdraw from the study at any time.

4.8 Chapter summary

This chapter reviewed the suitable research paradigm and method used in this study. It also discussed preliminary studies, pre-tests and the main study (i.e. experimental study). The next chapter will discuss the data analysis technique and the results of the study.

CHAPTER 5 DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

This chapter covers data analysis procedures and the findings of the experimental study based on the hypotheses testing. This chapter consists of an explanation of the data analysis technique, preliminary data analysis, confirmatory data analysis, single-group or overall analysis, and multi-group analysis.

5.1 Data analysis technique

As discussed earlier, the data was derived from two sources of administration formats: online and pen-and-pencil. The online data was extracted from Qualtrics online software into Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS). Meanwhile, pen-and-pencil data was collected, and the returned questionnaires were coded into SPSS. After that, both sets of data were merged and analysed simultaneously. The study begins with a preliminary analysis consisting of descriptive statistics, missing data, outliers, normality of data, and common method variance test. The SPSS software has been used to analyse the preliminary analysis data.

As discussed previously, this current study aims to test differences between the effect of two generational cohorts (i.e. Boomers and Gen Y) and two ethnicities (i.e. Malays and Chinese) on attitude towards social sponsorship as well as brand loyalty. Hence, this study initially used a single-group analysis referring to an overall group. The data consisted of the combination of both generational cohorts. Meanwhile, multi-group analysis refers to the data dividing into different groups (i.e. Boomers and Gen Y; Malays and Chinese). Combinations of analysis methods such as t-test, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Covariance-based Structural Equation Model (SEM) were conducted to cater to the study's purposes. In terms of analysis, statistical analysis software, SPSS, was used for the t-test and ANOVA, while AMOS was used for SEM analysis.

In single-group analysis, the procedures started with the single-group Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). CFA is mainly used to assist with the confirmation and validation of research constructs (Byrne, 2010). This current study discusses two important stages in assessing CFA: firstly, Goodness-of-Fit (GOF) for a measurement model, followed by construct validity and reliability tests (e.g. convergent and discriminant validity). After the measurement model achieved a good fit and construct validity, the study then conducted a single-group causal or structure model analysis. This analysis provides overall findings of the study based on both generational cohorts. However, a multi-group analysis is an ideal analysis for gathering information about the influence of different generational cohorts on social sponsorship programmes.

This current study examines a multi-group analysis of different generational cohorts' perspectives on social sponsorship programmes (e.g. events, brands and type of media),

followed by an ethnic group comparison. In this regard, a t-test analysis was conducted to compare Boomers and Gen Y congruity with social sponsorship programmes. Additionally, ANOVA analysis was employed to compare four groups: generational cohorts (e.g. Boomers, Gen Y) and ethnic groups (e.g. Malays, Chinese). This is because the current study intends to discover the influence of ethnicity in determining the degree of a generational cohort's congruity with social sponsorship programmes despite being in the same generational cohort (see Section 2.3.1.2).

In terms of SEM analysis, this current study aims to analyse the impact of congruence on attitudes towards sponsorship and brand loyalty as well as multi-group analysis. This current study conducted Multi-group Confirmatory Factor Analysis (MGCFA) to compare the measurement invariance across groups; firstly, generational cohorts (e.g. Boomer; Gen Y), then by ethnic groups (e.g. Malay Boomers; Chinese Boomers; Malay Gen Y; Chinese Gen Y). It then proceeded to the multi-group structural analysis to make a comparison between different groups after MGCFA satisfied and achieved the cut-off (see Section 5.3.1; Table 5.3). The details of the analyses (e.g. procedures and results) will be discussed in a later part of this chapter (see Section 5.6).

5.2 Preliminary Data Analysis

This section discusses preliminary data analysis such as response rate and completeness, respondents' profiles, missing data, outliers, normality tests, and common method variance.

5.2.1 Response rate and completeness

The data collection process took place from May 5th to July 10th, 2013. A total of 16 cells (groups) for treatment groups and two for control groups were used in this study (see Section 4.4.5 for details). The experiment employed 2 generational cohorts (Boomers vs. Generation Y) x 2 events (ethnic-based vs. international) x 2 brands (ethnic-based vs. international) x 2 media (newspaper vs. Facebook) between-subjects factorial design.

As discussed in the previous chapter (see Section 4.4.4), respondents received either an online or pen-and-pencil questionnaire. The questionnaire included a fictitious social sponsorship advertisement and a scenario describing an event, a brand and a type of

media. The respondents were asked to rate their level of self-congruity with the event, the brand, and the media on the advertisement. The dependent variables in this current study were respondents' attitudes towards the social sponsorship and brand loyalty.

This study aimed to collect at least 20 respondents per cell (Hair et al., 2010): 320 for treatment groups and 40 for control groups. In total, the study collected 451 useable responses from the treatment groups and 50 respondents for the control groups across both generational cohorts. The study obtained a minimum of 25 respondents per cell, higher than the intended sample size of 20 respondents (see Section 4.4.5 and Table 4.2).

As mentioned in Section 4.4.5, this study had 16 treatment groups consisting of two generational cohorts (e.g. Boomer and Gen Y). It combined all treatment groups together instead of splitting them according to each group. The current study created dummy-coded variables as an indication for treatment groups. For instance, generational cohorts were re-coded as "0" for Gen Y and "1" for Boomers, while treatment manipulations were re-coded as "0" for ethnic-based and "1" for international events. The details of the dummy-coded variables are discussed in a later part of this thesis (see Section 5.5.1 and 5.6.1).

As discussed earlier, this current study employs SEM as a technique to analyse the data. Unlike first generation statistical methods (e.g. exploratory analysis, multiple regression), SEM has the ability to analyse more than two relationships simultaneously (Byrne, 2010; Shook et al., 2004), including mediation tests (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012). It can integrate both observed and unobserved variables as outcome variables (Byrne, 2010; Kline, 2011). SEM is also capable of assessing or correcting for measurement error since it provides explicit estimates of error variance parameters (Byrne, 2010).

There are two types of SEM techniques: partial least squares (PLS) and covariance-based SEM. Both techniques have advantages and disadvantages, and it depends on the research's direction to determine the most suitable analysis technique (Hair et al., 2010). A number of reasons contributed to the covariance-based SEM technique being more suitable for this study. Firstly, this current study is directed more at theoretical confirmation (e.g. theory testing and development) rather than at exploration or prediction research (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2011).

Secondly, the covariance-based SEM technique allows a researcher to empirically test a theoretical model (i.e. the measurement and the structural model) simultaneously (Hair et al., 2010). Thirdly, reflective indicators were used to measure latent variables in this current study. Chin (1998) suggested that PLS analysis is more useful for formative indicators; however, covariance-based SEM is more appropriate for reflective indicators (Chin, 1998). One of the advantages of PLS is that it can analyse smaller sample sizes (Hair et al., 2010). However, this current study has obtained a large enough sample size to generate adequate statistical power analysis using covariance-based SEM (Bentler & Chou, 1987; Nevitt & Hancock, 2004). Finally, the experimental design applied in this current study meant it was suitable to use the covariance-based SEM analysis technique as it allows for comparisons between groups (i.e. Boomers and Gen Y; Malays and Chinese) and allows the researcher to estimate group differences based on the study's hypotheses (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012; Kline, 2011). Thus, covariance-based SEM was a more suitable analysis technique for this current study.

Next, the requirement of sample size in SEM analysis is explored. The study analysed the data set of 451 respondents for the overall model, and more than 110 samples per group for the multi-group analysis. Hence, it met the minimum sample size requirement in order to provide adequate statistical power in SEM analysis (Bentler & Chou, 1987; Nevitt & Hancock, 2004).

5.2.2 Respondent profiles

Table 5.1 illustrates the respondent profiles in this current study. The respondents consisted of two generational cohorts (e.g. Boomers; Gen Y) and two ethnic groups (e.g. Malay; Chinese) since the purpose of this study was to examine the differences between generational cohorts and ethnic groups on social sponsorship programmes. All of the respondents were screened prior to the study by being asked a check question to ensure that they resided in Malaysia during their coming of age (see Section 4.5.4).

As a result, Generation Y comprised 50.8% and Boomers 49.2%. The majority of Gen Y was aged 20 to 22 (38.4%), whereas Boomers were aged 50 to 55 years old (33.5%). In terms of ethnic groups, the Malays contributed 51%, while the Chinese were 49%. These figures were considered well-distributed samples across the groups.

This study had more female respondents (56.5%) as compared to male (43.5%). When asked about education, most of the respondents had attained at least secondary school education. Most of the participants had a diploma or first degree (61.9%), followed by secondary school (29.7%), and postgraduate (8.4%) (see Table 5.1).

Table 5.1: *Respondent characteristics*

Demographic	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Age		
20-22	173	38.4
23-25	49	10.9
26-28	7	1.6
50-55	151	33.5
56-60	71	15.7
Generational cohort groups		
Generation Y (aged 20-28)	229	50.8
Boomers (aged 50-60)	222	49.2
Ethnic group		
Malay	230	51
Chinese	221	49
Gender		
Male	196	43.5
Female	255	56.5
Education		
Secondary school	134	29.7
Diploma/First degree	279	61.9
Master degree & above	38	8.4

5.2.3 Missing data

Participation in this study was voluntary and respondents were allowed to remove themselves from the experiment if they wanted to do so. Data with in excess of 10% of missing values were deleted from the sample (Hair et al., 2010). Hence, a total sample of 29 for treatment cells and 10 for control cells were deleted from the sample due to incomplete answers, and the missing values considered as untreatable. All in all, the study had no issues with the data entry as well as missing values and proceeded to the next analysis.

5.2.4 Outliers

Outliers refer to an unusual response by respondents, whether the value is extremely high or low and inconsistent from other respondents (Hair et al., 2010). It is important to identify the outliers before analysing the data since they could have an impact on the future statistical data analysis.

There are various suggestions regarding the maximum of standard score values (Z-scores). For instance, some scholars suggest that the threshold of Z-scores should be below 3.0 (Kline, 2011) or 4.0 (Hair et al., 2010). The current study found none of the respondent's Z-scores values to be greater than 2.5. Thus, the result indicates that there were no outlier issues in this study and all the responses fell within the expected range.

5.2.5 Normality (Skewness & Kurtosis)

Normality of the data is essential, and the researcher should perform the tests before proceeding to multivariate analyses especially in SEM (Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2010). This current study conducted two normality tests, namely, skewness and kurtosis. Skewness relates to equal balance of the distribution and could exhibit positive or negative skew (Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2011). Kurtosis refers to the peakedness and flatness of the distribution (Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2010).

In assessing the normality of data, the acceptable skewness and kurtosis index should be within ± 2 (Burns & Burns, 2008; Cameron, 2004). The table depicts that the data were normally distributed and lie within the recommended range (see Appendix 5.1).

5.2.6 Common Method Variance

This current study conducted common method variance (CMV) to deal with variance from the method of measurement rather than the construct measures represented (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Podsakoff et al. (2003) suggested conducting CMV because it has a more serious influence, especially in behavioural research. CMV is useful for assessing whether variance is shared with other variables in the factor analysis (Hair et al., 2010), since CMV has an impact on the relationship between independent and dependent variables (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Thus, this current study conducted CMV testing using Harman's single factor analysis and un-rotated factor analysis (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). As a guideline, the majority of the variance should be less than 50% with more than one factor extracted (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

As seen in Table 5.2, the study discovered four factors of Eigenvalues greater than 1 extracted, and the highest variance was 43.79%. As such, the result suggests that CMV did not have an issue in the current study.

Table 5.2: *Harman's single factor test*

Component	Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	8.733	43.791	43.791
2	2.801	13.625	57.416
3	1.596	6.767	64.183
4	1.076	3.787	67.970

5.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis model

After passing all the preliminary data analysis, this current study conducted Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). CFA is an important analysis to conduct before assessing a structural model. CFA is useful for ensuring the reliability of each item and reflect with the construct, to test a theoretical construct as well as provide confirmatory assessment for the measurement theory (Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2010).

There are three indicators in assessments to measure the model fit in CFA; firstly, Goodness-of-Fit (GOF) indices followed by construct validity and reliability tests (e.g. convergent and discriminant validity). Hence, this study conducted CFA before moving to the structural model in order to establish the observed variables for each latent variable in the measurement model.

5.3.1 Goodness-of-Fit in assessing measurement model

Goodness-of-Fit (GOF) provides a guideline for the hypothesis testing decision (i.e. whether to accept or reject) based on a good or poor model fit (Fan et al., 1999). A number of GOF indices are available to assess model fit. The Chi-square (X^2) statistic is one of the important indexes for determining model fit (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair

et al., 2010). The X^2 statistic is useful to assess the difference between the actual sample covariance and the covariance matrix reproduced (Fan et al., 1999). However, the effectiveness of the X^2 statistic as an indicator to assess model fit is arguable since it has a problem with non-normal data and is sensitive to sample size (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012; Byrne, 2010; Cheung & Rensvold, 2002; Fan et al., 1999; Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2011).

Besides, there are other types of GOF indices that are recommended for examining model fit such as absolute fit and incremental fit (Hair et al., 2010). This current study employed GOF indices to examine model fit as recommended by Bagozzi and Yi (2012) such as Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Standardised Root Mean Residual (SRMR), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and NNFI (non-normed fit index; also known as the TLI, Tucker and Lewis index). Other scholars have suggested using CMIN/df (X^2/df) as an additional assessment for model fit to overcome the disadvantages of the X^2 statistic (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012; Byrne, 2010; Kline, 2011). For the X^2/df , a value smaller than 2 indicates a good model fit; meanwhile, a value less than 3 is an acceptable model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kline, 2011).

For the absolute fit, RMSEA is effective in measuring whether a poor or good model fit has been achieved. It measures the difference between the observed covariance matrix and model-implied covariance matrix per degree of freedom (Chen, 2007). At 90% of the suggested confidence interval (CI), RMSEA values range from zero to 1.0. Kline (2011) stated that the nearer the RMSEA value is to zero the better the fit. There are three types of indicators of model fit in RMSEA: good model fit (< 0.5), acceptable fit (.05 to .08), and mediocre fit (.08 to .10) (Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2011).

Similar to RMSEA, a lower value of SRMR means a better model fit. SRMR is practicable to compare the average standardised residual across models (Hair et al., 2010). An SRMR value less than .05 indicates a good fit and less than 1.0 is considered an acceptable fit (Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2011).

In terms of the incremental fit index, the CFI index has been used to compare the estimated model fit to the baseline model in order to identify whether the model fit is better than the baseline model (Kline, 2011). Hair et al. (2010) recommended a value higher than .90 as the threshold of CFI. Meanwhile, Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) or

Tucker and Lewis Index (TLI) measures the differences between the fitted model and the null model. A value greater than .90 indicates a good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

As discussed above, this current study used RMSEA, SRMR, CFI and NNFI/TLI as a GOF indices to assess model fit (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012) as well as normed chi-square (χ^2/df). Below is the summary of recommended cut-offs for GOF used in this current study (Table 5.3).

Table 5.3: *Goodness-of-Fit Indices and Acceptable Thresholds*

Fit Indices	Acceptable Threshold Levels
Normed Chi-Square (χ^2/df)	< 2 (good fit); < 3 (acceptable fit) (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kline, 2011)
Absolute Fit SRMR RMSEA	< .05 (good fit); < 1.0 (acceptable fit) (Hair et al., 2010) < .05 (good fit); .05 – .08 (acceptable fit); .08 – .10 (mediocre fit) (Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2011)
Incremental Fit CFI NNFI/TLI	>.90 (Hair et al., 2010) >.90 (Byrne, 2010; Kline, 2011)

5.3.2 Assessing measurement model validity and reliability

The previous section discussed the assessment of model fit based on the GOF indicators. This section explores the measurement procedures for assessing model reliability. These include construct validity and reliability tests.

5.3.2.1 Path estimates and square multiple correlation

Path estimates or path loading is an indication to measure the association between items and constructs, and higher loadings indicate that the items are more closely related to the constructs (Hair et al., 2010). Even though item loadings above .50 are considered acceptable (Hair et al., 2010), the ideal path loadings are greater than .70 (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012; Hair et al., 2010). Besides, all loadings are not only required to be above the recommended cut-off, but should also meet a significance level (Hair et al., 2010).

Meanwhile, square multiple correlations (R^2) refer to “values representing the extent to which a measured variable’s variance is explained by a latent factor” (Hair et al., 2010). Hair et al. (2010) suggested that the R^2 value should be greater than .50 in order to explain how the item measures match with the construct. The next section discusses construct validity and reliability assessments in the measurement model.

5.3.2.2 Construct validity and reliability

Construct validity tests are important for ensuring that a scale of measures is consistent with an intended construct (Hair et al., 2010). It is important to achieve construct validity and reliability assessments before moving to the structural model (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). This current study focuses on two ways to assess the validity of constructs: convergent and discriminant validity.

Convergent validity

The objective of convergent validity is to measure whether the degree of indicators converges in the same construct. High correlations indicate that the indicators measure the right construct (Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2011). There are three tests that need to be fulfilled to achieve the validity of the construct: factor loading and communality, Average Variance Extracted (AVE), and construct reliability.

Factor loadings can be defined as items loaded to a latent construct and the item loadings indicate the variance extracted for the items (Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2011). The recommended threshold for factor loadings should be greater than .50; however, factor loadings of .70 and above are more ideal (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012; Hair et al., 2010). In terms of communality, each item measure should be more than .50 of the variance in order to achieve communality (Chin, 1998; Hair et al., 2010).

Hair et al. (2010) defines Average Variance Extracted (AVE) as “a summary measure of convergence among a set of items representing a latent construct. It is the average percentage of variation explained (variance extracted) among the items of a construct” (Hair et al., 2010, p. 661). It is helpful to identify that the amount of variance extracted represents the said construct measure as compared to measurement error (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2010). In order to achieve convergent validity, the proposed AVE value should be greater than .50 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) and below is the equation formula to calculate the AVE:

$$AVE = \frac{\sum \lambda_i^2}{\sum \lambda_i^2 + \sum \text{Var}(\epsilon_i)}$$

Note: Σ =denotes a sum; λ_i = the standardised loading on λ ; Var = denotes variance; ϵ_i =measurement error of λ_i

The construct reliability test is useful in checking whether each item is consistent within a specific construct. It is useful for ensuring that each item has internal consistency and reflects the latent variable (Hair et al., 2010). The recommended cut-off of the C.R. value is higher than .70 which is considered as adequate convergence or internal consistency (Hair et al., 2010). The construct reliability was calculated using Fornell and Larcker (1981)'s formula as below:

$$CR = \frac{(\sum \lambda_i)^2}{(\sum \lambda_i)^2 + \sum \text{Var}(\epsilon_i)}$$

Discriminant validity

The main objective of a discriminant validity test is to ensure that each construct is different from other constructs, and a low correlation between constructs indicates that discriminant validity exists (Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2011). Moreover, each item measured should represent only one construct (Hair et al., 2010). There are two methods to measure discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2010). First, the square correlation between any two constructs should be less than .75 (Grewal, Cote, & Baumgartner, 2004). The second method is to compare the squared correlation between two constructs with their AVE (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Hair et al. (2010) added that the squared correlation must be lower than the variance extracted to achieve discriminant validity. In short, discriminant validity is an important assessment to identify whether the construct used in this current study is distinguishable from others.

5.4 Single-group or overall measurement analysis

As mentioned earlier, this current study has single-group analysis (i.e. overall respondents) and multi-group analysis (i.e. comparing different generational cohorts and ethnic groups). This section discusses the single-group analysis of overall respondents commencing with an initial measurement model followed by a finalising measurement model after assessing CFA and other assessments (e.g. convergent validity, discriminant validity).

5.4.1 Initial single-group measurement model CFA

As discussed in the previous section, there are several fit indices for determining the Goodness-of-Fit (GOF) of a model. This study reported the X^2/df indicator along with other GOF indices such as the SRMR, RMSEA, CFI, and TLI. Table 5.3 shows GOF indices and the acceptable threshold as guidelines in this study.

The initial analysis of the measurement model and the model achieved an acceptable fit for X^2/df value (2.815) and RMSEA (.064), while other indices met the recommended threshold (SRMR=.040, CFI=.962, TLI=.954).

As mentioned earlier (see Section 5.3.2.2), factor loading, communality, AVE, and construct reliability are the assessments of convergent validity. All factor loadings were above .60 except for item REVT_2 (.56) (see Appendix 5.5). In terms of the communality scores, the results indicated that the only item below .50 was REVT_2 (.315).

Next, this current study calculates the construct reliability (CR) and the AVE value based on the equation proposed by Fornell and Larcker (1981). Using the formula, researchers can calculate manually or use computer software (e.g. Excel software). This current study used the Stats Tools Package provided by Gaskin (2012) to calculate the CR and AVE. This tool offers computerised calculation and avoids human error. The result indicates that the CR values were greater than .70 and AVE value more than .50 (see Appendix 5.5).

Based on the results, this current study had an issue with convergent validity (i.e. communality and low factor loading). It seems like the REVT_2 has a problem with the communality of the construct since the item has less than 50% of the underlying latent variable (Chin, 1998). It was suggested that the communality value should be greater than .50 to explain the item measures' match with the construct, and when a value is less than .50 it is recommended that it be removed (Chin, 1998; Hair et al., 2010). In addition, the factor loading for REVT_2 was less than .60. Wolf et al, (2013) have stated that lower factor loadings contribute to statistical power analysis problems and required larger sample sizes. The low factor loading implies that the REVT_2 item was weakly associated with the constructs (Hair et al., 2010), and the factor loading should be at least .60 and above (Chin, 1998).

A number of factors need to be considered before deleting the item. The item has a problem with internal consistency since the communality of the item did not meet the minimum criteria. This study employed reflective constructs, where the internal and external validity are important. For instance, the items must have internal consistency (i.e. convergent validity) in order to ensure that all items measure the same construct (Hair et al., 2010). Previous studies suggested removing the item that did not achieve the recommended threshold for communality ($>.50$) and the a factor loading of less than $.60$ (Chin, 1998; Krisjanous, Richard, & Gazley, 2014).

This study reviewed the REVT_2 item to ensure that no theoretical and face validity implications were involved. The communality and factor loadings could be lower than other items because this item was reverse coded. The respondents may have overlooked the item since it was in the opposite direction (reverse coded). The item also appeared to be an outlier because all other items exhibited a communality level above $.50$ and factor loadings greater than $.70$. As a result, this study decided to remove the REVT_2 item from the model since it had convergent validity issues. Removing the item did not affect the face validity of the construct as well as the theoretical information in the study.

5.4.2 Final single-group measurement model

The final model shows that the X^2/df value was an acceptable fit (2.937). Meanwhile, the other GOF indices have achieved the recommended threshold ($\chi^2=367.162$, $df=125$, $p<.001$, SRMR=0.037; TLI=0.955; CFI=0.964, RMSEA=0.066). Next, this current study discusses convergent and discriminant validity assessments.

As discussed earlier, the REVT_2 item was removed from the model. Table 5.4 shows that all factor loadings and communality were greater than recommended values (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012; Hair et al., 2010) (Appendix 5.3). Meanwhile, the construct reliabilities had increased, ranging from $.88$ to $.93$ (see Table 5.4). These results suggest that there is no issue with the constructs' reliability since all constructs are above $.70$ (Hair et al., 2010). As shown in Table 5.4, the AVE values are greater than $.50$ (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Hence, this study did not have a problem with convergent validity since all of the constructs achieved the criteria accordingly. In terms of discriminant validity, Table 5.5 shows that all the correlations are less than the corresponding square

root of the AVEs. As such, the results indicated that the convergent and discriminant validity was supported in this study.

Table 5.4: *Re-specification model after deleted item REVT_2*

	Items	Factor loading	Com*	AVE	CR
Self-Congruity					
Event Congruity	EVT_1	0.88	0.780	0.79	0.88
	EVET_3	0.89	0.793		
Brand Congruity	FIR_1	0.83	0.686	0.69	0.90
	FIR_2	0.73	0.528		
	FIR_3	0.88	0.781		
	FIR_4	0.87	0.759		
Media Congruity	MED_1	0.90	0.816	0.77	0.93
	MED_2	0.78	0.608		
	MED_3	0.91	0.829		
	MED_4	0.91	0.828		
Attitude					
Attitude toward Sponsorship	ATS_1	0.82	0.666	0.78	0.91
	ATS_2	0.93	0.861		
	ATS_3	0.90	0.817		
Brand Loyalty					
Brand Loyalty	LOY_1	0.78	0.585	0.70	0.91
	LOY_2	0.88	0.768		
	LOY_3	0.86	0.765		
	LOY_4	0.80	0.602		
	LOY_5	0.84	0.675		

*Com=communality; CR=construct reliability

The model had no issues with the path loadings because all the item loadings were greater than .70 (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012; Hair et al., 2010) and critical ratio values were greater than 1.96 (Byrne, 2010). Moreover, the standardised residual outcomes show that the residual values are less than 2.58 (Byrne, 2010) (see Appendix 5.4). According to the results, this model seems to achieve the path loadings and standardised residuals criteria. In addition, the final model has no issues with other indicators (e.g. path estimates, standardised residuals, and modification indices) and all items loaded significantly at $p < 0.001$. The results of the other indicators are presented in Table 5.6.

Table 5.5: *Discriminant validity*

	Att_Spon	Event	Brand	Media	Loyalty
AVE	0.78	0.79	0.69	0.77	0.70
Att_Spon	0.884				
Event	0.685	0.886			
Brand	0.509	0.621	0.830		
Media	0.304	0.273	0.342	0.878	
Loyalty	0.722	0.692	0.688	0.303	0.834

Square root of AVEs in the diagonals.

All correlations are less than the corresponding square root of the AVEs.

Implied correlations for each construct in the model in the lower half of the table

Table 5.6: *Final measurement model items, Loadings, and significance values*

	Items	Label	Estimates	Significance
Event Congruity	EVT_3	I feel like I am part of the event family.	0.89	p<0.001
	EVT_1	Participating in the event reflects who I am.	0.88	p<0.001
Brand Congruity	FIR_4	The image of “Pure Mineral Water” consumers is highly consistent with my self-image.	0.87	p<0.001
	FIR_3	I am very much like a typical person who prefers to drink “Pure Mineral Water” rather than other brand.	0.88	p<0.001
	FIR_2	I can identify with people who prefer “Pure Mineral Water” than other brand.	0.73	p<0.001
	FIR_1	People who drink “Pure Mineral Water” have more similarity with me compare to other brand.	0.83	p<0.001
Media Congruity	MED_4	The image of “The Truth Newspaper” readers is highly consistent with my self-image.	0.91	p<0.001
	MED_3	I am very much like a typical person who prefers to read “The Truth Newspaper” rather than social media.	0.91	p<0.001
	MED_2	I can identify with people who prefer to read “The Truth Newspaper” than social media.	0.78	p<0.001
	MED_1	People who read “The Truth Newspaper” have more similarity with me compare to social media user.	0.90	p<0.001
Att. Sponsorship	ATS_3	Attitude towards the overall sponsorship programme: Negative/Positive	0.90	p<0.001
	ATS_2	Attitude towards the overall sponsorship programme: Bad/Good	0.93	p<0.001
	ATS_1	Attitude towards the overall sponsorship programme: Unfavourable/Favourable	0.82	p<0.001
Brand Loyalty	LOY_5	I would buy more “Pure Mineral Water” in the next few years.	0.82	p<0.001
	LOY_4	I would consider “Pure Mineral Water” as my first choice to buy mineral water.	0.78	p<0.001
	LOY_3	I would encourage friends and relatives to buy “Pure Mineral Water”.	0.88	p<0.001
	LOY_2	I would recommend “Pure Mineral Water” to my friends.	0.88	p<0.001
	LOY_1	I would say positive things about “Pure Mineral Water” to other people.	0.77	p<0.001

5.4.3 Manipulation check

This section discusses manipulation tests between the control and treatment groups. The aim of this test was to check if event and brand manipulation were successful. The respondents in the treatment group saw an advertisement with the event or brand as a manipulation. There was no manipulation involved for the control group.

An independent samples t-test was employed to compare between the treatment and control group in regards to event and brand manipulations. Results confirmed that the event manipulation had been successful with the mean score for the treatment group ($M=5.32$) being significantly higher than the control group ($M=4.65$, $t=-2.887$, $p=.021$).

Similarly, the finding shows that the treatment group ($M=4.65$) had a higher mean score than the control group ($M=3.38$) for the brand manipulation ($t=-4.355$, $p=.019$). Therefore, this study indicated that event and brand manipulation were successful.

5.5 Hypotheses testing

This section outlines the findings from the testing of the hypothesised relationship between social sponsorship programmes that affect a generational cohort's attitude towards social sponsorship and brand loyalty. Next, it looks at the multi-group analysis of the different generational cohorts (e.g. Gen Y and Boomers) and ethnicity (e.g. Malays and Chinese). The findings of this part describe the impact of generational cohort and ethnicity on attitude towards the social sponsorship and brand loyalty.

This section has two parts. First, it addresses research questions one and two: 1) Does the self-congruity of different generational cohorts affect preferences toward social sponsorship programmes? 2) does the self-congruity of generational cohorts with social sponsorship programmes influence attitudes towards sponsorship and brand loyalty? As discussed earlier, this current study performed an independent sample t-test and SEM to analyse the overall and multi-group analysis data.

The second part of this section discussed research question 3: To what extent does ethnicity impact generational cohorts' preferences towards sponsorship programmes? In order to achieve the objectives, ANOVA and SEM were employed as the methods of analysis. SPSS was used to analysis the data.

5.5.1 T-test analysis (H1a, b; H2a, b; H3a, b)

This section attempts to answer the first research question: Does the self-congruity of different generational cohorts affect preferences towards social sponsorship programmes? An independent samples t-test was employed to compare Gen Y and Boomers attitudes towards social sponsorship programmes that consisted of an event (e.g. ethnic-based; international), a brand (e.g. ethnic-based; international), and media (newspaper; Facebook). The objectives of this analysis were to examine whether there were any significant differences in the degree of congruence across generational cohorts towards events, brands, and media.

Before conducting the analysis, this current study split the groups based on the manipulations rather than putting all of them together. Dummy-coded variables were created to distinguish the manipulations received by the generational cohorts. For instance, the data was coded based on generational cohorts (Gen Y=0; Boomers=1), and manipulations such as events (0=ethnic-based; 1=international), brands (0=ethnic-based; 1=international), and media (0=newspaper; 1=Facebook). Hence, the data were extracted and analysed based on the dummy-coded variables in comparison across the generational cohorts.

As seen in Table 5.7, there were significant differences at $p < 0.05$ between the two generational cohorts (e.g. Gen Y and Boomers) on the degree of events congruity (ethnic-based, $t = 2.35$, $p = .020$; international, $t = 6.33$, $p = .000$), brands (ethnic-based, $t = -3.11$, $p = .002$; international, $t = 2.06$, $p = .041$), and media (newspaper, $t = -13.44$, $p = .000$; Facebook, $t = 14.68$, $p = .000$). It was hypothesised that Boomers would have a higher degree of congruity than Gen Y towards ethnic-based events, brands and newspapers. Conversely, Gen Y would have a higher degree of congruity on international events, brands, and Facebook.

The finding indicates that Boomers had a high degree of congruity with ethnic-based events ($M = 4.66$) and ethnic-based brands ($M = 4.42$) as compared to Gen Y. In contrast, Gen Y had a greater mean on the international events ($M = 5.03$) and international brands ($M = 4.16$) than Boomers. In terms of media, Gen Y had a higher degree of congruity with Facebook ($M = 5.50$) than Boomers ($M = 3.49$) who preferred a newspaper ($M = 5.25$) (see Table 5.7). Hence, H1 (a; b), H2 (a; b), and H3 (a; b) were supported in this study.

Table 5.7: *t-test analysis*

Variables	Generations	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-value	Sig.
Event (EVT)	Gen Y	4.22	2.549	-2.35	.020
	Boomers	4.66	3.010		
	Gen Y	5.03	2.293	6.33	.000
	Boomers	4.00	2.637		
Brand (FIR)	Gen Y	3.88	4.653	-3.11	.002
	Boomers	4.42	5.691		
	Gen Y	4.16	4.741	2.06	.041
	Boomers	3.85	4.262		
Media (MED)	Gen Y	3.55	4.603	-13.44	.000
	Boomers	5.25	2.825		
	Gen Y	5.50	3.103	14.68	.000
	Boomers	3.49	4.801		

p<0.05; *p<0.001

5.5.2 Single-group structural model (H4, H5, H6, H7)

This section discusses the results of the single-group structural model or causal model (used interchangeably). Similar to the measurement model, the fit of the single-group structural model was assessed according to model fit indices. The model needs to meet the GOF model fit requirements for RMSEA, SRMR, TLI, and CFI indices before proceeding to the structural model (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012; Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2010; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kline, 2011) (see Table 5.3).

Table 5.8 illustrates that the single-group model revealed mixed results of model fit. The model achieved acceptable or good fit (SRMR=.784, TLI=.937, CFI=.947,, RMSEA=.078); except for X^2/df value(3.755). This current study proceeds to the structural model despite the X^2/df value being above the recommended threshold (>3.0). Bagozzi and Yi (2012) have suggested that SRMR, TLI, CFI and RMSEA are generally acceptable GOF indices in assessing model fit.

Table 5.8: *Comparison of paths in structural model*

Paths		Standardised coefficients	C.R.	P-value
EVT	→ATS	.59	10.392	***
FIR	→ ATS	.15	2.808	**
MED	→ ATS	.10	2.524	**
ATS	→LOY	.76	16.449	***

*** $p < .001$; ** $p < .05$

As shown in Figure 5.1, the results of the analysis show that all the paths were positively significant since the critical ratio (CR) values were greater than 1.96. The paths between events ($\beta=.59$, $CR=10.392$, $p<.001$), brands ($\beta=.15$, $CR=2.808$, $p<.05$), and media ($\beta=.10$, $CR=2.524$, $p<.05$) positively influenced attitudes towards social sponsorship, and explain the 54% variance. Therefore, these results support H4, H5, and H6 since greater self-congruity with the event, brand, and media significantly influenced a positive attitude towards social sponsorship.

Meanwhile, the relationship between the attitude towards social sponsorship and brand loyalty was positively significant ($\beta=.76$, $CR=16.449$, $p<.001$) with 57% variance in brand loyalty. This result indicates that respondents' attitudes towards social sponsorship did influence their brand loyalty degree, hence H7 was supported. The next section discusses the mediator effect on the single-group analysis.

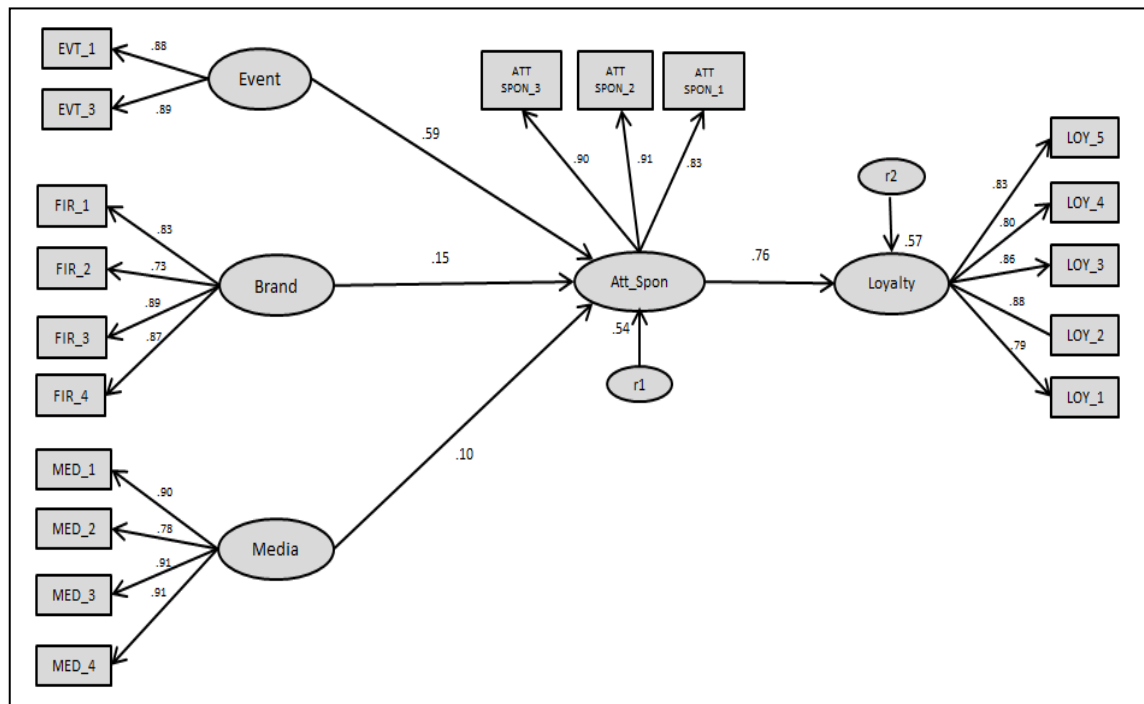


Figure 5.1: single group structural model

5.5.3 Mediator analysis

This section discusses the effect of attitude towards social sponsorship (ATS) as a mediator between exogenous variables (e.g. event, brand and media congruity) and brand loyalty (see Figure 3.4). In testing for mediation effect, Baron and Kenny (1986)'s approach is commonly used to estimate the paths (Hayes, 2009; Preacher & Hayes, 2004; Xinshu Zhao, Jr, & Qimei Chen, 2010). However, the efficiency and accuracy of this approach in determining the mediation effect is questionable, especially for small sample sizes (Preacher & Hayes, 2004, 2008). With this regard, bootstrapping is an alternative approach to mediation testing to manage the sample size problem, as well as more rigorous analysis (Hayes, 2009; Preacher & Hayes, 2004, 2008; Xinshu Zhao et al., 2010).

There is no exact resampling size in analysing the indirect effect using bootstrapping (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Previous studies suggested that the resampling size for bootstrapping could be from 1000 to 5000 (Hayes, 2009; Krisjanous et al., 2014; Preacher & Hayes, 2004, 2008; Xinshu Zhao et al., 2010). Therefore, this study decided to use 1000 as resampling size with 95% confidence interval as suggested by Preacher and Hayes (2004).

Next, this study discusses direct effect followed by indirect effect. The results indicated that the direct path between event (EVT) ($\beta = 0.184$, $p = 0.003$, $BCCI=0.049 - 0.308$) and brand (FIR) ($\beta = 0.364$, $p = 0.001$, $BCCI=0.281 - 0.461$) to brand loyalty (LOY) were significant at $p < .05$. However, the direct path between media (MED) and brand loyalty (LOY) was not significant ($\beta = 0.004$, $p = 0.941$, $BCCI=-0.068 - 0.076$).

The bootstrapping procedure was used to examine the total indirect effect between event (EVT), brand (FIR) and media (MED) and brand loyalty (LOY) through attitude towards social sponsorship (ATS) as a mediator. As seen in Table 5.9, the bootstrap results found that EVT ($\beta = 0.302$, $p = 0.002$) had a significant indirect effect on LOY. Similarly, the indirect effect for FIR ($\beta = 0.072$, $p = 0.016$); and MED ($\beta = 0.055$, $p = 0.005$) also had a significant indirect effect on LOY.

In general, all the relationships were positively significant in this study (R^2 , $ATS = .49$, $LOY = .68$). However, the purpose of the study was to make a comparison of how a generational cohort's congruity with a social sponsorship programme (e.g. event, brand, and type of media) influences its attitude towards social sponsorship and brand loyalty. Hence, the study conducted further analysis. The next section discusses multi-group invariance analysis to compare different generational cohorts as well as ethnicity.

Table 5.9: Indirect effect ($BS=1000$, $BCCI=95\%$)

Effect	Estimates	Standard error	Sig.	BCCI (95%)
Indirect Effect				
EVT \rightarrow ATS \rightarrow LOY	0.302	0.049	0.002	0.168 - 0.363
FIR \rightarrow ATS \rightarrow LOY	0.072	0.039	0.016	0.009 - 0.116
MED \rightarrow ATS \rightarrow LOY	0.055	0.028	0.005	0.014 - 0.083

** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.001$ BS=Bootstrapping; BCCI=bias-corrected confidence interval

5.6 Multi-group analysis

The previous section discussed the findings of single-group analysis, where all respondents were analysed together. However, the current study aims to compare different generational cohorts (i.e. Gen Y; Boomers) and ethnic groups (i.e. Malays; Chinese) on social sponsorship programmes (e.g. event, brand, and media). It was hypothesised that each generational cohort had their own preferences towards social

sponsorship programmes that may influence attitude towards sponsorship and brand loyalty (see Chapter 3). In this regard, this study conducted multi-group analysis to compare different groups (e.g. generational cohorts; ethnic groups) on social sponsorship programmes, attitude towards sponsorship, and brand loyalty. This section starts with multi-group analysis for generational cohorts and then follows with ethnic groups.

5.6.1 Multi-group invariance analysis

Similar to single-group analysis, this measurement model was assessed before moving to the structural model. Following the dummy-coded variables created during the t-test analysis, the multi-group analysis intends to answer the second research question of this study: Does the self-congruity of generational cohorts with social sponsorship programmes influence their attitudes towards social sponsorship and brand loyalty.

It was hypothesised that the level of generational cohorts' (e.g. Boomers; Gen Y) self-congruity with events (e.g. ethnic-based; international), brands (e.g. ethnic-based; international), and media (e.g. newspaper; Facebook) had a positive influence on the attitude towards social sponsorship. Moreover, the more generational cohorts' perceived a positive attitude towards social sponsorship, the higher the degree of brand loyalty (see Chapter 3).

As discussed in the previous section, this current study intends to compare the attitudes of two generational cohorts (Gen Y and Boomers) towards social sponsorship and brand loyalty. It was important to ensure that all the constructs and factor structures in the study had a similar meaning and measured consistently across the generational cohorts since this study involved comparing groups (Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2010; Jöreskog, 1971; Kline, 2011; Meade & Lautenschlager, 2004). Researchers are encouraged to perform multi-group invariance analysis if their study involves ethnicity, gender, study administration (e.g. online vs. pen-and-pencil) or age group differences (Byrne, 2010; Chen, 2008; Kline, 2011; Meade et al., 2007). As such, this current study conducted multi-group invariance analysis.

Several studies have suggested conducting MGCFA to ensure measurement scales' equivalence across groups in studies pertaining to age, cultural or ethnic groups and

where there are differences in the way a study is administered (Byrne, 2010; Chen, 2008; Kline, 2011; Meade et al., 2007).

Section 4.4.4 highlighted previous studies that have advised conducting MGCFA to check the measurement invariance across two formats (Bugbee, 1996; Meade et al., 2007). This current study only required one MGCFA for generational cohorts since it assigned the online (e.g. Gen Y), and pen-and-pencil (e.g. Boomers) tests to the different generational cohorts. The MGCFA analysis conducted in the study covers the online and pen-and-pencil formats. This current study proceeds to the multi-group structural analysis to make a comparison between different groups after MGCFA satisfied and has achieved the cut-off (see Section 5.3.1; Table 5.3). The details of the analyses (e.g. procedures and results) will be discussed in a later part of this chapter.

Before conducting the multi-group analysis in SEM, this current study followed the previous procedures in splintering the data and creating dummy-coded variables (e.g. Generational cohorts, Gen Y=0, Boomers=1; events, 0=ethnic-based, 1=international) (see Section 5.5.1). Therefore, it helped to compare the attitude towards social sponsorship and brand loyalty across generational cohorts instead of analysing them together.

Similar to single-group analysis, there are two stages in a multi-group analysis. First, it is necessary to establish the measurement model (CFA) and follow with a structural model to compare the path differences across groups. Some scholars refer to measurement model invariance as Multi-sample Confirmatory Factor Analysis (Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2011), or Multi-group Confirmatory Factor Analysis (Byrne, 2010; Cheung & Rensvold, 2002; Cole et al., 2006; Jöreskog, 1971). Both have the same meaning; however, this study uses Multigroup Confirmatory Factor Analysis (MGCFA) to refer to the measurement analysis for invariance.

In MGCFA, there is a series of procedures to follow before proceeding to the structural model analysis: configural, metric (factor loading), scalar or intercept, and residual invariance (Byrne, 2010; Chen, 2007; Cheung & Rensvold, 2002; Hair et al., 2010). Chi-square differences (ΔX^2) are a common method of determining the model fit (Jöreskog, 1971). The objective of MGCFA is to compare the ΔX^2 of the configural model with the metric, scalar, and residual models across two different groups.

However, this approach has received criticism for effectiveness and the practicality of ΔX^2 in the testing of model invariance (Byrne, 2010; Cheung & Rensvold, 2002; Cole et al., 2006).

Several researchers have proposed using the other GOF indices to assess the invariance in MGCFA. For example, Cheung and Rensvold (2002) suggested ΔCFI , $\Delta \text{Gamma hat}$, and $\Delta \text{McDonald's NCI}$ as indices to measure GOF. Meanwhile, Steenkamp and Baumgartner (1998) recommended the ΔRMSEA , ΔCAIC , ΔCFI , and ΔTLI indices for detecting the group differences.

Chen (2007) suggests ΔRMSEA , ΔSRMR , and ΔCFI as GOF indices in comparing MGCFA. That study stated that the proposed GOF indices are a better measurement and are more sensitive to factor covariance (SRMR) and factor loading misspecification (CFI, RMSEA) than other GOF indices. Moreover, the study provides the cut-off for GOF indices for sample sizes below 300 (see Table 5.10). Sass, Schmitt, and Marsh (2014) agreed that the GOF indices suggested by Chen (2007) are the most effective indices to determine MGCFA alongside ΔX^2 . In this regard, this current study follows Chen's recommendation on GOF indices for two reasons: GOF indices are better than other indices and the sample size of this study was less than 300 for the multi-group analysis.

After MGCFA had achieved the invariance criteria, the study proceeded to the structural model. The purposes of this analysis are to identify the latent mean of the constructs and the path estimation differences of both generational cohorts. The findings of the study may reveal whether and/or how the differences of a generational cohort's congruity with an event, brand and type of media have an impact on attitude towards sponsorship and brand loyalty. In this regard, the multi-group analysis will suggest more fruitful findings than a single-group analysis.

Table 5.10: *Multi-group Goodness-of-Fit Cut-Off*

Factor loading:		Intercept/residual	
ΔCFI	≥ -0.005	ΔCFI	≤ -0.005
ΔRMSEA	≤ 0.010	ΔRMSEA	≤ 0.010
ΔSRMR	≤ 0.025	ΔSRMR	≤ 0.005

Note: $N \leq 300$

5.7 Procedures of Multi-group Confirmatory Factor Analysis

As mentioned earlier, this current study needs to conduct multi-group analysis since it intends to seek differences across the generational cohorts. This current study analyses the model simultaneously to compare the results for different groups instead of analysing the model separately (e.g. single-group). The multi-group analysis allows the model to run simultaneously and obtain more accurate results after combining different groups (Byrne, 2010). A discussion of the procedures of MGCFA and which measures of invariance must be achieved is given below.

Configural invariance

A configural model is an essential model in MGCFA (Chen, 2008; Cheung & Rensvold, 2002; Kline, 2011). It is important to ensure that the model measures the same number of latent factors for each group (Chen, 2007). In order to indicate the correct configural model, the cumulative of X^2 and df for each group has a similar amount to the configural model (Byrne, 2010). To analyse the configural model, all parameters need to be freely estimated for each group (Byrne, 2010; Kline, 2011). The configural model is useful as a baseline model to compare with metric, scalar, and residual models. Similarly with single-group, the model fit of the configural model needs to comply with all GOF indices before proceeding to next model.

Metric invariance

Metric invariance is useful for measuring factor loadings of the model where they are equivalent across groups (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002) and all the factor loadings need to be constrained equally. After running the analysis, the metric model needs to be compared with the configural model based on the recommended GOF indices (Chen, 2007). Metric invariance is an important test in MGCFA (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002; Schmitt & Kuljanin, 2008). This model should achieve full or at least partial invariance

before proceeding to the next assessments (Byrne, Shavelson, & Muthén, 1989; Hair et al., 2010; Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998).

Scalar and residual invariance

Scalar and residual invariance are used to test the invariance for intercepts and residual levels across the groups. Byrne (2010) suggested manual and automatic methods to analyse the scalar and residual model in AMOS. As a metric model, partial invariance is considered adequate for both models even though it is difficult to achieve invariance especially in the residual model (Chen, 2007). Meanwhile, Hair et al. (2010) suggested that achieving partial scalar invariance is sufficient for measurement invariance.

Based on the above discussion, the metric and scalar models are important measures of invariance before continuing on to the next assessment. After satisfying MGCFA assessments (e.g. obtain at least partial invariance for the metric and scalar models), the study examines latent mean comparison and the structural model.

The next section discusses MGCFA for social sponsorship programmes (e.g. events, brands, and media) and is followed by a structural model. The sample was extracted from re-coded variables created in Section 5.5.1. This is to ensure that the result of this study represents each manipulation (e.g. events: ethnic-based; international). Therefore, there are three sets of MGCFA (e.g. events, brands, media) since this study divided the sample based on the manipulations groups. Finally, the study explains the comparison of latent mean and path estimation differences across the generational cohorts.

5.7.1 Events - ethnic-based and international (H4a, 4b)

As discussed in the previous section, the assessment was conducted according to suggested procedures in MGCFA (Byrne, 2010; Chen, 2007; Cheung & Rensvold, 2002; Hair et al., 2010). It is important for MGCFA to achieve full or at least partial invariance before proceeding to the structural model (Byrne et al., 1989; Hair et al., 2010; Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). However, metric model invariance is a crucial part that this study needs to address before moving to other invariance testing (Hair et al., 2010). This section outline begins with MGCFA for an ethnic-based and international event and continues to latent mean and causal model differences for both events.

Ethnic-based event

In the ethnic-based event, this study first estimated the configural model. This model was known as the baseline model to compare with other models. As recommended by Byrne (2010), it is advisable that the configural model show a good model fit similar to the GOF indices threshold for single group analyses (see Table 5.3).

The result shows that the model achieved a good fit (chi-square 393.303(250) = 1.573; CFI = .956; RMSEA=.051; SRMR=.058). Next, the metric model was tested and compared with the baseline model (see Table 5.11).

The metric model achieved model invariance ($\Delta\text{CFI}=.006$; $\Delta\text{RMSEA}=-.002$; $\Delta\text{SRMR}=-.013$) as it complied with GOF indices guidelines for the factor loading changes (see Table 5.10). As mentioned earlier, metric invariance is an important assessment before continuing to the next models (Hair et al., 2010). Based on the result, the metric model achieved full invariance for both generational cohorts since all GOF changes were supported.

Meanwhile, the scalar model revealed that the model met the changes of GOF indices for ΔRMSEA (-.001) and ΔSRMR (-.050); however, not for ΔCFI (.007). Chen (2007) recommended that the changes of GOF indices are $\Delta\text{CFI} \leq -.005$, $\Delta\text{RMSEA} \leq .005$, and $\Delta\text{SRMR} \leq .010$ for the scalar and residual. Similarly, the residual model achieved partial invariance ($\Delta\text{RMSEA} = -.007$, $\Delta\text{SRMR} = -.060$, $\Delta\text{CFI} = .023$). Based on the results, the scalar and residual models have achieved partial invariance since some of the indices supported the model invariance criteria. The partial invariance for the scalar model is sufficient for this study to proceed to next stage (Byrne et al., 1989; Hair et al., 2010; Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998).

Table 5.11: *Goodness-of-Fit for ethnic-based event (Boomers and Gen Y)*

Model	χ^2/df	CFI	ΔCFI	RMSEA	ΔRMSEA	SRMR	ΔSRMR
1. Configural invariance	1.573	0.956		0.051		0.058	
2. Metric invariance	1.605	0.950	0.006	0.053	-0.002	0.071	-0.013
3. Scalar invariance	1.598	0.949	0.007	0.052	-0.001	0.109	-0.050
4. Residual invariance	1.737	0.933	0.023	0.058	-0.007	0.118	-0.060

International event

This study discusses the testing of MGCFA for an international event. The model fit indicators for the configural model suggested that the model fitted the data well (chi-square $516.747(250) = 2.067$; CFI = .924; RMSEA=.068; SRMR=.049) (see Table 5.12). The baseline model was established, and then this study compared the metric, scalar, and residual models.

The metric model describes that the changes of the indices values for CFI (.004), RMSEA (.000), and SRMR (-.003) supported the invariance of this model. The metric model has achieved full invariance.

The scalar and residual models met the threshold for Δ RMSEA (.000; .001) and Δ SRMR (-.024, -.024), however did not meet the recommended cut-off for Δ CFI (.007, .010). The results suggested that both models supported the partial invariance and were eligible for the next steps.

Table 5.12: *Goodness-of-Fit for international event (Boomers and Gen Y)*

Model	χ^2/df	CFI	Δ CFI	RMSEA	Δ RMSEA	SRMR	Δ SRMR
1. Configural invariance	2.067	0.924		0.068		0.049	
2. Metric invariance	2.042	0.920	0.004	0.068	0.000	0.052	-0.003
3. Scalar invariance	2.045	0.917	0.007	0.068	0.000	0.073	-0.024
4. Residual invariance	2.017	0.914	0.010	0.067	0.001	0.073	-0.024

Latent mean differences

After both ethnic-based and international events met MGFA invariance, this study continued to latent mean differences and the structural model. In analysing the latent mean differences, this assessment required the choice of one of the groups as a reference group. The reference group needed to assign any values (e.g. zero) and freely estimate the other groups (Byrne, 2010). As such, Gen Y was chosen as a reference group and was fixed to zero value. Meanwhile, this study chose “mn” as a label for Boomers. Table 5.13 shows the latent mean differences between Gen Y and Boomers on the ethnic-based and international event. Byrne (2010) suggested that critical ratio (CR) values greater than 1.96 were evidence that the latent means of both groups were significantly different. The results indicate that they were statistically significantly different for both ethnic-based ($p=.020$) and international ($p=.000$) events across the

generational cohorts. The results explain that Boomers (CR = 2.331) have a higher preference for the ethnic-based event than Gen Y. In contrast, the international event had a negative value with a CR value of -6.286. As discussed earlier, Gen Y had been chosen as a reference group and the negative value indicated the CR value for Gen Y. Therefore, Gen Y perceived a higher preference towards the international event than Boomers. This is consistent with the t-test analysis conducted earlier (see Section 5.5.1).

Table 5.13: *latent mean differences (ethnic-based and international events)*

Constructs	Ethnic-based			International		
	Estimates	C.R.	P-value	Estimates	C.R.	P-value
EVT	.460	2.331	.020	-1.032	-6.286	***
ATS	-.203	-1.817	.069	-.782	-6.449	***
LOY	-.080	-.789	.430	-.613	-5.273	***

Note: CR>1.96 indicates significant difference; *** p< .001; ** p< .05

Ethnic-based and international events structural group comparison (H4a; H4b)

As seen in Table 5.16, Boomers and Gen Y have a medium and large effect size regardless of events (ethnic-based or international) (Cohen, 1988). However, the objective of this section was to identify whether both generational cohorts differ in terms of events (i.e. ethnic-based; international).

This current study uses z-score values to test the difference between generational cohorts. Based on z-score value, the findings reveal that Boomers and Gen Y were statistically significantly different for EVT→ATS (ethnic-based event) at the $p<0.10$ (z-score= 1.904) (see Table 5.16). Boomers ($\beta=.68$, R^2 , ATS= .77) had stronger path coefficients compared to Gen Y ($\beta=.52$, R^2 , ATS= .30). Thus, this indicates that H4a was supported since Boomers had a stronger attitude towards social sponsorship related to the ethnic-based event than Gen Y.

Meanwhile, H4b hypothesised that Gen Y has a stronger attitude towards the social sponsorship than Boomers in regard to the international event. The z-score value showed that there was no significant difference between Gen Y ($\beta=.57$; R^2 , ATS= .53) and Boomers ($\beta=.39$; R^2 , ATS= .71) for EVT→ATS (international event) (z-score= -1.485). Therefore, H4b is not supported because both generational cohorts' paths were not statistically different for the international event.

5.7.2 Brands – ethnic-based and international (H5a, H5b)

MGCFA for ethnic-based and international brands were tested in a similar way to the MGCFA for the event. This current study underwent configural, metric, scalar, and residual procedures for both ethnic-based and international brand samples.

The configural model shows that the model fitted well according to GOF indices for the ethnic-based brand ($\chi^2=449.27(250) = 1.797$; CFI = .944; RMSEA=.060; SRMR=.057). Given the findings of the metric model, partial invariance was an adequate requirement to proceed to the next model assessment (Byrne et al., 1989; Hair et al., 2010; Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). Meanwhile, the results of the scalar and residual models only achieved partial invariance (see Appendix 5.7).

Next, MGCFA for the international brands was tested. This study found that the configural model achieved a good fit (chi-square 448.327(250); χ^2/df 1.793; CFI = .938; RMSEA=.059; SRMR=.059). The metric model demonstrated full invariance since all GOF values supported the threshold differences ($\Delta\chi^2(13)= 30.222$; Δ CFI = .005; Δ RMSEA=.001; Δ SRMR=.001). Based on Appendix 5.8, the findings explain that both the scalar and residual models were considered as partial invariance and this study met the requirements of MGCFA and continued to the latent mean and path estimates differences.

Latent mean differences

The procedure for the latent mean differences followed the previous section as Gen Y had been chosen as a reference group. The findings indicate that the ethnic-based ($p=.002$) and international brands ($p=.026$) showed significant differences at the $p < .05$ level between Gen Y and Boomers as $CR > 1.96$ (see Table 5.14). As hypothesised, Boomers had a greater preference towards the ethnic-based brands (C.R. = 3.098). Conversely, the study found that Gen Y had a higher degree of congruity with the international brands than the Boomers did (C.R. = -2.221).

Table 5.14: *latent mean differences (ethnic and international brands)*

Constructs	Ethnic-based			International		
	Estimates	C.R.	P-value	Estimates	C.R.	P-value
FIR	.552	3.098	.002	-.308	-2.221	.026
ATS	-.406	-3.370	***	-.594	-4.996	***
LOY	-.136	-1.172	.241	-.526	-5.071	***

Note: CR>1.96 indicates significant different; ***p< .001; ** p< .05; * p< .10

Ethnic-based and international brands group comparison (H5a, H5b)

As compared to the differences in path coefficients across the groups, Table 5.16 illustrates that both generational cohorts were significantly different on FIR→ATS for the ethnic-based brands at $p<0.10$ (z-score=1.785). The results found that Boomers ($\beta=.39$; R^2 , ATS= .71) had a stronger path relationship between FIR→ATS for the ethnic-based brands as compared to Gen Y ($\beta=.14$; R^2 , ATS= .31). Thus, H5a is supported.

Interestingly, Gen Y ($\beta=.01$; R^2 , ATS= .53) and Boomers ($\beta=.21$; R^2 , ATS= .73) did not significantly differ between the FIR→ATS for the international brands (z-score=1.396). Thus, H5b was not supported since Gen Y did not show a stronger attitude towards the sponsorship for the international brand than Boomers. This interesting finding will be discussed further in the discussion chapter; especially given that Boomers had a greater effect size than Gen Y for the international brand.

5.7.3 Media – newspaper and Facebook (H6a, H6b)

The final multi-group analyses for generational cohorts were the type of media (e.g. newspaper and Facebook). The configural model for newspaper suggests that the model has a good fit (chi-square 376.434 (250) = 1.506; CFI = .959; RMSEA=.047; SRMR=.054). This study found that the metric model had achieved full invariance for all GOF. Meanwhile, the scalar and residual models achieved some of the GOF indices; hence, the models were considered as having partial invariance (see Appendix 5.9).

In terms of Facebook, the configural model indicated that the model fitted well since the GOF indices complied with the threshold (chi-square 536.607(250) = 2.146; CFI = .908; RMSEA=.073; SRMR=.071). Partial invariance was achieved for the three models

(metric, scalar and residual) and was sufficient to continue to the next steps (see Appendix 5.10).

Latent mean differences

Table 5.15 illustrates the latent mean differences for media as the treatment conditions across two groups. The results showed that there were significant differences across the groups on newspaper and Facebook as the form of media ($p < 0.001$). Supporting the results of the t-test analysis, Boomers had a higher latent mean for the newspaper (C.R. = 13.106), while Gen Y had more preferences towards Facebook (C.R. = -13.565).

Table 5.15: *latent mean differences newspaper and Facebook*

Constructs	Newspaper			Facebook		
	Estimates	C.R.	P-value	Estimates	C.R.	P-value
MED	1.794	13.106	***	-2.132	-13.565	***
ATS	-.305	-2.747	.006	-.693	-5.445	***
LOY	-.207	-2.094	.036	-.484	-3.994	***

Note: CR>1.96 indicates significant difference; *** p-value < .001; ** p-value < .05; * p-value < .10

Newspaper and Facebook group comparison

The causal path between MED→ATS was statistically different for newspaper at the $p < .10$ level (Boomers, $\beta = .19$; Gen Y, $\beta = .08$, z-score = 1.828), however, it did not differ significantly for Facebook (Boomers, $\beta = .00$; Gen Y, $\beta = .12$, z-score = -0.951) (see Table 5.16). The explained variances for newspaper on ATS and LOY constructs are: Gen Y, ATS=.43; Boomers, ATS=.69). Meanwhile, the explained variances for Facebook are Gen Y (ATS=.37) and Boomers (ATS=.80). Thus, H6a was supported; in contrast, H6b was not supported.

In summary, the objective of this section was to test the difference between generational cohorts on their attitude towards social sponsorship. As discussed above, H4a, H5a and H6a are supported. However, H4b, H5b and H6b are not supported.

Table 5.16: *Generational cohorts' comparison (events, brands and media) on attitude towards social sponsorship*

		Paths	Gen Y	Boomers	z-score
			Standardised coefficients	Standardised coefficients	
Event	Ethnic	EVT→ATS	.52	.68	1.904*
	International	EVT→ATS	.57	.39	-1.485
Brand	Ethnic	FIR→ATS	.14	.39	1.785*
	International	FIR→ATS	.01	.21	1.396
Media	Newspaper	MED→ ATS	.08	.19	1.828*
	Facebook	MED→ ATS	.12	.00	-0.951

Note: z-score significantly different between two generational cohorts at *** $p < .001$; ** $p < .05$; * $p < .10$

5.7.4 Attitudes towards sponsorship and brand loyalty (Additional analysis)

As noted previously there was a significant relationship between attitudes towards sponsorship and brand loyalty (see Section 5.5.2), meaning that H7 was supported. While not specifically hypothesised, differences were explored between the generational cohorts for the attitude and brand loyalty relationship.

Interestingly, the results show that both generational cohorts have a similar degree of brand loyalty regardless of conditions and despite different generational cohort profiles. As seen in Table 5.17, the paths between $ATS \rightarrow LOY$ did not statistically differ for both ethnic-based (Gen Y, $\beta = .58$; Boomers, $\beta = .80$) and international events (Gen Y, $\beta = .74$; Boomers, $\beta = .87$). Likewise, the paths between $ATS \rightarrow LOY$ showed positive relationships for both generational cohorts regardless of media conditions (newspaper=Gen Y, $\beta = .68$; Boomers, $\beta = .79$; Facebook=Gen Y, $\beta = .61$; Boomers, $\beta = .88$) (see Table 5.18); however, they did not statistically differ between the two generational cohorts. In terms of the brand conditions, the causal relationship between $ATS \rightarrow LOY$ showed no significant difference between Gen Y and Boomers. Both generational cohorts perceived a positive attitude towards brand loyalty with Boomers ($\beta = .85$ and $\beta = .80$) and Gen Y ($\beta = .61$ and $\beta = .71$) with both brand conditions. The findings suggest

that attitudes towards social sponsorship positively influence brand loyalty for both generational cohorts. These findings will be discussed in depth in the next chapter.

Table 5.17: *Generational cohorts' comparison between attitude towards social sponsorship and brand loyalty (events, brands and media)*

		Paths	Gen Y	Boomers	z-score
			Standardised coefficients	Standardised coefficients	
Event	Ethnic	ATS → LOY	.58	.80	-0.090
	International	ATS → LOY	.74	.87	0.902
Brand	Ethnic	ATS → LOY	.61	.85	-0.094
	International	ATS → LOY	.71	.80	0.534
Media	Newspaper	ATS → LOY	.68	.79	0.413
	Facebook	ATS → LOY	.61	.88	0.226

Note: z-score significantly different between two generational cohorts at *** $p < .001$; ** $p < .05$; * $p < .10$

5.8 Multi-group analysis for ethnicity and generational cohorts

The previous section discussed multi-group analysis comparing two generational cohorts: Gen Y and Boomers. This section addresses the third research question: Does ethnicity impact generational cohorts' preferences toward sponsorship programmes? In order to answer this research question, this study employed two types of analysis: firstly, ANOVA, followed by SEM.

ANOVA analysis attempts to investigate whether ethnicity has an impact on the degree of a generational congruity with an event and brand. Then, SEM analysis was applied to identify the influence of ethnicity on generational cohorts' attitudes towards sponsorship and brand loyalty.

Similar to the t-test analysis (see Section 5.5.1), grouped variables were created before conducting the analysis. This current study divided the respondents into four groups according to two generational cohorts (e.g. Gen Y; Boomers) and two ethnicities (e.g. Malays; Chinese). The data were re-coded to represent both generational cohorts and ethnicities (e.g. Malay Gen Y =1, Chinese Gen Y =2, Malay Boomers =3, Chinese Boomers =4).

In addition, the treatment conditions for event and brand were re-coded similar to the t-test analysis (events: ethnic-based=0, international=1; brands: ethnic-based=0, international=1). As such, it could be worth knowing how ethnicity influenced the generational cohort's preferences on both ethnic-based and international conditions despite being in the same generational cohort. Next, the re-coded data was applied for both ANOVA and SEM analysis.

5.8.1 Analysis of Variance (H8a, b, H9a, b)

This section aimed to examine whether ethnicity has an impact on generational cohort's congruity with social sponsorship programmes and attitudes towards sponsorship and brand loyalty. As discussed in Section 2.3.1.2, despite being in the same generational cohort, ethnicity might influence the variation in the degree of self-congruity with social sponsorship programmes (i.e. event, brand). Hence, ANOVA was used to compare the level of congruence across the four groups (i.e., Gen Y Malays; Boomers Malays; Gen Y Chinese; Boomers Chinese) towards events (e.g. ethnic-based; international) and brands (e.g. ethnic-based; international) as the dependent variables.

One-way between-groups analyses of variance (ANOVA) were conducted to examine the influence of ethnicity in determining the degree of self-congruity towards events and brands (e.g. ethnic-based and international). As mentioned earlier, the respondents were divided into four groups based on their generational cohorts and ethnicities. As illustrated in Table 5.18, the results showed significant difference at the $p < .05$ in the level of congruence on ethnic-based events across the four groups: $F(3,217) = 4.750$, $p = .003$).

As mentioned earlier, the objective of this section was to investigate whether ethnicity had an impact on variation of self-congruity within generational cohort members. It was hypothesised that Chinese Gen Y and Boomers have a greater degree of self-congruity with an ethnic-based event and brand as compared to Malay Gen Y and Boomers. Thus, this study conducted a post-hoc analysis to discover the difference in self-congruity within generational cohort members with events and brands.

The post-hoc analysis was conducted using Tukey HSD. The results found that there was no significant statistical difference ($p = .443$) between Malay Gen Y ($M = 4.41$) and

Chinese Gen Y ($M=4.03$). Similarly, no significant differences were found between Malay Boomers ($M=4.34$) and Chinese Boomers ($M=5.00$) for ethnic-based events ($p=.061$). Thus, H8a is not supported.

In terms of ethnic-based brands, the results indicated that there was a significant difference among the four groups in regard to levels of congruence at $p<.05$ ($F(3, 220) = 3.93, p=.009$). Boomers had a higher mean than Gen Y regardless of ethnicity. Meanwhile, the post-hoc test revealed that there were no significant differences within generational cohort members for Gen Y (Malays, $M=4.04$; Chinese, $M=3.70, p=.485$) and Boomers (Malays, $M=4.38$; Chinese, $M=4.46, p=.988$). Chinese Boomers had a higher mean than Malay Boomers on ethnic-based brands; however, it did not statistically differ between the two ethnic groups. Therefore, H8b is not supported.

Next, this study discusses the influence of ethnic groups on international events and brands. H9a and H9b hypothesised that Malay Gen Y and Boomers have a greater degree of self-congruity with the international events and brands than Chinese Gen Y and Boomers. Generally, the mean difference was significant at the $p<.05$ level across four groups for the international events: $F(3, 226) = 15.62, p=.000$. The post-hoc analysis found that Malay Gen Y ($M=5.29$) were significantly different from Malay Boomers ($M=3.96, p=.000$) and Chinese Boomers ($M=4.03, p=.000$). Similarly, Chinese Gen Y ($M=4.73$) were significantly different from both Boomers (Malays, $p=.008$, Chinese, $p=.016$). However, the differences were not statistically significant within both ethnic groups for Malay and Chinese in the same generational cohort (Gen Y, $p=.071$; Boomers, $p=.990$). Thus, H9a is not supported because both ethnic groups did not significantly differ on international events within the generational cohort.

In the same vein, there were no statistically significant differences for international brands in regard to ethnic groups. The post-hoc analysis discovered that both Boomers (Malays, $M=3.71$; Chinese, $M=3.97, p=.593$) showed no significant difference on international brand. Besides, Malay Gen Y ($M=4.28$) did not statistically differ from Chinese Gen Y ($M=4.03, p=.641$) despite Chinese Gen Y having a lower mean than Malay Gen Y. The results suggest that H9b is not supported since ethnicity did not statistically differ influence both generational cohorts' self-congruity degree for international brands.

Table 5.18: ANOVA analysis for four groups

Generations	Gen Y Malay	Gen Y Chinese	Boomers Malay	Boomers Chinese	F-Value	Sig.
Event (EVT)						
Ethnic-based	4.41	4.03	4.34	5.00	4.75	.003
International	5.29	4.73	3.96	4.03	15.62	.000
Brand (FIR)						
Ethnic-based	4.04	3.70	4.38	4.46	3.93	.009
International	4.28	4.03	3.71	3.97	2.40	.068

Note: Mean value; $p > .001$; $p > .05$

5.8.2 Multi-group analysis on ethnicity (H8c, 89c)

In the previous section, ANOVA analysis was employed to compare the congruence level of the four groups (i.e., Malay Gen Y; Chinese Gen Y; Malay Boomers; Chinese Boomers) towards events and brands (e.g. ethnic-based; international). This section attempts to investigate how the degree of congruity on the social sponsorship programme influenced the attitudes towards social sponsorship and brand loyalty among the groups.

As discussed earlier, multi-group analysis testing in SEM consists of MGCFA and structural model analysis. The model fit of ethnicity's MGCFA was assessed in the same way (i.e. configural, metric, scalar, and residual model) as the generational cohort's MGCFA (see Section 5.7). In the MGCFA assessment, the metric model is important for invariance (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002; Schmitt & Kuljanin, 2008), and the model should achieve full or at least partial invariance before proceeding to the scalar and residual models (Byrne et al., 1989; Hair et al., 2010; Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). Meanwhile, the scalar model should at least achieve partial invariance before continuing to the latent mean and structural model (Hair et al., 2010).

This study assessed MGCFA for events and brands (i.e. ethnic based and international). The results indicated that MGCFA achieved either full or partial invariance for metric and scalar models (see Appendix 5.11, 5.12, 5.13, 5.14). All the MGCFA complied with the recommended threshold proposed by Chen (2007) (see Table 5.10). As a result, this study continues to the structural model to compare between ethnic groups.

This section starts by considering latent mean differences, before moving on to the causal model. As discussed earlier, one of the groups needed to be set as a reference group and this study fixed Malay Gen Y (GM) and Malay Boomers (BM) as reference groups.

In terms of the latent mean of the ethnic-based event, the results indicated that there were no significant differences between both ethnic groups for Gen Y. Malay Gen Y (GM) and Chinese Gen Y (GC) did not statistically differ for latent mean of ethnic-based events ($CR=-1.603$, $p=.109$). In contrast, the study found that the latent mean difference for Malay Boomers (BM) and Chinese Boomers (BC) were statistically different at $p<0.05$ since the critical ratio (CR) value was greater than 1.96, BC had a higher preference on the ethnic-based events than BM ($CR=2.343$). In contrast with the ethnic-based events, the latent mean for both Gen Y samples significantly differed at the 0.001 level and GM perceived a higher level of congruence with the international events than GC ($CR=-2.651$). However, Boomers were not significantly different between ethnic groups for the international events since the CR value was less than 1.96 ($CR=.560$). Next, the causal model of ethnic-based and international events is discussed.

Table 5.19 shows the causal model of ethnic-based and international events on attitude towards social sponsorship. The z-score value showed that Gen Y was not statistically different on $EVT \rightarrow ATS$ for ethnic-based events (GM, $\beta=.36$, R^2 , $ATS=.24$; GC $\beta=.55$, R^2 , $ATS=.32$, $z\text{-score}=.547$). Likewise, both groups of Boomers also showed no significant difference on $EVT \rightarrow ATS$ (BM, $\beta=.77$, R^2 , $ATS=.83$; BC $\beta=.69$, R^2 , $ATS=.70$, $z\text{-score}=-0.912$). Thus, H8c is not supported.

Meanwhile, the z-score revealed that the path between international event and attitude towards social sponsorship was significantly different for Boomers at $p<.10$. Malay Boomers ($\beta=.54$, R^2 , $ATS=.69$) had a more positive attitude towards social sponsorship than Chinese Boomers for the international event condition ($\beta=.22$, R^2 , $ATS=.73$). In contrast with Boomers, both Gen Y's ethnic groups did not statistically differ on $EVT \rightarrow ATS$ (GM, $\beta=.44$, R^2 , $ATS=.61$; GC, $\beta=.71$, R^2 , $ATS=.47$, $z\text{-score}=0.847$). It was hypothesised Malays have a more positive attitude towards social sponsorship for international events. Nevertheless, only Boomers were supported since Malays Boomers had a greater attitude towards social sponsorship than Chinese Boomers. Thus, H9c is partially supported.

Table 5.19: *Ethnicity comparison for ethnic-based and international events (H8c, H9c)*

	Paths	Gen Y Malays	Gen Y Chinese	z-score	Boomers Malays	Boomers Chinese	z-score
		Standardised coefficients	Standardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients	Standardised coefficients	
Ethnic	EVT→ATS	.36	.55	0.547	.77	.69	-0.912
International	EVT→ATS	.44	.71	0.847	.54	.22	- 1.717*

Note: z-score significantly different between two generational cohorts at *** $p < .001$; ** $p < .05$; * $p < .10$

5.8.3 Ethnic-based and international brands (H8d, H9d)

Similar to the previous section, this section starts with the latent mean difference for ethnic-based and international brands, and is followed by causal models. No statistical difference was found in the latent mean for both generational cohorts and ethnic groups since CR were less than 1.96 (Gen Y CR=-1.819 and Boomers CR=.168). In the same vein, the latent mean for international brand explains that Malays and Chinese were not significantly different for both generational cohorts since the CR values were less than 1.96, the acceptable threshold. The result shows that Malays and Chinese were not different from the generational cohort for the international brand. Malay Gen Y perceived a high preference for international brands compared to Gen Y Chinese (CR=-.1057). In contrast, Chinese Boomers had a higher latent mean on international brands than Malay Boomers (CR=1.346). Next, the causal model for the ethnic-based brands is examined.

Table 5.20 shows that the path of ethnic-based brands and attitude towards social sponsorship (FIR→ATS) for Malays ($\beta=.35$, R^2 , ATS=.24) and Chinese Gen Y ($\beta=.01$, R^2 , ATS=.33) was significantly different at $p < .10$ (z-score=-1.666). Malay Gen Y had a stronger FIR→ATS path for ethnic-based brands than Chinese Gen Y. However, both Malays ($\beta=.49$, R^2 , ATS=.82) and Chinese Boomers ($\beta=.34$, R^2 , ATS=.57) were not statistically different for the ethnic-based brands (z-score=-1.078). It was hypothesised that Chinese would have a greater degree of FIR→ATS for ethnic-based brands than Malays. The findings indicate that H8d is not supported despite both of Gen Y's ethnic groups being significantly different on FIR→ATS.

Lastly, the study conducted a multi-group analysis for international brands. The difference in FIR→ATS paths illustrated in Table 5.20 indicated that Gen Y (z-score=2.484) and Boomers (z-score=2.876) were statistically different on the international brands condition across ethnic groups at $p < .05$. As hypothesised, Malay Gen Y ($\beta=.27$, R^2 , ATS=.57) had a higher path relationship between FIR→ATS than Chinese Gen Y ($\beta= -.44$, R^2 , ATS=.64) for international brands. On the other hand, Chinese Boomers ($\beta=.47$, R^2 , ATS=.81) had a greater FIR→ATS path as compared to Malay Boomers ($\beta= -.14$, R^2 , ATS=.79). Thus, H9d is partially supported.

Table 5.20: *Ethnicity comparison for ethnic-based and international brands (H8d, H9d)*

	Paths	Malay Gen Y	Chinese Gen Y	z-score	Malay Boomers	Chinese Boomers	z-score
		Standardised coefficients	Standardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients	Standardised coefficients	
Ethnic	FIR→ATS	.35	.01	-1.666*	.49	.34	-1.078
International	FIR→ATS	.27	-.44	2.484**	-.14	.47	2.876**

Note: z-score significantly different between two generational cohorts at *** $p < .001$; ** $p < .05$; * $p < .10$

5.8.4 Ethnicity and brand loyalty (Additional analysis)

Similar to Section 5.7.4, this current study conducted an additional analysis between attitude towards sponsorship and brand loyalty in regard to ethnic groups. As discussed earlier, the relationship between ATS→LOY is supported (H7).

Generally, the results found that all ethnic groups perceived a positive brand loyalty for all conditions (i.e. events and brands) (Table 5.21). The z-score discovered that the only statistically significant difference between ATS→LOY was international brand for Gen Y at $p < .001$. However, the rest of relationship did not statically differ across ethnic groups.

Table 5.21: *Ethnicity comparison on brand loyalty (events and brands)*

		Paths	Malay Gen Y	Chinese Gen Y	z-score	Malay Boomers	Chinese Boomers	Z-score
			Standardised coefficients	Standardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients	Standardised coefficients	
Event	Ethnic	ATS → LOY	0.64	0.51	-1.499	0.84	0.75	-0.903
	International	ATS → LOY	0.75	0.67	-0.699	0.89	0.84	0.457
Brand	Ethnic	ATS → LOY	0.61	0.56	0.093	0.87	0.82	-1.093
	International	ATS → LOY	0.77	0.68	-2.672***	0.83	0.77	1.141

Note: z-score significantly different between two generational cohorts at *** $p < .001$; ** $p < .05$; * $p < .10$

In summary, the objective of this section was to examine whether ethnicity affects the congruity of generational cohorts with social sponsorship. It was hypothesised that Malays and Chinese have a different self-congruity with social sponsorship programmes (i.e. ethnic-based and international events; ethnic-based and international brand) even if they belonged to the same generational cohort (i.e. Gen Y; Boomers). The results indicated that there were no statistically significant differences across ethnic groups for both generational cohorts. Hence, H8a, b and H9a, b are not supported.

In terms of the relationship between generational cohort congruity and attitude towards social sponsorship, it was hypothesised that Chinese have a greater degree of congruence with an ethnic-based event and brand. On the other hand, Malays have a higher EVT→ATS for the international event and brand. H8c is not supported since the results did not find significant difference between ethnic groups for the ethnic-based event. However, H9c is partially supported since the only significant difference was between Malays and Chinese Boomers for the international event. Malay Boomers had a greater EVT→ATS path for international events than Chinese Boomers.

Meanwhile, H8d is not supported even though Gen Y was statistically different for the ethnic-based brand path. Malay Gen Y had a stronger FIR→ATS for ethnic-based brands as compared to Chinese Gen Y. Finally, H9d is partially supported in that Malay Gen Y had a higher FIR→ATS than Chinese Gen Y for international brands.

5.9 Conclusion

This chapter described single and multi-group data analysis procedures such as preliminary data analysis, confirmatory data analysis, and structural models. The results suggest that four out of nine hypotheses were fully supported (H1, H2, H3, and H7), while H4, H5, and H6 were partially supported. H8 and H9 had mixed results since some of the sub-hypotheses were partially supported or not supported. Table 5.24 is a summary of hypotheses testing.

Interestingly, the study found that both generational cohorts showed a positive attitude on brand loyalty regardless of conditions, whether more or less congruent with their self-congruity. This gives an indication for researchers or marketers to be involved more in social sponsorship. The next chapter discusses the study's findings in more detail.

Table 5.22: *Summary of Hypotheses Testing*

	Hypotheses	Supported
H1a	Boomers will have a greater degree of self-congruity with an ethnic-based event than Gen Y.	Supported
H1b	Gen Y will have a greater degree of self-congruity with an international event than Boomers.	Supported
H2a	Boomers will have a greater degree of self-congruity with an ethnic-based brand than Gen Y.	Supported
H2b	Gen Y will have a greater degree of self-congruity with an international brand than Boomers.	Supported
H3a	Boomers will have a greater degree of self-congruity with a newspaper than Gen Y.	Supported
H3b	Gen Y will have a greater degree of self-congruity with Facebook than Boomers.	Supported
H4	The greater the degree of self-congruity with the event, the more positive the attitude towards the sponsorship.	Supported
H4a	The relationship between self-congruity and attitude towards social sponsorship for an ethnic-based event will be stronger for Boomers than Gen Y.	Supported
H4b	The relationship between self-congruity and attitude towards social sponsorship for an international event will be stronger for Gen Y than Boomers.	Not supported
H5	The greater the degree of self-congruity with the brand, the more positive the attitude towards the sponsorship.	Supported
H5a	The relationship between self-congruity and attitude towards social sponsorship for an ethnic-based brand will be stronger for Boomers than Gen Y.	Supported
H5b	The relationship between self-congruity and attitude towards social sponsorship for an international brand will be stronger for Gen Y than Boomers.	Not supported
H6	The greater the degree of self-congruity with the media, the more positive the attitude towards the sponsorship.	Supported
H6a	The relationship between self-congruity and attitude towards social sponsorship for a newspaper will be stronger for Boomers than Gen Y.	Supported
H6b	The relationship between self-congruity and attitude towards social sponsorship for Facebook will be stronger for Gen Y than Boomers.	Not supported
H7	The more positive the attitude towards the sponsorship, the greater the degree of brand loyalty	Supported
H8a	As a minority ethnic group, Chinese (Boomers and Gen Y) will have a greater degree of self-congruity with an ethnic-based event than Malays (Boomers and Gen Y).	Not supported
H8b	As a minority ethnic group, Chinese (Boomers and Gen Y) will have a greater degree of self-congruity with an ethnic-based brand than Malays (Boomers and Gen Y).	Not supported
H8c	The relationship between self-congruity and attitude towards social sponsorship for an ethnic-based event will be stronger for Chinese (Boomers and Gen Y) than Malays (Boomers and Gen Y).	Not supported
H8d	The relationship between self-congruity and attitude towards social sponsorship for an ethnic-based brand will be stronger for Chinese (Boomers and Gen Y) than Malays (Boomers and Gen Y).	Not supported
H9a	Malays (Boomers and Gen Y) will have a greater degree of self-congruity with an international event than Chinese (Boomers and Gen Y).	Not supported
H9b	Malays (Boomers and Gen Y) will have a greater degree of self-congruity with an international brand than Chinese (Boomers and Gen Y).	Not supported
H9c	The relationship between self-congruity and attitude towards social sponsorship for an international event will be stronger for Malays (Boomers and Gen Y) than Chinese (Boomers and Gen Y).	Partially supported
H9d	The relationship between self-congruity and attitude towards social sponsorship for an international brand will be stronger for Malays (Boomers and Gen Y) than Chinese (Boomers and Gen Y).	Partially supported

CHAPTER 6 DISCUSSION

Chapter 6 has four sections. The first section discusses the results of the generational cohorts' self-congruity with events, brands, and types of media. Then it discusses generational cohorts' self-congruity that affects their attitude towards sponsorship. The third section mainly describes the findings around attitudes towards sponsorship that influence brand loyalty. The final section discusses the findings around ethnicity that had an impact on social sponsorship.

6.1 Generational cohorts and self-congruity (event, brand, and types of media)

This section describes the findings regarding the impact of generational cohorts on social sponsorship programmes' congruity that consists of events, brands, and types of media. As mentioned in the previous chapter, the aim of this analysis was to identify events, brands, and types of media that exhibited a high self-congruity among generational cohorts. Previous studies suggested that the generational cohorts' profiles were distinct since each generational cohort experienced different defining moments (e.g. historical events, social turmoil, economic changes, and technological innovation) during their coming of age (e.g. aged 17-23) (Kritz & Arsenault, 2006; Mannheim, 1952; Noble & Schewe, 2003; Ryder, 1965; Schuman & Scott, 1989). Hence, this current study expected that both Gen Y and Boomers might have a different self-congruity with events, brands, and types of media. The results revealed that hypotheses H1, H2 and H3 were supported for generational cohorts and their effect on self-congruity with the event, brand and media. The next section discusses the details of the findings.

6.1.1 Generational cohorts' congruity with events and brands (H1a, b, H2a, b)

This study's results show that both Gen Y and Boomers have a different degree of self-congruity with events and brands. As predicted, Boomers had high self-congruity with respect to events and brands related to ethnicity, while Gen Y showed a high congruity with international events and brands, meaning H1a, H1b, H2a and H2b were supported. As mentioned in the literature review, defining moments experienced by individuals during their formative years influence their generational cohort profiles (e.g. characteristics, preferences, and attitude) (Mannheim, 1952; Noble & Schewe, 2003; Ryder, 1965).

These findings further support the idea of generational cohort profiles as being able to contribute to the differences in self-congruity degrees among generational cohorts. Boomer respondents perceived a high congruity with ethnic-based events and brands as compared to Gen Y. This finding suggests that Boomer respondents have a higher preference for events with close proximity (i.e. ethnic-based) than with distant proximity events (i.e. international). It can be argued that they experienced significant events during their formative years that might have influenced them to perceive a higher degree of congruity with ethnic-based events and brands than Gen Y.

External events (e.g. NEP Policy) shaped Boomers' profiles so that they became more ethnocentric and sceptical of other ethnic groups than Gen Y. They tend to feel that they are discriminated against and receive unfair treatment by other groups whether socially or economically. This suggests that Boomers seem to feel that ethnicity-related issues were important and relevant in influencing their self-congruity.

On the other hand, a number of reasons have been suggested as to why Gen Y preferred international events and brands over ethnic-based ones. The defining moments may have had an impact in determining Gen Y's profile. The results showed that Gen Y respondents perceived more congruence with respect to international events than with ethnic-based events. Gen Y experienced significant events (e.g. the internet era, 1Malaysia concept⁹, and Tsunami in Aceh) that translated to their being more educated, ethnic tolerant, technology savvy, and concerned about democracy and human rights (see Section 2.3.3).

One of the possible reasons is that the defining moments probably influence Gen Y respondents to embrace more ethnic tolerance than Boomers. Besides, since they experienced globalisation (Bucic et al., 2012), Gen Y may be more familiar with international charity-related events. They are also likely to gather information from the Internet and social networking sites (SNS) that encourages them to be more involved in events or community work. These facts support the findings that Gen Y is more concerned about international events than ethnic-based events.

With regard to brands, Gen Y were exposed to digital technologies (e.g. Internet, SNS) that made them more technology savvy and able to access information without any boundaries. It can be argued that the Internet exposed them to international media (Fam et al., 2008). Hence, it was likely that they would embrace globalisation and have more congruence with international brands than with ethnic-based brands (Bucic et al., 2012; Carpenter et al., 2012; Teo et al., 2011). Therefore, it is perhaps not surprising that Gen Y had a high congruity with international brands as compared to ethnic-based brands since the external events in their lives shaped their profiles. The findings thus manage to

⁹ The 1Malaysia is a concept to edify unity among the multi-racial Malaysian citizens, based on a number of significant values which should be practised by all Malaysians.

confirm that international brands are more likely than ethnic-based brands to encounter congruence with Gen Y.

The evidence above suggests that events and brands related to ethnic groups are more likely to be in congruence with Boomer consumers. Meanwhile, Gen Y seems to be more in congruence with international events and brands. Besides, the generational cohorts' profiles further help to establish their self-congruity since both generational cohorts demonstrated differences in relation to events and brands. This supports the proposition of Grau and Folse (2007) who claim that consumers will perceive more congruence with respect to events or brands that are personally relevant to their self-congruity.

6.1.2 Generational cohorts with types of media (H3a, b)

H3a posits that Boomers have a higher self-congruity with printed newspaper, while, H3b hypothesised that Gen Y has a greater degree with Facebook. As expected, Boomers are more likely to show a high self-congruity with regard to printed newspaper (i.e. non-digital media), whereas, Gen Y has more congruity with respect to Facebook (i.e. digital media). This result suggests that both generational cohorts have a different degree of self-congruity based on the types of media (e.g. digital and non-digital media). This result has extended the previous findings which indicated that Gen Y preferred digital media to non-digital, while Boomers favoured non-digital media (e.g. Chappuis et al., 2011; Harmon et al., 1999; Keane & Fam, 2005; Moore, 2012; Obal & Kunz, 2013).

A plausible explanation for this is that Gen Y is a Digital Native generation who grew up with digital technologies (e.g. Internet, SNS) and is fluent with digital language as compared to the Digital Immigrant generation (e.g. Boomers) (Prensky, 2001, 2004). With regard to external events, Malaysian Gen Y experienced the emerging growth of the Internet as their defining moment. Gen Y exposed to the Internet and different types of social media.

It can be speculated that external events (e.g. the emergence of the Internet) had an impact on the generational cohort's congruity, especially on media preferences. For instance, Gen Y might feel more congruent with Facebook since it is a digital

technology, unlike printed newspapers. Gen Y is more likely to prefer digital technologies as media of communication than Boomers since they grew up in the digital age. In contrast, Boomers will probably experience difficulty in adapting to digital technologies since they do not belong to the Digital Native generation. Hence, this might be the reason that Boomers associate a greater self-congruity with printed newspapers than Facebook. This finding suggests that the choice of media is important in social sponsorship, especially when catering to different generational cohorts. It can therefore be argued that social sponsorship programmes will get more attention from consumers if the media is congruent with the target consumers.

In short, these results suggest that ethnic-based events and brands, as well as non-digital media (e.g. newspapers) will probably be an ideal social sponsorship programme combination if marketers target Boomers. Conversely, this current study believes that international events, brands and digital media (e.g. Facebook) are more likely to be a suitable combination for Gen Y consumers. One of the main findings of this study is the discovery that GCT influences consumer self-congruity. The results found that external events experienced by consumers affected generational cohorts' degree of self-congruity with events, brands, and media. The point is that generational cohort profiles are distinct from other generational cohorts since each of them experienced different external events. This suggests that consumer segmentation based on a generational cohort profile may be useful for identifying consumers' self-congruity, especially in social sponsorship programmes. Besides, these findings provide further evidence that generational cohorts' profiles will possibly help to establish their self-congruity with events, brands and types of media. Therefore, GCT seems to be the predictor for identifying consumers' self-congruity that leads to events, brands, and media congruence among the generational cohort.

6.2 Generational cohorts' congruity and attitudes towards social sponsorship

This section aims to discuss the influence of generational cohorts' congruity on attitude towards social sponsorship (H4, H5, and H6). The previous section provided some insights regarding generational cohorts' profiles being able to influence the self-congruity degree in relation to events, brands and media. It was hypothesised that generational cohorts' congruity with events, brands and media has an impact on attitudes towards social sponsorship. Next, this current study presents an in-depth

discussion of the results of generational cohorts' congruity and their attitudes towards sponsorship.

6.2.1 Event congruity and attitudes towards the social sponsorship (EVT→ATS)

The results indicate that respondents have a greater degree of self-congruity with event lead to positive attitude towards the social sponsorship. This finding suggests that respondents with a high self-congruity with an event develop a favourable attitude towards the social sponsorship. This supports hypothesis H4.

As mentioned earlier, the objective of study was to explore the differences of ATS between Boomer and Gen Y generational cohorts in regard to ethnic-based and international events. The results discovered that ethnic-based events are more congruent with Boomers, while Gen Y possesses a high congruity with international events. H4a and H4b hypothesise that Boomers and Gen Y have different attitudes towards social sponsorship for ethnic-based and international events. The findings show that Boomers have a stronger attitude towards the social sponsorship with ethnic-based events than Gen Y (i.e. supporting H4a). As discussed in Section 6.1.1, ethnic-based events seem to be more congruent with Boomers than Gen Y. This might be the reason why Boomers perceive a greater attitude towards the social sponsorship with ethnic-based events than Gen Y. One interpretation is that the partnership between ethnic-based events is more congruent with Boomers' points of view. As a result, it transfers a greater attitude towards the sponsorships as compared to Gen Y. However, Gen Y may feel that ethnic-based events are less relevant and are not intended to target them since the events are less congruent with them. This indicates a reason why the effect of congruence on attitude for Gen Y is less for the sponsorships involved. The findings suggest that Boomers might believe that ethnic-based events are more congruent with them, thus transferring a favourable attitude towards the sponsorship. Being consistent with the literature, the findings suggest that consumers' congruence with events plays an important role in determining a favourable or non-favourable attitude (Gupta & Pirsch, 2006; Robinson et al., 2012). It has been argued that Boomers might feel that the ethnic-based events are relevant to their self-congruity, so it affects their attitude towards the social sponsorship. This result confirms that Boomers' self-congruity with the ethnic-based events leads to more positive feelings towards the social sponsorship.

Meanwhile, H4b posits that the attitude towards the social sponsorship for Gen Y is stronger than Boomers for international events. Despite Gen Y having a higher ATS than Boomers, it is somewhat surprising that both generational cohorts did not differ statistically on ATS. Thus, H4b is not supported.

Interestingly, this study suggests that both generational cohorts possess positive ATS regardless whether the event is ethnic-based or international. The positive results imply that both generational cohorts feel that the child poverty cause is more important to them without necessarily being concerned about the conditions (i.e. congruent or incongruent). This could be possibly explained that in spite of an event being less congruent with consumers; it is unlikely for them to respond to the event negatively. This finding is in line with Gupta and Pirsch (2006) who claim that the nature of the event itself (i.e. child poverty) will probably contribute to a positive attitude in consumers. Consumers might feel more socially responsible to the event despite its irrelevance to their self-congruity.

These findings overall indicate that both generational cohorts have a positive ATS even though having varying levels of self-congruity with event (i.e. high or low). This study still believes that a generational cohort's self-congruity is important as the relationship is stronger, particularly for Boomers and ethnic-based conditions. However, that is not the case for international events.

Based on the finding (H4), consumers are more concerned about events than congruity level as long as they can contribute to charitable activities. The results suggest that a less congruent event can achieve a positive attitude even though the level of the attitude is slightly lower than a high congruency event. The finding is similar to Lafferty (2007) who argued that consumers' respond a positive attitude despite being incongruent with an event or brand. This study shows a good indication for a charitable organisation to convince brands of these findings and encourage them to be more involved in social sponsorship. The findings also provide an alternative for brands to be involved in a less congruent event if they can't collaborate with a high congruent event since consumers are more likely to have a positive attitude despite less congruency.

6.2.2 Brand congruity and attitudes towards the social sponsorship (FIR→ATS)

H5 posits that generational cohorts' congruity with a brand influences their attitude towards social sponsorship (H5). In general, the results of this study support the hypothesis since the relationship between generational cohorts' congruity with the brand significantly influences the attitude towards the social sponsorship. For the overall respondents, this study discovers a positive relationship between generational cohorts' congruity with the brand and ATS.

In terms of multi-group comparison between Boomers and Gen Y, H5a states that Boomers are assumed to have a stronger ATS with ethnic-based brands (H5a), whereas, Gen Y has a higher ATS with international brands (H5b). As predicted, this finding suggests that Boomers have a more favourable attitude towards sponsorship than Gen Y for ethnic-based brands. Interestingly, Boomers and Gen Y did not differ statistically in terms of their attitude towards social sponsorship with international brands. The findings, however, are contradictory to the generational cohort self-congruity results discussed earlier (see Section 6.1.1), where Gen Y had a high self-congruity with international brands and Boomers had a high self-congruity with ethnic-based brands.

There are several possible explanations for this result. Firstly, the findings showed that Gen Y had a less favourable attitude towards the social sponsorship on ethnic-based brands; however it was not significantly different on the international brands condition. In spite of Gen Y being hypothesised to be more congruent with international brands, the results of this study suggest that they do not possess a more favourable attitude towards social sponsorship, especially related to international brands. It can be speculated that Gen Y respondents are more likely to be concerned about the motive of the collaboration between a brand and an event. It is possible that they are more sceptical towards a brand's motive to sponsor an event. They might feel that the brand involved in social sponsorship aims to obtain some benefits (e.g. reputation, branding) rather than just for an altruistic motive (e.g. socially responsible) (Dean, 2003; Webb & Mohr, 1998).

In addition, previous studies have indicated that Gen Y consumers were difficult to influenced and reach compared to other generational cohorts (Debevec, Schewe, Madden, & Diamond, 2013; Gardiner et al., 2013; Hyllegarda et al., 2011). Gen Y were also viewed as being more knowledgeable consumers than previous generational

cohorts. Having been exposed to the digital media (e.g. Internet, SNS), they have become information savvy. They tend to read and access third party information such as forums, consumer feedback and discussions on brands rather than relying on marketing activities conducted by brands (e.g. advertisements). Therefore, it is more difficult for brands to influence Gen Y than Boomers.

It is somewhat surprising that despite Boomers showing a more favourable attitude towards social sponsorship provided by ethnic-based brands, Gen Y respondents still demonstrate a positive attitude towards ethnic-based brands compared to international brands. However, this result has not previously been described. It is inconsistent with the literature that posits that Gen Y demonstrate an unfavourable attitude towards brands which are incongruent with their self-congruity (Escalas & Bettman, 2005; Sprott et al., 2009; Xue & Phelps, 2013). This finding further suggests that, despite embracing global culture, Gen Y had a more positive attitude towards sponsorship associated with ethnic-based brands than with international brands. The path estimate between ethnic-based and international brands showed that Gen Y was stronger for ethnic-based than international brands.

In addition, the types of the brands might play a pivotal role in determining the attitude towards the sponsorship. One possible explanation for the inconsistency between this study's findings and those of the previous studies is that the current study offers two types of brands: ethnic-based and international brands. As predicted, Gen Y seems to be less congruent with ethnic-based brands since they are more ethnic tolerant than Boomers. However, Gen Y perceived the ethnic-based brands with a more positive attitude than international brands. The findings of this study suggest that it is unlikely for Gen Y to show a favourable attitude to international brands,. It can therefore be assumed that Gen Y believe that the 1Malaysia concept is one of the external events experienced by Gen Y and that it could have influenced them to be more concerned about national brands rather than foreign brands. Hence, this study suggests that exposure to external events might have led Gen Y to be more likely to have a more favourable attitude towards sponsorship by national brands.

Similarly, Gen Y respondents may have more nationalism and naturally prefer local products than international ones. This notion is corroborated by Tamam (2010)'s finding, which suggests that Gen Y is more likely to be concerned about national

agendas than racial ones. However, the absence of national brands in this study allows Gen Y to prefer ethnic-based brands instead of international brands. It can thus be suggested that a comparison between ethnic-based and national brands will probably give a different result. They may more incline towards national than international brands. In future investigations, it might be possible to investigate ethnic-based and national brands that participate in social sponsorship.

6.2.3 Media congruity and attitudes towards social sponsorship (MED→ATS)

The general hypothesis for H6 posits that generational cohorts' congruity with media significantly influences ATS. H6 is supported since the finding is that generational cohorts' congruity with media positively influences ATS. Next, the present study compared two types of media used in promoting social sponsorship programmes (i.e. newspaper and Facebook).

Overall, the findings showed that greater media congruence leads to more positive attitudes, supporting hypothesis H6a. More specifically, the finding shows that Boomers have a higher favourable attitude towards the sponsorship of social sponsorship programmes communicated or promoted via newspapers. Meanwhile, H6b posits that the relationship between self-congruity and attitude towards sponsorship for Facebook will be stronger for Gen Y than Boomers. However, the results show that both generational cohorts did not significantly differ on Facebook, hence, H6b is not supported.

This finding suggests that generational cohort congruity tends to have an impact on consumers' attitudes towards the types of media used in social sponsorship. Despite previous studies suggesting that both generational cohorts had their media preferences that may influence a favourable or non-favourable attitude (e.g. Chappuis et al., 2011; Harmon et al., 1999; Keane & Fam, 2005; Moore, 2012; Obal & Kunz, 2013), the result shows that it is only applicable for a congruence relationship between Boomers and printed newspaper.

As discussed in the earlier section (see Section 6.1.2), Gen Y had more self-congruity with Facebook as compared to printed newspapers. However, this did not translate into their attitude towards the sponsorship in regards to the Facebook condition. A number

of reasons have been advanced as to why Gen Y's congruence with Facebook did not differ statistically and had a stronger sponsorship attitude than Boomers. Firstly, Facebook may not be the main social media among Gen Y respondents. Nowadays, social media diversity is causing Gen Y to focus more on other social media platforms than Facebook (e.g. Instagram, Twitter). Another reason is, Gen Y respondents may be concerned about the privacy issues that Facebook has recently been embroiled in. There are a number of cases related to Facebook privacy breaches that could affect users' perceptions of Facebook. Moreover, Gen Y seems to prefer targeted and specific social media such as Whatsapp, Viber, WeChat, and Snapchat. Hence, this may be the reason why Gen Y did not show a high degree of attitude towards the sponsorship with Facebook.

Surprisingly, the path estimates for both types of media were lower than the other two constructs (i.e. event; brand). It can be speculated that respondents may be more concerned about evaluating an event than media. Media are only a vehicle in promoting social sponsorship; however, a respondent may feel that it is not part of the partnership. Besides, this study measures an overall attitude towards the sponsorship that consists of a combination of constructs and not a single construct.

It seems that respondents' emphasis was heavier on the two dominant constructs: events and brands. Both are more important and have an impact on respondents' evaluation in social sponsorship. These results suggest that media may be less important than the other two constructs in determining the social sponsorship effect. It is likely that media was not related to evaluating social sponsorship programmes and had less effect than events and brands. Therefore, this study suggests that events and brands are the main constructs that influence generational cohort attitudes towards sponsorship rather than media.

In summary, all the hypotheses and predictions for Boomers are supported (H4a, H5a, H6a) while those for Gen Y are not (H4b, H5b and H6b). This finding is in line with (Gardiner et al., 2013) who discovered that Boomers are easier to reach and more predictable in their profiles than Gen Y. Interestingly, the effect of congruence on attitude was stronger, especially for ethnic-based conditions than for international events and brands. Boomers showed stronger attitudes towards sponsorship for both ethnic-based conditions (i.e. event; brand). This suggests that Boomer respondents are

more likely to be influenced by ethnic-related events and brands as compared to Gen Y. This could be a good indicator especially for Boomers as target consumers.

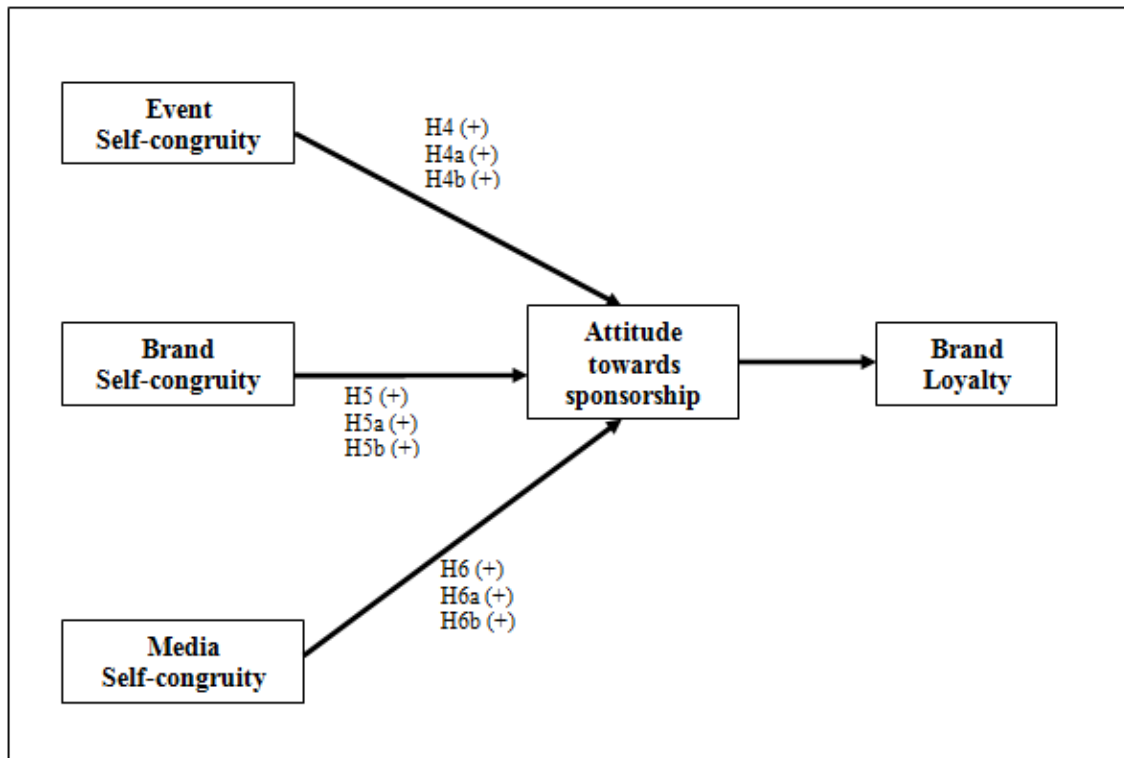


Figure 6.1: Relationship between generational cohorts' congruity and attitudes towards social sponsorship.

6.3 Attitudes towards social sponsorship and brand loyalty (ATS→LOY)

As mentioned in the literature review, consumers demonstrated a favourable attitude towards sponsorship that elicits a greater brand loyalty and equity (Mazodier & Merunka, 2011; Olson, 2010; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006).

Overall the findings showed that more positive attitudes lead to greater loyalty consistent with existing literature (Mazodier & Merunka, 2011; Olson, 2010; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006), meaning that H7 is supported. Interestingly, the results show that there was no significant difference between Boomers and Gen Y in terms of brand loyalty. This finding indicates that both generational cohorts perceive a positive attitude which leads towards brand loyalty regardless of the conditions involved (e.g. more or less congruent). Besides, this study reveals that less congruent social sponsorship conditions still obtain positive brand loyalty indirectly through attitude. Ethnic-based or

international brands that provide social sponsorship are more likely to transfer positive brand loyalty.

There are several possible explanations for this result. Firstly, social sponsorship as a context will probably influence the findings since current consumers are more aware of community-based activities and events (Randle & Dolnicar, 2011). Despite some consumers' being sceptical about a brand's motives, this study's respondents might feel that this is one of the initiatives for the brand to share the brand's profit and to give it back to the community. This finding suggests that a brand which is involved in a social sponsorship programme is more likely to demonstrate an altruistic value than brands in other sponsorship contexts. Consumers seem to believe that a brand which provides social sponsorship is involved directly in helping the community. This notion is supported by Meenaghan and Shipley (1999), who found that consumers believed that a brand that participated in social sponsorship had less exploitation as compared to other commercial sponsorships such as sports and the arts. As a consequence, consumers tend to show their support to the brand and yield positive responses.

These findings imply that this is an opportunity for a brand to collaborate in social sponsorship. This is because a collaboration with a social sponsorship programme will probably generate a positive image (e.g. admiration, concern, and caring) from a consumer perspective (Meenaghan & Shipley, 1999). Moreover, it is also possible that consumers will show some support to the brand so that it may continue to collaborate and sponsor other charitable activities in the future. These results support the previous findings that revealed that consumers were more likely to return goodwill and show a willingness to switch to and purchase brands that sponsored charitable causes as compared to non-sponsored brands (Meenaghan & Shipley, 1999; Smith & Alcorn, 1991; Strahilevitz, 1999; Strahilevitz & Myers, 1998).

With regard to social sponsorship's benefits, it is apparent that this finding suggests that social sponsoring would likely produce positive outcomes regardless of congruence, especially on brand loyalty. These findings suggest that charitable organisations might have an opportunity to approach and encourage their potential sponsors to collaborate in social sponsorship programmes. Previous research mainly focused on consumers' congruity (i.e. less or more) with social sponsorship that had an impact on either positive or negative outcomes. If consumers feel that their self-congruity is congruent

with social sponsorship, there is a possibility for them to produce a favourable outcome. In contrast, less congruent social sponsorship will be unlikely to result in a favourable outcome. The finding helps a brand to be more involved without being worried about any negative outcomes (i.e. brand loyalty) as a result of the less congruent relationship in social sponsorship. This finding corroborates the ideas of Kim et al. (2014) and Lafferty (2007), who suggested that participation in social sponsorship can improve consumers' perception towards a brand regardless of the level of their congruence. It can therefore be assumed that consumers are more likely to evaluate the social sponsorship itself and might feel more socially responsible without thinking about their own self-congruity.

Secondly, culture could affect the discrepancy of the findings. The literature relating to self-congruity suggests that consumers who perceive a high self-congruity with a brand or a sponsorship will transfer a favourable outcome (Escalas & Bettman, 2005; Randle & Dolnicar, 2011; Sirgy et al., 1997; Sirgy et al., 2008). This might suggest that social sponsorship that is more congruent with consumers is more likely to obtain high brand loyalty. However, the findings of the current study partially support the results of previous research. The study's results show that both generational cohorts ultimately demonstrate positive brand loyalty for all social sponsorship conditions.

Even though less congruent relationships still transferred a positive outcome, the result showed that congruent relationships engendered a more favourable outcome especially for Boomers and sponsorship attitude (e.g. ethnic-based events and brands). Hence, a generational cohort's congruence relationship is still important, but not all the time (e.g. international events and brands conditions).

This could be explained by the respondents of the study who are from Malaysia, and who embraced an eastern and collectivistic cultural country. This is logical since most countries with collectivistic cultures are more concerned about society and community. These findings are consistent with the finding of Escalas and Bettman (2005), which suggest that individualistic culture respondents show a more negative perception towards brands incongruent with their self-concept than collectivistic respondents.

In addition, the respondents of this present study are more likely to consider the community even though the social sponsorship is less congruent with their self-

congruity. It is possible that the respondents are more concerned about helping others than about their self-congruity. Individualistic cultural consumers may embrace the self-congruity concept more than collectivistic cultural consumers (Sung & Choi, 2010). This finding implies that collectivist cultural consumers may feel that supporting events is a priority for them. This result supports the previous research that suggests collectivist cultural consumers show more willingness to donate and a more favourable attitude towards donation-based promotions as compared to individualistic cultural consumers (Laufer et al., 2010; Winterich & Barone, 2011). This suggests that respondents perceive positive brand loyalty regardless of their self-congruity levels.

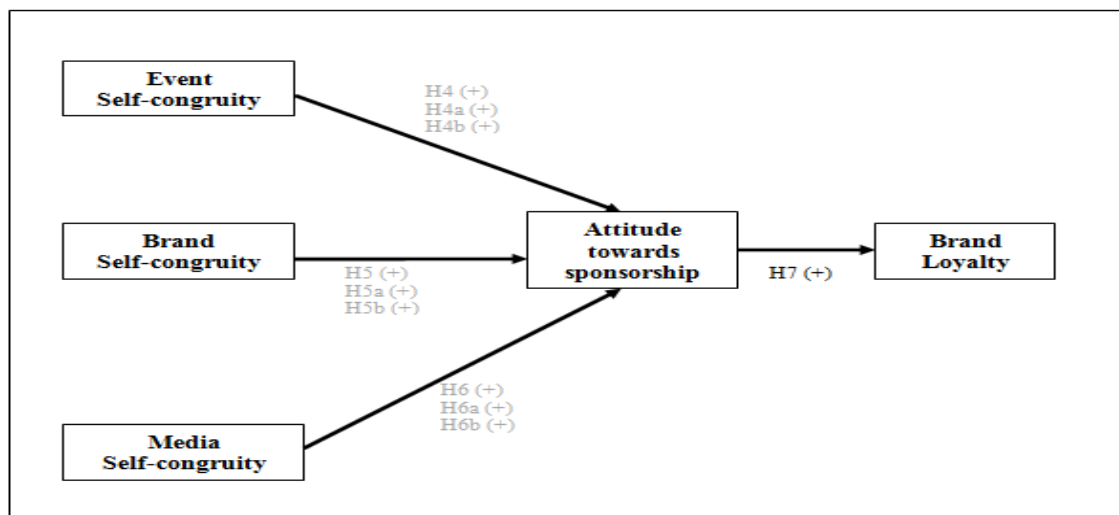


Figure 6.2: Relationship between attitude towards the social sponsorship and brand loyalty

6.4 Ethnicity and social sponsorship

This section discusses the effects of ethnicity in influencing generational cohort members in terms of social sponsorship programmes (i.e. events, brands) and attitude towards social sponsorship (H8, H9). Generational cohort theory (GCT) suggests that each generational cohort shares common profiles (e.g. characteristics, values, and attitudes) among generational cohort members developed by the external events that individuals experienced during their coming of age (Mannheim, 1952; Noble & Schewe, 2003; Ryder, 1965). Hence, an individual has similar profiles to other generational cohort members and the profiles will be distinct compared to other generational cohorts. However, it could be argued that ethnicity might have an impact on generational cohorts' profiles especially in multicultural societies.

This study hypothesised that the more distinctive group (i.e. numerical minority, Chinese) has greater congruence and shows a greater attitude towards social sponsorship with ethnic-based events and brands than the more non-distinctive group (i.e. numerical majority, Malays). In contrast, Malays are hypothesised have more congruence with international events and brands as well as higher ATS than Chinese. Next, the results are discussed in detail.

6.4.1 Ethnicities' congruity with events and brands (H8a, b, H9a, b)

Generational cohort members, Malays or Chinese, did not statistically differ in regards to self-congruity with events and brands. Both ethnic groups responded in a similar fashion. The results conform to GCT's point of view, where generational cohort members share common profiles and will respond similarly to events and brands that are congruent with them despite being from different ethnic groups (i.e. Malays, Chinese) (Motta et al., 2002; Schewe & Noble, 2000). Thus, H8 (a, b) and H9 (a, b) were not supported. For these hypotheses, the findings did not find ethnicity to have an impact on responses among a generational cohort member. As a result, GCT plays an important role in identifying events and brands congruent with generational cohorts at this stage.

6.4.2 Ethnicities and attitudes towards social sponsorship (ethnic-based and international events) – H8c, H9c

H8c posits that Chinese Gen Y and Boomers have a greater ATS with ethnic-based events since Chinese are the more distinctive group as compared to Malays. However, the hypothesis is not supported since Chinese and Malays were not statistically different across generational cohorts. The results show that Chinese Gen Y had a higher EVT→ATS than Gen Y Malays; however, it did not differ significantly between both groups. One possible reason is that Malay and Chinese Gen Y are the digital native generation (Prensky, 2001), and have been exposed to digital media. This leads them to be more ethnically tolerant than previous generational cohorts (Tamam et al., 2006), since they are experienced with globalisation (Bucic et al., 2012) and international media (Fam et al., 2008). That might be the reason why Gen Y did not exhibit a different attitude towards social sponsorship for ethnic-based events.

Moreover, this finding implies that distinctive theory may not influence Chinese in their evaluation of ethnic-based events, especially for Boomers since both ethnic groups had a large effect size (Cohen, 1988). The different relationship between EVT→ATS only occurred between generational cohorts (i.e. Boomers and Gen Y) rather than within ethnic groups (i.e. Malays and Chinese Gen Y; Malays and Chinese Boomers). For instance, H4a found that Boomers and Gen Y are statistically different across groups in regards to ethnic-based events. It could be argued that Boomers in Malaysia experienced external events such as the New Economic Policy that might contribute to them being more concerned with ethnic-based events. The policy aimed to reduce economic disparity among ethnic groups and to eradicate poverty (Ahmed, Mahajar, & Alon, 2005; Embong, 1996); however, it only focused on one particular ethnic group. It also created a negative perception among other ethnic groups (Ahmed et al., 2005; Lee, 1988). According to GCT, generational cohort profiles were shaped by the external events experienced by the generational cohort member, and each member tends to share a common profile (e.g. Noble & Schewe, 2003; Ryder, 1965; Schewe et al., 2000). It might be a possible reason why Malay and Chinese Boomers are not different when it comes to ethnic-based events. Hence, both Malay and Chinese Boomers will respond positively regardless whether they belong to a minority or majority ethnic groups.

Meanwhile, H9c states that Malays Gen Y and Boomer have a greater ATS on international events than Chinese Gen Y and Boomers. The results of this study indicate that Malay and Chinese Gen Y do not significantly differ in the relationship between EVT→ATS. In contrast, Boomers are statistically different between both ethnic groups, whereas Malay Boomers had a higher ATS than Chinese Boomers. This finding somewhat supported the hypothesis since Chinese Boomers as a minority ethnic group might have less concern for international events than a majority ethnic group (i.e. Malays Boomers) (Appiah, 2004; Appiah et al., 2013; McGuire et al., 1978). As a result, both Malay and Chinese Boomers responded differently on attitude towards social sponsorship in regards to international events.

6.4.3 Ethnicities and attitude towards social sponsorship (ethnic-based and international brands) - H8d, 9d

Interestingly, the results of this study indicate mixed findings for both ethnic groups (i.e. Malays and Chinese) pertaining to attitude towards social sponsorship with brands. H8d posits that Chinese Gen Y and Boomers have a greater ATS with ethnic-based brands than Malays. Similar to H8c, the results show those Boomers did not statistically differ for ethnic-based brands. On the other hand, Malay and Chinese Gen Y were statistically different on ATS for ethnic-based brands.

Previous researchers found that distinctive groups (i.e. minority ethnic group) were more salient, attached and concerned with their ethnic group (Appiah, 2004; Appiah et al., 2013; Deshpandé & Stayman, 1994; Grier & Deshpandé, 2001; McGuire et al., 1978), and responded more positively to ethnic cues than majority ethnic groups (Appiah & Liu, 2009; Grier & Brumbaugh, 1999; Grier et al., 2006; Martin et al., 2004). Interestingly, this finding contradicted the hypothesis which suggests Chinese Gen Y should have a higher ATS than Malay Gen Y for ethnic-based brands. This suggests that despite Malay Gen Y being a numerical majority ethnic group, they perceived a higher attitude towards social sponsorship related to ethnic-based brands. It could be argued that Malays are less socioeconomic and less wealthy than Chinese. For instance, at 20% of the total population, Chinese in Malaysia are a minority ethnic group. However, they are wealthier and contribute more to the Malaysian economy than the majority group, Malays.

Besides, being a majority ethnic group with lower socioeconomic status as compared to other ethnic groups might put some pressure on Malays. This suggests that they are more likely to be concerned and attached to ethnic-based brands than Chinese. These factors might contribute to Gen Y Malays having a higher ATS with ethnic-based brands. Similar to Grier & Deshpandé's (2001) findings, despite being a majority ethnic group, Blacks in South Africa still preferred marketing cues associated with their ethnic group since they had less socioeconomic as compared to the minority (i.e. White). Hence, there are number of factors that need to be considered (e.g. socioeconomic) instead of distinctive factors when it comes to the developing country context.

In terms of GCT, despite being from the same generational cohorts, respondents had different attitudes towards social sponsorship on ethnic-based and international brands. This finding suggests that ethnicity have an impact on a variation of decision making among a generational cohort members. It also suggests that a number of factors that need to be considered in determining generational cohort profiles, especially in multicultural context.

H9d posits that Malays Gen Y and Boomers) have a greater ATS with international brands than Chinese Gen Y and Boomers. This study discovered a few interesting findings. Firstly, the results reveal that both Malays and Chinese Boomers show a statistical difference regarding international brands. The findings demonstrate that the relationship between FIR→ATS is stronger for Chinese than Malay Boomers at $p < .05$. This suggests that ethnicity has an impact on international brands for Boomers. It can be argued that Boomer respondents experienced the National Economic Policy (NEP) as a defining moment that affected their profiles (e.g. characteristics, attitudes and preferences). As mentioned earlier, (see Section 6.1.1), the introduction of NEP had received a negative perception from Malaysians since the policy seemed to focus only on one particular ethnic group (i.e. Malays). The implementation policy encouraged Malays to be more involved in businesses and the government expected at least 30% of corporate equity to be owned by Malays (see Appendix 2.1). This is a plausible reason why the Chinese Boomer respondents exhibited a more favourable ATS concerning international brands.

Chinese Boomers are more likely to favour foreign brands rather than local brands. They probably have family ties in foreign countries other than Malaysia. This finding further suggests that Chinese Boomers will probably look for an alternative rather just a local brand; hence, they opt for an international brand as a preferred brand.

It seems that Boomers of a different ethnicity have a different perception in terms of international events (H9c) and brands despite being in the same generational cohort. Boomers exhibited a statistically different attitude towards social sponsorship that is related to international events and brands. This would suggest that ethnicity has played a pivotal role in the variations of Boomers with regard to international conditions (i.e. event and brand). It can be concluded that the impact of ethnicity on Boomers is greater on international rather than ethnic-based conditions. This finding adds to the literature

that micro socialisation processes (e.g. ethnicity) are more likely to influence an individual's self-congruity and induce variations of generational cohort profiles despite experiencing similar external events (Gardiner et al., 2013; Noble & Schewe, 2003; Valentine & Powers, 2013). However, this study suggests that generational cohort profiles still play an important role in differentiating generational cohorts (e.g. Boomers and Gen Y), especially for Boomers since they show a more positive attitude for both ethnic-based events and brands than Gen Y.

Surprisingly, the findings show that Gen Y respondents are significantly different for both brand conditions (i.e. ethnic-based and international) in their attitude towards sponsorship. This study's results demonstrate that both ethnic groups are different with regard to their sponsorship attitude. This study shows that Malay Gen Y's have a higher sponsorship attitude than Chinese Gen Ys for both ethnic-based and international brands. What is surprising is that Chinese Gen Ys have more negative attitudes towards international brands that are involved in social sponsorships. This finding however, is contradictory to previous research findings which suggested that Gen Y exhibited a more favourable response concerning international brands (Carpenter et al., 2012; Teo et al., 2011). A number of reasons have been advanced as to why Chinese Gen Y had a more negative sponsorship attitude for brand conditions, specifically international brands.

One of the possible reasons is that Gen Y Chinese may be more sceptical than Malays with regard to a brand's motive when it participates in social sponsorship. It can, therefore, be argued that a majority of Chinese are involved in businesses as entrepreneurs and Gen Y Chinese may have more knowledge and be more familiar with the business environment. They probably know the brand's motive in sponsoring an event and may feel that the brand has other agendas than altruistic ones, especially for international brands. Similarly, Webb and Mohr (1998) concluded that being sceptical about the motive of a brand sponsoring an event might contribute to a less favourable response from consumers. Therefore, Chinese Gen Y demonstrated a less favourable sponsorship attitude towards brand conditions as compared to Malay Gen Y.

Besides, it can be speculated that the absence of national-type brands in this study may explain why Chinese Gen Y demonstrated a less favourable attitude towards the brands. Both types of brands (i.e. ethnic-based and international) might not be relevant enough

to Chinese Gen Y. It could be argued that Chinese Gen Y assimilated to the national culture and showed more ethnic tolerance than Malay Gen Y. This could have led to the current findings (i.e. less favourable towards ethnic-based and international brands). One possible future research topic may be to investigate ethnic-based, national, and international brands sponsoring a social sponsorship. We can thus suggest that if a national-type brand was available in the present study, it would probably have contributed to different findings.

This study suggests that despite being in the same generational cohort, ethnicity is likely to have an impact on Gen Y since each ethnic group evaluates their attitude towards sponsorship for brands differently. These results can be interpreted as Gen Y's evaluation towards a brand which sponsoring an event being inconsistent with Generational Cohort Theory for both groups. It could possibly be argued that some Gen Y respondents under the age of 28 may have experienced external events recently (see Table 5.1). It is not surprising that Gen Y probably shows a variation among members in the impact of the external events but this is still not embedded in their profile. This suggests that Gen Y seems to be more difficult to identify and segment since factors other than the generational cohort factor may need to be considered. Thus, the finding helps to confirm that Gen Y may lack generational cohort identification (Gardiner et al., 2013) and be a less homogeneous generation (Debevec et al., 2013; Valentine & Powers, 2013) as compared to previous generational cohorts.

In addition, this study discovers that all four groups (Malay and Chinese Boomers; Malay and Chinese Gen Y) exhibit a positive attitude towards sponsorship regardless of event conditions. This finding attests that events can be potential marketing activities that could possibly involve brands to achieve favourable outcomes. In spite of diverse generational cohorts and ethnic backgrounds, this finding suggests that respondents have a similarity in relation to event evaluations.

In terms of brand loyalty, the results show that all respondents are more likely to perceive positive brand loyalty for all conditions (i.e. events; brands). It is clearly evident that social sponsorship invokes consumers to have a favourable attitude even though they are of different ethnic groups. This finding gives an important indication that consumers have a positive brand loyalty towards brands that are involved in social sponsorships, especially in the context of a developing a country. This study confirms

Kim et al.'s (2014) finding which revealed that a brand involved in social sponsorship would be more likely to improve its image and engender a favourable outcome. Once again, the above evidence suggests that social sponsorship is the main factor that influences consumers to have positive brand loyalty. The finding suggests a strong indication for brands to participate in social sponsorship.

In brief, this finding partially supports the notion that ethnicity may affect generational cohort evaluation in social sponsorship since some of the relationships support the hypotheses. Hence, this suggests that ethnicity may have an impact on a variation of generational cohort profiles especially in a heterogeneous and multi-ethnic context.

6.5 Conclusion

This chapter describes the details of the main findings of this present study. Overall, both Boomers and Gen Y have their preferences in terms of events, brands, and types of media. However, when it comes to brand loyalty, Boomers are more likely to perceive a high degree of loyalty as compared to Gen Y, regardless of social sponsorship conditions. This would suggest that social sponsorship itself contributes to a positive response from both generational cohorts despite a degree of sponsorship attitude. Moreover, ethnicity partially contributes to the discrepancies in generational cohorts' profiles and this should be treated carefully.

The next chapter discusses the conclusions, implications, contributions, and future directions that can be drawn from this research.

CHAPTER 7 CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

This chapter discusses the contributions, limitations, future directions, and conclusions of this thesis. The section covers theoretical, methodological, and managerial contributions. The chapter then continues with the limitations and future directions of this study. In a final reflection, this chapter discusses the research objectives that guided the thesis.

7.1 Theoretical contributions

This section presents the contributions of this thesis. It commences with theoretical contributions, followed by methodological contributions. Finally, it discusses managerial contributions from the perspective of marketers and charitable organisations.

1) Developing a conceptual model of social sponsorship

Previous scholars have discovered the advantages of using Generational Cohort Theory (GCT) in consumer consumption (Eastman & Liu, 2012; Rentz & Reynolds, 1991; Rentz et al., 1983), tourism marketing (Gardiner et al., 2014; Gardiner et al., 2013; Pennington-Gray et al., 2003), buying behaviour (Dittmar, 2005; Pentecost & Andrews, 2010), and advertising (Fam et al., 2008). Meanwhile, a few studies have found that self-congruity theory is useful as a predictor in event promotion (Close et al., 2009), volunteerism (Randle & Dolnicar, 2011) and sports sponsorship (Mazodier & Merunka, 2011; Sirgy et al., 2008). Despite the advantages of GCT and self-congruity theory in marketing activities, there is a lack of studies that apply both theories in one study (Gardiner et al., 2013), especially in a social sponsorship context. This is important given that belonging to a generational cohort and perceptions of self-congruity are closely intertwined. It could be argued that previous studies that employed GCT only focused on descriptive findings rather than theoretical underpinning (Lyons & Kuron, 2014). Hence, this current study addresses this limitation by employing both theories.

This present study provides a conceptual model that utilises both GCT and self-congruity theory, and extends the theories into a social sponsorship context. The conceptual model is useful for identifying and segmenting consumers by using GCT; meanwhile, self-congruity theory in this model is used as a mechanism to determine the degree of consumers' self-congruity with social sponsorship programmes. The model contributes to existing social sponsorship knowledge by using generational cohort profiles and their congruity as indicators in identifying social sponsorship programmes that are congruent with target consumers. Thus, it is useful to identify consumers from diverse backgrounds prior to choosing an appropriate social sponsorship programme that may lead to favourable outcomes. This study represents the first attempt to utilise GCT and self-congruity theory specifically in a social sponsorship context.

In addition, this model proposed GCT as an antecedent of self-congruity in social sponsorship. This study addressed the limitation of self-congruity's antecedents (Quester et al., 2013) by using GCT to identify and segment consumer profiles. This study believed that external events experienced by consumers may affect the formation of generational cohort profiles (e.g. characteristics, attitudes, preferences). These profiles contribute to individuals' actual self-congruity since they personally experienced the external events during their coming of age. The study found that the model was capable of predicting generational cohort profiles that influenced the degree of consumers' actual self-congruity with social sponsorship programmes, especially for events and brands.

2) Comparing the heterogeneity of consumers in social sponsorship

In terms of the charitable context, several studies have employed GCT in an attempt to understand Gen Y (Cui et al., 2003; Hyllegarda et al., 2011; Lii et al., 2013) and Tweeners (Yavas et al., 2007). However, those studies only focused on one specific generational cohort. A generational cohort profile is distinct among generational cohorts, however, shares a common profiles (e.g. characteristics, attitudes, and preferences) within its members since they experienced similar external events during their coming of age period (Motta et al., 2002; Noble & Schewe, 2003). Thus, it could be argued that each generational cohort has a unique profile that affects the degree of self-congruity with social sponsorship.

This current study contributes to the existing social sponsorship literature by comparing different generational cohorts (i.e. Boomers and Gen Y). It is useful to identify social sponsorship that has a high congruence with target consumers in order to attain positive responses. This study sheds new light by investigating the heterogeneity of generational cohorts' profiles with social sponsorship. The generational cohorts' degree of self-congruity may affect their evaluation and responses in social sponsorship.

This study also contributes to self-congruity theory since consumers' congruity affects the attitude towards social sponsorship especially for ethnic related events and brands. This study suggests that the heterogeneity of consumer profiles (e.g. characteristics, attitudes and preferences) may lead to different results or responses in social sponsorship. In particular, this present study extends GCT by examining heterogeneous consumers in a charitable context. These findings contribute to consumer behaviour and

strategic marketing communication literature by using GCT in identifying and segmenting consumers especially in social sponsorship.

3) Ethnicity causes variation in generational cohort profiles

This study provides more insight on the distinctiveness of ethnicity, especially in a social sponsorship context. The theory proposed that the numerical minority ethnic group (i.e. distinctive group) is more ethnically salient and has a more favourable attitude towards ethnically related affairs than majority ethnic groups (Appiah, 2004; Appiah et al., 2013; Appiah & Liu, 2009; Deshpandé & Stayman, 1994; Grier & Brumbaugh, 1999; Grier et al., 2006; Grier & Deshpandé, 2001; Martin et al., 2004; McGuire et al., 1978). This study suggests that the distinctive effects are more evident in developed countries than developing countries. It could be argued that the other factors (e.g. socioeconomic status) that influence the majority ethnic group are more ethnically salient than those that influence the minority ethnic group. For instance, some of the hypotheses did not follow the proposition of distinctiveness since Malay Gen Y had a more positive attitude towards social sponsorship related to ethnic-based brands as compared to Chinese Gen Y.

GCT assumes that individuals who were born in the same period, lived in the same location and experienced similar external events during their coming of age tend to share a similar profile (Mannheim, 1952; Meredith & Schewe, 1994; Ryder, 1965; Schuman & Scott, 1989). In this current study, external events experienced by individuals are defined as a macro-level socialisation factors that influence the formation of generational cohort profiles (Moschis & Churchill, 1978; Rindfleisch, 1994; Ryder, 1965). Nonetheless, micro-level socialisation factors (e.g. family, social class, ethnicity) may contribute to a variation in generational cohort profiles among a cohort's members (Carlsson & Karlsson, 1970; Gardiner et al., 2013; Noble & Schewe, 2003; Rindfleisch, 1994). This study contributes to the current literature on GCT and social sponsorship, especially when targeting multi-ethnic consumers. This study argues that there is no guarantee that a generational cohort will share a similar degree of self-congruity in terms of its attitude towards social sponsorship. The result indicates that Malays and Chinese differ on attitude towards social sponsorship in regards to international brands. This study suggests that ethnicity influences variation in generational cohort profiles despite members having experienced similar external events

(i.e. macro-level socialisation), especially when dealing with heterogeneous and multi-ethnic consumers. As a result, ethnicity might need to be considered as one of the factors that contribute to variation in generational cohort members.

This thesis also provides an indicator towards managing consumers with multi-ethnic backgrounds, especially in a social sponsorship context. This suggests that conducting a study in a multi-ethnic setting may be more complicated than researchers expected and needs to take further considerations into account. This study suggests that macro-level socialisation (e.g. external events) may be useful for identifying and segmenting consumers at a general or at a macro level; nonetheless, more care might be needed in generalising and making assumptions that all members in a generational cohort share a common profile and respond to similar patterns since micro-level socialisation may interfere with this.

4) Social sponsorship in a developing country

This present study makes several noteworthy contributions to the social sponsorship literature especially in a developing country. A number of studies were conducted on charitable research in developing countries (e.g. China, India, Malaysia, and Indonesia); however, these studies focused on philanthropy and cause-related marketing (CRM) (Alon et al., 2010; Anuar & Mohamad, 2011, 2012; Ramasamy & Yeung, 2009; Tian et al., 2011) rather than social sponsorship. Despite being part of corporate social responsibility (CSR), social sponsorship's definition and how it works is different from other CSR activities (e.g. philanthropy, CRM) (Brennan et al., 2012; Lii et al., 2013). Besides, less attention has been paid to sponsorship in developing countries as compared to developed countries (Bal et al., 2010; Madill & O'Reilly, 2010). Past research not having conducted empirical studies on social sponsorship in a developing country context, encouraged this present study to address the limitation.

Meanwhile, the previous studies (Alon et al., 2010; Anuar & Mohamad, 2011, 2012; Ramasamy & Yeung, 2009; Tian et al., 2011) focused on one group or general respondents without segmenting them. It could be argued that generational cohorts' profiles influence consumers' evaluations of social sponsorship. The present study extends our knowledge of social sponsorship as well as the charitable context by comparing generational cohorts in a developing country. As mentioned earlier, each generational cohort may have different degree of self-congruity with social sponsorship.

The current study's findings add to a growing body of literature by providing empirical evidence of social sponsorship especially comparing different generational cohorts in a developing country context.

The present study's findings add empirical evidence of CSR activities in a developing country, particularly in social sponsorship. Past studies have found that consumers in developing countries showed more positive and favourable attitudes towards charitable causes (e.g. more generous and intention to donate) as compared to consumers in developed countries, especially from the collectivistic cultural context (e.g. India, Mexico) (La Ferle et al., 2013; Laufer et al., 2010). This current study contributes additional evidence with respect to a developing country and collectivistic cultural consumers especially in a social sponsorship context. This present study shows that both generational cohorts (i.e. Boomers; Gen Y) perceived a positive attitude towards sponsorship regardless of event conditions (e.g. congruent or incongruent). There are two possible scenarios that may contribute to the findings. Firstly, in line with collectivistic cultural values, the respondents are more concerned about others and willing to help the community even though the events are less congruent to them. Secondly, it is common in a collectivistic culture to avoid expressing negative feelings or disagreement overtly. This may contribute to a positive attitude towards sponsorship in spite of a less congruent event.

7.2 Methodological contributions

Previous studies were concerned with generalisations of the study (Burnett & Dune, 1986; La Ferle et al., 2013), especially in their experimental design since most of the studies employed students as their subjects (Jeong et al., 2013; Lii et al., 2013; Mutz, 2011). This current study overcomes this limitation by recruiting samples from both students and non-students. It focuses on two different age groups, namely, Boomers and Gen Y. Boomers are mostly working adults and mature consumers (Gardiner et al., 2013), while all Gen Y samples in this study were university students. These findings provide empirical evidence in terms of generalisability since they constitute current and future consumers. Hence, it is useful as an indicator to apply marketing communication activities in line with consumers' self-congruity especially in a social sponsorship context.

Moreover, this current study is the first study to use multi-group invariance analysis in comparing generational cohorts, especially in a social sponsorship context.

7.3 Managerial implications

This section describes two managerial implications in this study. First, it discusses implications from a brand perspective, and then follows by discussions implications for charitable organisations.

7.3.1 Implications for brands

This study provides a few contributions to assist marketing practitioners to discover the potential that exists in social sponsorship. Most of the previous studies mainly focused on other types of CSR activities (e.g. philanthropy or CRM) (Alon et al., 2010; Anuar & Mohamad, 2011, 2012; Ramasamy & Yeung, 2009; Tian et al., 2011). This study sheds some light on how brands can actively participate in social sponsorship activity, especially in developing countries. The study's findings discover favourable outcomes for brands (e.g. sponsorship attitude and loyalty). brands may consider involving themselves in social sponsorship since this study suggests the benefits of doing so. Every brand is looking for events that have a high congruency with its target consumers. Brands need to compete with other industry players that have similar target consumers to sponsor an event. Even though event congruency is a main concern in this current study, brands can still sponsor an event that is less congruent with their target consumers. The study proposes an alternative way for brands to become involved in social sponsorship. It found that a less congruent event contributes to favourable responses (e.g. sponsorship attitude, loyalty), especially for Boomers. The findings may be useful for brands who are targeting Boomers as their consumers to participate in social sponsorship. It might be argued that consumers may be more focused or concerned with events involved by brands. Besides, they might perceive brands who sponsor an event as being altruistic rather than looking for commercial value. Participating in a charitable activity like social sponsorship may influence consumers to put their self-congruity aside since they place more emphasis on activities that contribute to community or social responsibility over individual objectives.

One of the possible reasons that can be speculated is, this study focuses on collectivistic consumers that are more concerned about others or the community. It suggests that

brands may need to capitalise on advantages by participating in social sponsorship, especially targeting consumers in a similar cultural context. Moreover, the current economic scenario (e.g. financial situation, economic downturn) and a tight marketing budget may also contribute to brands finding marketing activities that better fit their needs. Therefore, participating in social sponsorship seems to be an alternative marketing communication activity for brands to achieve their marketing objectives.

This study suggests that more emphasis should be placed on identifying and segmenting target consumers before participating in any marketing activities (e.g. social sponsorship), particularly with heterogeneous consumers. Using GCT as a basis for segmenting heterogeneous consumers will likely generate more positive outcomes than conventional segmentation methods (e.g. demographic variables). It suggests that brands should be targeting their target consumers based on generational cohort profile and their self-congruity rather than segmenting them by using a conventional segmentation method. For instance, brands should be involved in an ethnic-based event rather than international-based if their target consumers are Boomers.

It also provides an indicator for brand to implement social sponsorship programme congruence with target consumers. The samples in this study were of two different age groups, and so represent current and future consumers. It may be useful for brands as indicators to apply marketing communication activities in line with their consumers' self-congruity, especially in social sponsorship. Hence, brands can implement suitable marketing communication activities that are congruent with target consumers to better their marketing objectives.

This study also provides some insights for brands to understand what they should expect, especially from multi-ethnic consumers. This is more complicated than other consumer contexts. Brands should consider a number of factors alongside generational cohort factors such as ethnicity.

7.3.2 Implications for charitable organisations

In terms of a charitable organisation, the findings are useful as an indicator for charity organisations to approach potential brands about participating in social sponsorship programmes. It found positive and favourable outcomes for brands engaging in social sponsorship. It provides an opportunity for charitable organisations to be more

proactive in seeking potential sponsors to collaborate in their programmes. It is not restricted to brands with similar target audiences to charitable organisations since this study found that less congruent events also have a favourable impact on brands. Hence, it could be a benchmark for brands to get more involved in social sponsorship regardless of event congruence with their target consumers. Moreover, sponsorship contribution from brands is useful for charity organisations to continue their programmes and initiate other programmes related to community or social responsibility.

7.4 Limitations and suggestions for future research

The generalisability of these findings is subject to certain limitations. For instance, this study was conducted in a developing country setting. Although there is limited research on social sponsorship, this study only focuses on a single country, which is Malaysia. It might be argued that other developing countries might have different generational cohorts' profiles since individuals have undergone different macro (e.g. external events) and micro socialisation (e.g. ethnicity). The profiles affect generational cohorts' self-congruity and that could lead to different responses on social sponsorship. This could be overcome by comparing other developing countries to ensure that socialisation processes (i.e. macro and micro) influence generational cohorts' evaluations across the country. It would be interesting to assess the effect by comparing collectivistic and individualistic cultures. A comparison study between both contexts may be needed to determine whether cultural differences affect consumer evaluations of events.

In addition, this current study's samples consisted of two ethnic groups in Malaysia: Malays and Chinese. Both ethnic groups contribute to a large population in Malaysia, so it could also be interesting to include minority ethnic groups and examine their perception towards social sponsorship programmes.

In terms of respondent selection, most Boomer samples in the experimental study worked at universities, and only a few of them were not working in a university (see Section 4.4.8). Boomer respondents were selected from employer lists provided by the universities' registrar offices. Therefore, most of them were above average income and established in their careers. However, it would be more interesting to recruit other Boomer samples, working in different industries (e.g. private sector or blue-collar) since

their evaluation of social sponsorship might be different from the current study's samples. Similarly, all Gen Y samples were university students, studying at tertiary level, and most of them were below the age of 25. The results may have been different if the study had included other Gen Y samples such as Gen Y members in the workforce with lower levels of education. Further research might explore Gen Y samples aged above 25, working, and more mature consumers than existing Gen Y samples.

Another limitation of this research is that attitude towards the sponsorship was measured based on an overall attitude rather than a specific attitude (e.g. attitude towards event, attitude towards brand). In other words, respondents evaluated their attitude towards the sponsorship by looking into three elements (i.e. events, brands, and media) in this model. This could be the reason why this study's results demonstrated that less congruent social sponsorship programmes still conveyed a favourable attitude towards sponsorship. Respondents might be confused and have a tendency to mix the three elements in evaluating their attitudes towards sponsorship since this study combined an overall attitude. Therefore, the study's findings need to be interpreted cautiously since it is still uncertain which constructs contributed to influencing respondents to transfer favourable results. In order to overcome the problem, it is suggested that further research needs to be done to determine which constructs (i.e. event, brand, and media) are more influential on a generational cohort's evaluation. The evaluation of attitude towards sponsorship should be measured by each construct before an overall attitude. Hence, it will give more insight in terms of which constructs are more powerful in influencing decision making among generational cohorts in social sponsorship programmes.

A potential limitation of this study is that it involved only a single event (i.e. child poverty). The findings demonstrated that respondents still perceived a favourable outcome towards a less congruent social sponsorship programme. It suggests that consumers are reluctant to express a negative feeling to events related to child poverty. The nature of the event might influence consumers' positive feelings towards the cause despite its low congruency (Gupta & Pirsch, 2006). In order to eliminate this assumption, it would be interesting to compare the child poverty cause with other events such as environmental causes (e.g. climate change) and health causes (e.g. cancer, diabetes). Hence, it could be useful as an indicator to determine an event that gives more positive outcomes by comparing events.

The current study is limited as it compares two types of events and brands (i.e. ethnic-based and international). It might be argued that the findings of this current study could be different if it had included a national type of event and brand. The study's findings discovered that international events and brands did not statistically differ among generational cohorts, especially on sponsorship attitude and loyalty. Hence, more interesting findings could be produced if this study included a national-type event and brand to ensure each generational cohort's congruity with events and brands.

7.5 Conclusion

This study provides a model that utilises GCT and self-congruity, and extends the model to the social sponsorship context. This model is useful for understanding the heterogeneity of consumers' backgrounds (e.g. generational cohorts, ethnicity) and the degree of consumers' self-congruity with social sponsorship, particularly in a developing country. An experimental study was employed, and the respondents consisted of two generational cohorts (i.e. Boomers, Gen Y) and ethnic groups (i.e. Malays, Chinese). The data were analysed using t-test, ANOVA and SEM.

This study has three main findings that relate to the study's objectives. Firstly, the study found that both generational cohorts have different degrees of self-congruity with social sponsorship programmes. Based on generational cohort theory's assumptions, each cohort may have a different profile that led to different self-congruity towards social sponsorship programmes (i.e. events, brands and types of media). The results demonstrated that Boomers were more congruent with ethnic-based events, brands and printed newspapers. Conversely, Gen Y had a high congruency with international events, brands and Facebook. This study suggests that generational cohorts' profiles (e.g. characteristics, preferences, and attitudes) formed by external events affects their self-congruity that transfers to their preferences on social sponsorship programmes (i.e. events, brands and types of media).

Secondly, it was hypothesised that generational cohorts' self-congruity with social sponsorship programmes may influence their evaluation on attitude towards sponsorship related to events (i.e. ethnic-based; international), brands (i.e. ethnic-based; international), and types of media (i.e. newspaper; Facebook). The results show that Boomers' hypotheses supported that the generational cohort's self-congruity with social

sponsorship programmes lead to a greater degree of sponsorship attitudes. Boomers had a higher attitude towards social sponsorship with ethnic-based events, brands, and newspaper. In contrast, the results suggest that the hypotheses for Gen Y were not supported since both generational cohorts did not statistically differ on attitude towards social sponsorship with international events, brands and Facebook. In terms of brand loyalty, the result indicates that a greater attitude towards social sponsorship positively influences brand loyalty. Both generational cohorts show a high degree of brand loyalty regardless of social sponsorship conditions. This finding suggests that generational cohorts' self-congruity has more influence on attitude towards social sponsorship for Boomers rather than Gen Y.

Finally, this study argues that factors such as ethnicity affect a variety of individuals in the same cohort. This current study found a mix of results on the effect of ethnicity when evaluating social sponsorship. The results demonstrated that ethnicity influenced Boomers' attitudes towards social sponsorship with international events and brands more than ethnic related events and brands. Surprisingly, Gen Y's attitudes towards social sponsorship for both brand conditions (i.e. ethnic-based and international) were statistically different among ethnic groups (i.e. Malays, Chinese). This suggests that ethnicity influenced Gen Y's evaluation especially for brands (i.e. ethnic-based and international).

This study suggests that ethnicity may influence generational cohorts' evaluations, especially towards sponsorship attitudes (e.g. international events and brands for Boomers). Micro socialisation processes (i.e. ethnicity) have an impact on the variation of generational cohorts' evaluation on social sponsorship despite being in the same cohort. Hence, researchers and marketers need to take into consideration the micro socialisation processes that exist in their target consumers, especially for in multi-ethnic contexts.

REFERENCES

- Abdullah, F. H. (1997). Affirmative Action Policy in Malaysia: To Restructure Society, to Eradicate Poverty. *Ethnic Studies Report, Vol. XV*(No. 2 (July)), 189 - 221.
- Abidin, M. Z. (1999). *Malaysia's Economy: Crisis and Recovery*. Paper presented at the Trends in Malaysia Seminar Singapore. <http://www.iseas.edu.sg/pub.html>
- Aguirre-Rodriguez, A., Bosnjak, M., & Sirgy, M. J. (2012). Moderators of the self-congruity effect on consumer decision-making: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Business Research, 65*(8), 1179-1188. doi: 10.1016/j.jbusres.2011.07.031
- Ahmad, Z. H. (1999). *IMPACT OF THE ECONOMIC CRISIS ON MALAYSIAN POLITICS*. Paper presented at the Trends in Malaysia Seminar Singapore. <http://www.iseas.edu.sg/pub.html>
- Ahmed, Z. U., Mahajar, A. J., & Alon, I. (2005). Malay entrepreneurship: historical, governmental, and cultural antecedents. *International Journal Entrepreneurship and Innovation Management, Vol. 5*, (Nos. 3/4), 168 - 186.
- Ahn, T., Ekinici, Y., & Li, G. (2013). Self-congruence, functional congruence, and destination choice. *Journal of Business Research, 66*(6), 719-723. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2011.09.009>
- Alon, I., Lattemann, C., Fetscherin, M., Li, S., & Schneider, A. M. (2010). Usage of public corporate communications of social responsibility in Brazil, Russia, India and China (BRIC). *International Journal of Emerging Markets, 5*(1), 6-22. doi: doi:10.1108/17468801011018248
- Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. (1988). Structural equation modeling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological Bulletin, 103*(3), 411.
- Andrews, M., Luo, X., Fang, Z., & Aspara, J. (2014). Cause Marketing Effectiveness and the Moderating Role of Price Discounts. *Journal of Marketing, 78*(6), 120-142.
- Anuar, M. M., & Mohamad, O. (2011). Examining the Effects of Cause-Proximity and Gender on Consumers' Response to Cause-Related Marketing: Evidence from Malaysia. *International Journal of Marketing Studies, Vo. 3*(No. 3), 174 - 181.
- Anuar, M. M., & Mohamad, O. (2012). Consumer Response to Cause-related Marketing: A Case of Malaysia. *Journal of Asian Business Strategy, 2*(4), 71-76.
- Appiah, O. (2004). Effects of Ethnic Identification on Web Browsers' Attitudes toward and Navigational Patterns on Race-Targeted Sites. *Communication Research, 31*(3), 312-337. doi: 10.1177/0093650203261515
- Appiah, O., Knobloch-Westerwick, S., & Alter, S. (2013). Ingroup Favoritism and Outgroup Derogation: Effects of News Valence, Character Race, and Recipient Race on Selective News Reading. *Journal of Communication, 63*(3), 517-534. doi: 10.1111/jcom.12032
- Appiah, O., & Liu, Y.-I. (2009). Reaching the Model Minority: Ethnic Differences in Responding to Culturally Embedded Targeted- and Non-Targeted

- Advertisements. *Journal of Current Issues & Research in Advertising*, 31(1), 27-41. doi: 10.1080/10641734.2009.10505255
- Association of Accredited Advertising Agents Malaysia. (2011). Malaysia Advertising Expenditure Report (February 2011). from http://www.aaaa.org.my/resources/2011resources_002.html
- Bagozzi, R., & Yi, Y. (2012). Specification, evaluation, and interpretation of structural equation models. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 40(1), 8-34. doi: 10.1007/s11747-011-0278-x
- Bal, C., Quester, P. G., & Plewa, C. (2010). Emotions and sponsorship: A key to global effectiveness? A comparative study of Australia and France. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, Vol. 22 (Iss: 1), pp.40 - 54. doi: 10.1108/13555851011013146
- Baltar, F., & Brunet, I. (2012). Social research 2.0: virtual snowball sampling method using Facebook. *Internet Research*, 22(1), 57-74. doi: doi:10.1108/10662241211199960
- Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(6), 1173-1182. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.51.6.1173
- Barrett, P. (2007). Structural equation modelling: Adjudging model fit. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 42(5), 815-824. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2006.09.018>
- Bartikowski, B., Taieb, B., & Chandon, J.-L. (2016). Targeting without alienating on the Internet: Ethnic minority and majority consumers. *Journal of Business Research*, 69(3), 1082-1089. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2015.08.024>
- Basil, D. Z., & Herr, P. M. (2006). Attitudinal Balance and Cause-Related Marketing: An Empirical Application of Balance Theory. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 16(4), 391-403. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1207/s15327663jcp1604_10
- Becker-Olsen, K. L., Cudmore, B. A., & Hill, R. P. (2006). The impact of perceived corporate social responsibility on consumer behavior. *Journal of Business Research*, 59(1), 46-53. doi: 10.1016/j.jbusres.2005.01.001
- Becker-Olsen, K. L., & Hill, R. P. (2006). The Impact of Sponsor Fit on Brand Equity: The Case of Nonprofit Service Providers. *Journal of Service Research*, 9(1), 73-83. doi: 10.1177/1094670506289532
- Becker-Olsen, K. L., & Simmons, C. J. (2002). When Do Social Sponsorships Enhance or Dilute Equity? Fit, Message Source, and the Persistence of Effects. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 29(1), 287-289.
- Becker-Olsen, K. L., & Simmons, C. J. (2005). Not all Sponsors are Created Equal. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 32(1), 90-90.
- Bennett, G., Sagas, M., & Dees, W. (2006a). Media Preferences of Generation X and Y. *Journal of Sport Management*, 20(4), 573-573.

- Bennett, G., Sagas, M., & Dees, W. (2006b). Media preferences of action sports consumers: differences between generation X and Y. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 15(1), 40-49.
- Bentler, P. M., & Chou, C.-P. (1987). Practical issues in structural modeling. *Sociological Methods & Research*, 16(1), 78-117.
- Bhattacharya, C. B., & Sen, S. (2003). Consumer--Company Identification: A Framework for Understanding Consumers' Relationships with Companies. *Journal of Marketing*, 67(2), 76-88.
- Bigné-Alcañiz, E., Currás-Pérez, R., Ruiz-Mafé, C., & Sanz-Blas, S. (2011). Cause-related marketing influence on consumer responses: The moderating effect of cause–brand fit. *Journal of Marketing Communications*. doi: 10.1080/13527266.2010.521358
- Boksberger, P., Dolnicar, S., Laesser, C., & Randle, M. (2010). Self-Congruity Theory: To What Extent Does It Hold in Tourism? *Journal of Travel Research*. doi: 10.1177/0047287510368164
- Breckler, S. J. (1984). Empirical validation of affect, behavior, and cognition as distinct components of attitude. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 47(6), 1191-1205. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.47.6.1191>
- Brennan, L., Binney, W., & Brady, E. (2012). The Raising of Corporate Sponsorship: A Behavioral Study. *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing*, 24(3), 222-237. doi: 10.1080/10495142.2012.705181
- Bridges, S., Keller, K. L., & Sood, S. (2000). Communication Strategies for Brand Extensions: Enhancing Perceived Fit by Establishing Explanatory Links. *Journal of Advertising*, 29(4), 1-11.
- Brislin, R. W. (1970). Back-Translation for Cross-Cultural Research. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 1(3), 185-216. doi: 10.1177/135910457000100301
- Bucic, T., Harris, J., & Arli, D. (2012). Ethical consumers among the Millennials: a cross-national study. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 110(1), 113-131.
- Bugbee, A. C. (1996). The Equivalence of Paper-and-Pencil and Computer-Based Testing. *Journal of Research on Computing in Education*, 28(3), 282-299. doi: 10.1080/08886504.1996.10782166
- Burnett, J. J., & Dune, P. M. (1986). An appraisal of the use of student subjects in marketing research. *Journal of Business Research*, 14(4), 329-343. doi: [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0148-2963\(86\)90024-X](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0148-2963(86)90024-X)
- Burns, R. B., & Burns, R. A. (2008). *Business Research Methods and Statistics Using SPSS*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications Inc. .
- Butt, M. M., & de Run, E. C. (2011). Do target and non-target ethnic group adolescents process advertisements differently? *Australasian Marketing Journal*, 19(2), 77-84.
- Butt, M. M., & Run, E. C. d. (2012). Can ethnically targeted advertising work for Malay adolescents?: the moderating role of the strength of ethnic identity. *Asian Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 17(No. 1), 13–39.
- Byrne, B. M. (2010). *Structural Equation Modelling with AMOS: basic concepts, application, and programming* (2nd ed.). New York: Taylor and Francis Group.

- Byrne, B. M., Shavelson, R. J., & Muthén, B. (1989). Testing for the equivalence of factor covariance and mean structures: The issue of partial measurement invariance. *Psychological Bulletin*, 105(3), 456-466. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.105.3.456>
- Cameron, A. C. (2004). Kurtosis. In M. S. Lewis-Beck, A. Bryman & T. F. Liao (Eds.), *The SAGE Encyclopedia of Social Science Research Methods* (pp. 544-546). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Carlsson, G., & Karlsson, K. (1970). Age, Cohorts and the Generation of Generations. *American Sociological Review*, 35(4), 710-718.
- Carpenter, J., Moore, M., Doherty, A. M., & Alexander, N. (2012). Acculturation to the global consumer culture: a generational cohort comparison. *Journal of Strategic Marketing*, 20(5), 411-423. doi: 10.1080/0965254x.2012.671340
- Cavana, R., Delahaye, B. L., & Sekeran, U. (2001). *Applied business research: Qualitative and quantitative methods*: John Wiley & Sons Australia.
- Chan, K., & Fang, W. (2007). Use of the internet and traditional media among young people. *Young Consumers: Insight and Ideas for Responsible Marketers*, Vol. 8 (Iss: 4), pp.244 - 256.
- Chappuis, B., Gaffey, B., & Parvizi, P. (2011). Are your customers becoming digital junkies. *McKinsey Quarterly*.
- Chattaraman, V., Rudd, N. A., & Lennon, S. J. (2009). Identity salience and shifts in product preferences of Hispanic consumers: Cultural relevance of product attributes as a moderator. *Journal of Business Research*, 62(8), 826-833. doi: 10.1016/j.jbusres.2008.04.002
- Chaudhuri, A., & Holbrook, M. B. (2001). The Chain of Effects from Brand Trust and Brand Affect to Brand Performance: The Role of Brand Loyalty. *Journal of Marketing*, 65(2), 81-93.
- Chebat, J.-C., Sirgy, M. J., & St-James, V. (2006). Upscale image transfer from malls to stores: A self-image congruence explanation. *Journal of Business Research*, 59(12), 1288-1296. doi: 10.1016/j.jbusres.2006.09.007
- Chen, F. F. (2007). Sensitivity of Goodness of Fit Indexes to Lack of Measurement Invariance. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, 14(3), 464-504. doi: 10.1080/10705510701301834
- Chen, F. F. (2008). What happens if we compare chopsticks with forks? The impact of making inappropriate comparisons in cross-cultural research. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 95 1005-1018.
- Cheung, G. W., & Rensvold, R. B. (2002). Evaluating Goodness-of-Fit Indexes for Testing Measurement Invariance. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, 9(2), 233-255. doi: 10.1207/s15328007sem0902_5
- Chien, P. M. (2009). *Consumer Evaluations of Sponsor Brand Associations*. ((PhD)), The University of Queensland, Australia
- Chien, P. M., Cornwell, T. B., & Pappu, R. (2011). Sponsorship portfolio as a brand-image creation strategy. *Journal of Business Research*, 64(2), 142-149.
- Chin, W. W. (1998). Issues and Opinion on structural Equation Modelling. *Management Information Systems quarterly*, 22(1), 1-8.

- Choi, S. M., & Rifon, N. J. (2012). It Is a Match: The Impact of Congruence between Celebrity Image and Consumer Ideal Self on Endorsement Effectiveness. *Psychology & Marketing*, 29(9), 639-650. doi: 10.1002/mar.20550
- Choong, K. F., Ong, F. S., & Moschis, G. P. (2013). Materialism and well-being: the moderating effects of religiosity on young Malaysian consumers. *Journal of Beliefs & Values*, 34(2), 178-188. doi: 10.1080/13617672.2013.801693
- Chu, S.-C. (2011). Viral advertising in social media: participation in Facebook groups and responses among college-aged users. *Journal of Interactive Advertising*, Vol 12(No 1 (Fall 2011)), pp. 30-43.
- Close, A. G., Krishen, A. S., & Latour, M. S. (2009). This Event is Me! How Consumer Event Self-Congruity Leverages Sponsorship. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 49(3), 271-284.
- Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Cole, M. S., Bedeian, A. G., & Feild, H. S. (2006). The Measurement Equivalence of Web-Based and Paper-and-Pencil Measures of Transformational Leadership: A Multinational Test. *Organizational Research Methods*, 9(3), 339-368. doi: 10.1177/1094428106287434
- Comber, L. (1983). *13 May 1969: A Historical Survey of Sino-Malay Relations*. Singapore: Graham Brash.
- Cone Inc. (2006). The millennial generation: Pro-social and empowered to change the world – The 2006 Cone millennial cause study. from http://www.conecomm.com/stuff/contentmgr/files/0/b45715685e62ca5c6ceb3e5a09f25bba/files/2006_cone_millennial_cause_study_white_paper.pdf
- Cornwell, T. B. (1995). Sponsorship-Linked Marketing Development. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, Vol. 4 (4), 13-24.
- Cornwell, T. B. (2008). State of the art and science in sponsorship-linked marketing. *Journal of Advertising*, 37(3), 41-55.
- Cornwell, T. B., & Coote, L. V. (2005). Corporate sponsorship of a cause: the role of identification in purchase intent. *Journal of Business Research*, 58(3), 268-276. doi: 10.1016/s0148-2963(03)00135-8
- Cornwell, T. B., & Maignan, I. (1998). An International Review of Sponsorship Research. *Journal of Advertising*, 27(1), 1-21.
- Cornwell, T. B., Roy, D. P., & Steinfeld II, E. A. (2001). Exploring Managers' Perceptions of the Impact of Sponsorship on Brand Equity. *Journal of Advertising*, 30(2), 41-51.
- Cornwell, T. B., Weeks, C. S., & Roy, D. P. (2005). Sponsorship-linked marketing: opening the black box. *Journal of Advertising*, 34(2), 21-42.
- Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. New Delhi; Los Angeles: Sage.
- Crotty, M. (1998). *The foundations of social research: meaning and perspective in the research process*. St Leonards, NSW: Allen & Unwin.

- Cui, G. (2001). Marketing to ethnic minority consumers: a historical journey (1932-1997). *Journal of Macromarketing*, 21(1), 23-31.
- Cui, Y., Trent, E. S., Sullivan, P. M., & Matiru, G. N. (2003). Cause-related marketing: how generation Y responds. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, Vol. 31 (Iss: 6), pp.310 - 320. doi: 10.1108/09590550310476012
- Currás-Pérez, R., Bigné-Alcañiz, E., & Alvarado-Herrera, A. (2009). The Role of Self-Definitional Principles in Consumer Identification with a Socially Responsible Company. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 89(4), 547-564. doi: 10.1007/s10551-008-0016-6
- D'Amato, A., & Herzfeldt, R. (2008). Learning orientation, organizational commitment and talent retention across generations: A study of European managers. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, Vol. 23 (Iss: 8), pp.929 - 953. doi: 10.1108/02683940810904402
- Dalakas, V., & Levin, A. M. (2005). The Balance Theory Domino: How Sponsorships May Elicit Negative Consumer Attitudes. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 32(1), 91-97.
- De Beuckelaer, A., & Lievens, F. (2009). Measurement Equivalence of Paper-and-Pencil and Internet Organisational Surveys: A Large Scale Examination in 16 Countries. *Applied Psychology*, 58(2), 336-361. doi: 10.1111/j.1464-0597.2008.00350.x
- de Run, E. C. (2007). Ethnically targeted advertising: views of those not targeted. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, 19(3), 265-285. doi: 10.1108/13555850710772932
- de Run, E. C., & Ting, H. (2013). Generational cohorts and their attitudes toward advertising. *Tržište*, 25(2), 143-160.
- Dean, D. H. (2002). Associating the Corporation with a Charitable Event through Sponsorship: Measuring the Effects on Corporate Community Relations. *Journal of Advertising*, 31(4), 77-87.
- Dean, D. H. (2003). Consumer Perception of Corporate Donations: Effects of Company Reputation for Social Responsibility and Type of Donation. *Journal of Advertising*, 32(4), 91-102.
- Debevec, K., Schewe, C. D., Madden, T. J., & Diamond, W. D. (2013). Are today's Millennials splintering into a new generational cohort? Maybe! *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, 12(1), 20-31. doi: 10.1002/cb.1400
- Deitz, G. D., Myers, S. W., & Stafford, M. R. (2012). Understanding Consumer Response to Sponsorship Information: A Resource-Matching Approach. *Psychology & Marketing*, 29(4), 226-239. doi: 10.1002/mar.20517
- Department of Statistics Malaysia. (2010). Population Distribution and Basic Demographic Characteristics. Retrieved August 10, 2011, from http://www.statistics.gov.my/portal/download_Population/files/census2010/Taburan_Penduduk_dan_Ciri-ciri_Asas_Demografi.pdf
- https://www.statistics.gov.my/index.php?r=column/cthem&menu_id=L0pheU43NWJwRWVSZklWdzQ4TlhUUT09&bul_id=MDMxdHZjWtk1SjFzTzNkRXZzcVZjdz09

- Department of Statistics Malaysia. (2012). Monthly Statistical Bulletin Malaysia, February 2012: Population and vital statistics Retrieved March 20, 2012, from http://www.statistics.gov.my/portal/download_Buletin_Bulanan/files/BPBM/2012/FEB/05_Population.pdf
- Deshpandé, R., & Stayman, D. M. (1994). A Tale of Two Cities: Distinctiveness Theory and Advertising Effectiveness. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 31(1), 57-64.
- Dittmar, H. (2005). Compulsive buying – a growing concern? An examination of gender, age, and endorsement of materialistic values as predictors. *British Journal of Psychology*, 96(4), 467-491. doi: 10.1348/000712605x53533
- Eastman, J. K., & Liu, J. (2012). The impact of generational cohorts on status consumption: an exploratory look at generational cohort and demographics on status consumption. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 29(Iss: 2), pp.93 - 102. doi: 10.1108/07363761211206348
- Elliott, G., & Tam, C. C. C. (2014). Does culture matter to Chinese consumers? Empirical evidence. *Australasian Marketing Journal (AMJ)*.
- Ellison, N. B., Steinfield, C., & Lampe, C. (2007). The Benefits of Facebook “Friends:” Social Capital and College Students’ Use of Online Social Network Sites. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, 12(4), 1143-1168. doi: 10.1111/j.1083-6101.2007.00367.x
- Embong, A. R. (1996). Social Transformation, the State and the Middle Classes in Post-Independence Malaysia. *Southeast Asian Studies*, Vol. 34(No. 3), 524 - 547.
- Escalas, J. E., & Bettman, J. R. (2003). You Are What They Eat: The Influence of Reference Groups on Consumers’ Connections to Brands. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 13(3), 339-348. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1207/S15327663JCP1303_14
- Escalas, J. E., & Bettman, James R. (2005). Self - Construal, Reference Groups, and Brand Meaning. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 32(3), 378-389.
- Fahy, J., Farrelly, F., & Quester, P. G. (2004). Competitive advantage through sponsorship: A conceptual model and research propositions *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 38 (Iss: 8), pp.1013 - 1030.
- Fam, K.-S., Waller, D. S., & Erdogan, B. Z. (2004). The influence of religion on attitudes towards the advertising of controversial products. *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 38 (Iss: 5/6), pp.537 - 555. doi: 10.1108/03090560410529204
- Fam, K.-S., Waller, D. S., Ong, F.-S., & Yang, Z. (2008). Controversial product advertising in China: perceptions of three generational cohorts. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, 7, 461-469.
- Fan, X., Thompson, B., & Wang, L. (1999). Effects of sample size, estimation methods, and model specification on structural equation modeling fit indexes. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, 6(1), 56-83. doi: 10.1080/10705519909540119
- Fon Sim Ong, J. Philip Kitchen, & Jama, A. T. (2008). Consumption patterns and silver marketing: an analysis of older consumers in Malaysia. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, 26(7), 682-698. doi: 10.1108/02634500810916663.

- Fontaine, R., & Richardson, S. (2003). Cross-cultural research in Malaysia. *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal*, 10(2), 75-89.
- Fontaine, R., Richardson, S., & Foong, Y. P. (2002). The tropical fish problem revisited: a Malaysian perspective. *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal*, Vol. 9 (Iss: 4), pp.60 - 70. doi: 10.1108/13527600210797497
- Forehand, M. R., & Deshpande, R. (2001). What We See Makes Us Who We Are: Priming Ethnic Self-Awareness and Advertising Response. *Journal of Marketing Research (JMR)*, 38(3), 336-348.
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating Structural Equation Models with Unobservable Variables and Measurement Error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18(1), 39-50. doi: 10.2307/3151312
- Funston, J. (2000). Malaysia's Tenth Elections: Status Quo, "Reformasi" or Islamization? *Contemporary Southeast Asia*, 22(1), 23-59.
- Ganesan, N. (2004). MALAYSIA IN 2003: Leadership Transition with a Tall Shadow. *Asian Survey*, 44(1), 70-77.
- Gardiner, S., Grace, D., & King, C. (2013). Challenging the use of generational segmentation through understanding self-identity. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, 31(6), 639-653.
- Gardiner, S., Grace, D., & King, C. (2014). The Generation Effect: The Future of Domestic Tourism in Australia. *Journal of Travel Research*, 53(6), 705-720. doi: 10.1177/0047287514530810
- Gardiner, S., King, C., & Grace, D. (2013). Travel Decision Making: An Empirical Examination of Generational Values, Attitudes, and Intentions. *Journal of Travel Research*, 52(3), 310-324. doi: 10.1177/0047287512467699
- Gaskin, J. (2012). Stats Tool Package, Gaskination's StatWiki. from <http://statwiki.kolobkcreations.com>
- Grau, S. L., & Folse, J. A. G. (2007). Cause-Related Marketing (CRM): The Influence of Donation Proximity and Message-Framing Cues on the Less-Involved Consumer. *Journal of Advertising*, 36(4), 19-33.
- Grewal, R., Cote, J. A., & Baumgartner, H. (2004). Multicollinearity and Measurement Error in Structural Equation Models: Implications for Theory Testing. *Marketing Science*, 23(4), 519-529. doi: 10.1287/mksc.1040.0070
- Grier, S. A., & Brumbaugh, A. M. (1999). Noticing Cultural Differences: Ad Meanings Created by Target and Non-Target Markets. *Journal of Advertising*, 28(1), 79-93.
- Grier, S. A., Brumbaugh, A. M., & Thornton, C. G. (2006). Crossover Dreams: Consumer Responses to Ethnic-Oriented Products. *Journal of Marketing*, 70(2), 35-51. doi: 10.1509/jmkg.70.2.35
- Grier, S. A., & Deshpandé, R. (2001). Social dimensions of consumer distinctiveness: The influence of social status on group identity and advertising persuasion. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 38(2), 216-224.

- Grohs, R., & Reisinger, H. (2014). Sponsorship effects on brand image: The role of exposure and activity involvement. *Journal of Business Research*, 67(5), 1018-1025. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2013.08.008>
- Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing Paradigms in Qualitative Research (pp. 105-117).
- Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2005). Paradigmatic, controversies, contradictions, and emerging confluences. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of qualitative research* (Vol. 3, pp. 191-215). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Gupta, S., & Pirsch, J. (2006). The company-cause-customer fit decision in cause-related marketing. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 23(6), 314-326.
- Gwinner, K., & Swanson, S. R. (2003). A model of fan identification: antecedents and sponsorship outcomes. *Journal of Services Marketing*, Vol. 17(Iss: 3), pp. 275 - 294. doi: 10.1108/08876040310474828
- Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis: A Global Perspective* (Vol. 7th Edition): Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Hamayotsu, K. (2010). Crises of Identity in PAS and Beyond: Islam and Politics in Post 8 March Malaysia. *The Round Table*, 99(407), 163-175. doi: 10.1080/00358531003656313
- Harmon, H. H., Webster, R. L., & Weyenberg, S. (1999). Marketing medium impact: differences between baby boomers and generation Xers in their information search in a variety of purchase decision situations. *Journal of Marketing Communications*, 5(1), 29-38. doi: 10.1080/135272699345725
- Harris, L. M., & Edelman, M. (2006). *After sixty: marketing to baby boomers reaching their big transition years*: Paramount Market Publishing.
- Hayes, A. F. (2009). Beyond Baron and Kenny: Statistical Mediation Analysis in the New Millennium. *Communication Monographs*, 76(4), 408-420. doi: 10.1080/03637750903310360
- Helm, R., & Landschulze, S. (2011). How does consumer age affect the desire for new products and brands? A multi-group causal analysis. *Review of Managerial Science*, 1-31. doi: 10.1007/s11846-011-0072-7
- Hoelter, J. W. (1983). The Analysis of Covariance Structures: Goodness-of-Fit Indices. *Sociological Methods & Research*, 11(3), 325-344. doi: 10.1177/0049124183011003003
- Holbrook, M. B. (1993). Nostalgia and Consumption Preferences: Some Emerging Patterns of Consumer Tastes. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 20(2), 245-256.
- Holbrook, M. B., & Schindler, R. M. (1989). Some Exploratory Findings on the Development of Musical Tastes. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 16(1), 119-124.
- Holland, J., & Gentry, J. W. (1999). Ethnic Consumer Reaction to Targeted Marketing: A Theory of Intercultural Accommodation. *Journal of Advertising*, 28(1), 65-77.
- Hoong, K. K. (2003). *Merdeka!, British rule and the struggle for independence in Malaya, 1945-1957*. Petaling Jaya: Strategic Information Research Development.

- Howe, N., & Strauss, W. (2000). *Millennials Rising: The Next Great Generation*. New York Vintage Books, New York, NY.
- Hu, L. t., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, 6(1), 1-55. doi: 10.1080/10705519909540118
- Huber, F., Vollhardt, K., Matthes, I., & Vogel, J. (2010). Brand misconduct: Consequences on consumer–brand relationships. *Journal of Business Research*, 63(11), 1113-1120. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2009.10.006>
- Hulin, C. L. (1987). A Psychometric Theory of Evaluations of Item and Scale Translations: Fidelity Across Languages. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 18(2), 115-142. doi: 10.1177/0022002187018002001
- Hyllegard, K. H., Paff Ogle, J., Yan, R.-N., & Attmann, J. (2010). Exploring Gen Y Responses to an Apparel Brand's Use of Cause-Related Marketing Does Message Matter When It Comes to Support for the Breast Cancer Cause? *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal*, 28(1), 19-34. doi: 10.1177/0887302x09342465
- Hyllegarda, K. H., Yana, R.-N., Oglea, J. P., & Attmann, J. (2011). The influence of gender, social cause, charitable support, and message appeal on Gen Y's responses to cause-related marketing. *Journal of Marketing Management*, Vol. 27(Nos. 1-2), 100-123. doi: 10.1080/02672571003683755
- Iacobucci, D. (2010). Structural equations modeling: Fit Indices, sample size, and advanced topics. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 20(1), 90-98. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jcps.2009.09.003>
- International Event Group. (2011). IEG's Guide to Corporate/Nonprofit Relationships. Retrieved January 25, 2011, from <http://www.sponsorship.com/Resources/IEG-s-Guide-to-Corporate-Nonprofit-Relationships.aspx>
- International Event Group. (2012). Economic uncertainty to slow sponsorship growth in 2012. Retrieved January 20, 2012, from <http://www.sponsorship.com/IEGSR/2012/01/03/Economic-Uncertainty-To-Slow-Sponsorship-Growth-In.aspx>
- International Event Group. (2015). Sponsorship Spending Report. Where the Dollars are Going and Trends for 2015. Retrieved March 5, 2015, from <http://www.sponsorship.com/IEG/files/4e/4e525456-b2b1-4049-bd51-03d9c35ac507.pdf>
- Jagre, E., Watson, J. J., & Watson, J. G. (2001). Sponsorship and Congruity Theory: A Theoretical Framework for Explaining Consumer Attitude and Recall or Event Sponsorship. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 28(1), 439-445.
- Jali, N. M. (2003). *Malaysian studies :nationhood and citizenship /Nazaruddin Haji Mohd. Jali ... [et al.] ; translated & adapted by Wong Fook Khoon ; with special foreword from Tan Sri Mohd. Ghazali Shafie.Pengajian Malaysia.English*. Petaling Jaya, Selangor, Malaysia Prentice Hall.
- Jeong, H. J., & Lee, M. (2013). The Effect of Online Media Platforms on Joining Causes: The Impression Management Perspective. *Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media*, 57(4), 439-455. doi: 10.1080/08838151.2013.845824

- Jeong, H. J., Paek, H.-J., & Lee, M. (2013). Corporate social responsibility effects on social network sites. *Journal of Business Research*, 66(10), 1889-1895. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2013.02.010>
- Johar, J. S., & Sirgy, M. J. (1991). Value-Expressive versus Utilitarian Advertising Appeals: When and Why to Use Which Appeal. *Journal of Advertising*, 20(3), 23-33.
- Johnson, G. D., & Grier, S. A. (2013). Understanding the influence of cross-cultural Consumer-to-Consumer Interaction on consumer service satisfaction. *Journal of Business Research*, 66(3), 306-313. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2011.08.010>
- Johnston, M. A., & Spais, G. S. (2015). Conceptual Foundations of Sponsorship Research. *Journal of Promotion Management*, 21(3), 296-312. doi: 10.1080/10496491.2015.1021504
- Jöreskog, K. G. (1971). Simultaneous factor analysis in several populations. *Psychometrika*, 36(4), 409-426. doi: 10.1007/bf02291366
- Kamarudin, M., & Ramli, R. (1990). The Malaysian entrepreneur, his qualities, attitudes and skills'. *Malaysian Management Review*, Vol. 11.
- Karande, K. (2005). Minority response to ethnically similar models in advertisements: an application of accommodation theory. *Journal of Business Research*, 58(11), 1573-1580. doi: 10.1016/j.jbusres.2004.07.006
- Keane, L., & Fam, K.-S. (2005). Media: Through the Eyes of Young Adults. *Journal of Promotion Management*, 11(2/3), 155-174. doi: 10.1300/J057v11n0211
- Khan, H., Lee, R., & Lockshin, L. (2015). Do ethnic cues improve advertising effectiveness for ethnic consumers? *Australasian Marketing Journal (AMJ)*, 23(3), 218-226. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ausmj.2015.07.001>
- Kilger, M., & Romer, E. (2007). Do Measures of Media Engagement Correlate with Product Purchase Likelihood? *Journal of Advertising Research*, 47(3), 313-325.
- Kim, H. J., Oh, H. J., & Thorson, E. (2014). Embedding a Social Cause in News Features: The Effects of Corporate Sponsorship and Localization on Audience's Attitudes Toward Nonprofit Coverage. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 43(2), 314-337. doi: 10.1177/0899764012464908
- Kim, J., & Boo, S. (2011). Fit Theory as it Relates to Corporate Sponsorship of Charitable Events. *Tourism Review International*, 14(4), 145-162. doi: 10.3727/154427211x13092645879856
- Kline, R. B. (2011). *Principles and Practice of Structural Equation Modeling* (3rd ed.). New York: Guilford Press.
- Kotler, P., Kartajaya, H., & Setiawan, I. (2010). *Marketing 3.0 : From Products to Customers to the Human Spirit*. Hoboken, New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., .
- Kressmann, F., Sirgy, M. J., Herrmann, A., Huber, F., Huber, S., & Lee, D.-J. (2006). Direct and indirect effects of self-image congruence on brand loyalty. *Journal of Business Research*, 59(9), 955-964. doi: 10.1016/j.jbusres.2006.06.001

- Krisjanous, J., Richard, J. E., & Gazley, A. (2014). The Perfect Little Bump: Does the Media Portrayal of Pregnant Celebrities Influence Prenatal Attachment? *Psychology & Marketing*, 31(9), 758-773. doi: 10.1002/mar.20732
- Kritz, G. H., & Arsenault, P. M. (2006). Teaching Cohort Analysis: An Important Marketing Management Tool. *Marketing Education Review*, 16, 37-43.
- Kuo, A., & Rice, D. H. (2015). The impact of perceptual congruence on the effectiveness of cause-related marketing campaigns. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 25(1), 78-88.
- La Ferle, C., Kuber, G., & Edwards, S. M. (2013). Factors impacting responses to cause-related marketing in India and the United States: Novelty, altruistic motives, and company origin. *Journal of Business Research*, 66(3), 364-373. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2011.08.017>
- Lacey, R., Close, A. G., & Finney, R. Z. (2010). The pivotal roles of product knowledge and corporate social responsibility in event sponsorship effectiveness. *Journal of Business Research*, 63(11), 1222-1228.
- Lafferty, B. A. (2007). The relevance of fit in a cause-brand alliance when consumers evaluate corporate credibility. *Journal of Business Research*, 60(5), 447-453. doi: 10.1016/j.jbusres.2006.09.030
- Lafferty, B. A. (2009). Selecting the right cause partners for the right reasons: The role of importance and fit in cause-brand alliances. *Psychology & Marketing*, 26(4), 359-382. doi: 10.1002/mar.20277
- Lafferty, B. A., & Edmondson, D. R. (2009). Portraying the cause instead of the brand in cause-related marketing ads: does it really matter? *The Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 17(2), 129-144.
- Lafferty, B. A., & Goldsmith, R. E. (2005). Cause-brand alliances: does the cause help the brand or does the brand help the cause? *Journal of Business Research*, 58(4), 423-429. doi: 10.1016/j.jbusres.2003.07.001
- Lafferty, B. A., Goldsmith, R. E., & Hult, G. T. M. (2004). The impact of the alliance on the partners: A look at cause-brand alliances. *Psychology & Marketing*, 21(7), 509-531. doi: 10.1002/mar.20017
- Lambert-Pandraud, R., & Laurent, G. (2010). Why Do Older Consumers Buy Older Brands? The Role of Attachment and Declining Innovativeness. *Journal of Marketing*, 74(5), 104-121. doi: 10.1509/jmkg.74.5.104
- Laufer, D., Silvera, D. H., McBride, J. B., & Schertzer, S. M. B. (2010). Communicating charity successes across cultures: Highlighting individual or collective achievement? *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 44 (Iss: 9/10), pp.1322 - 1333.
- Lee, E. M., Park, S.-Y., Rapert, M. I., & Newman, C. L. (2012). Does perceived consumer fit matter in corporate social responsibility issues? *Journal of Business Research*, 65(11), 1558-1564. doi: 10.1016/j.jbusres.2011.02.040
- Lee, J. A., Soutar, G. N., Daly, T. M., & Louviere, J. J. (2011). Schwartz Values Clusters in the United States and China. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 42(2), 234-252. doi: 10.1177/0022022110396867

- Lee, M.-S., Sandler, D. M., & Shani, D. (1997). Attitudinal constructs towards sponsorship Scale development using three global sporting events. *International Marketing Review*, 14(3), 159-169.
- Lee, R. L. M. (1988). Patterns of Religious Tension in Malaysia. *Asian Survey*, 28(4), 400-418.
- Lenoir, A.-S. I., Puntoni, S., Reed Ii, A., & Verlegh, P. W. J. (2013). The impact of cultural symbols and spokesperson identity on attitudes and intentions. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 30(4), 426-428. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijresmar.2013.07.001>
- Li, C., & Kalyanaraman, S. (2012). What if Web site editorial content and ads are in two different languages? A study of bilingual consumers' online information processing. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, 11(3), 198-206. doi: 10.1002/cb.1371
- Lii, Y.-S., & Lee, M. (2012). Doing Right Leads to Doing Well: When the Type of CSR and Reputation Interact to Affect Consumer Evaluations of the Firm. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 105(1), 69-81. doi: 10.1007/s10551-011-0948-0
- Lii, Y.-S., Wu, K.-W., & Ding, M.-C. (2013). Doing Good Does Good? Sustainable Marketing of CSR and Consumer Evaluations. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management*, 20(1), 15-28. doi: 10.1002/csr.294
- Lin, X., & Wang, C. L. (2010). The heterogeneity of Chinese consumer values: a dual structure explanation. *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal*, Vol. 17 (Iss: 3), pp.244 - 256.
- Lings, I. N., & Owen, K. M. (2007). Buying a sponsor's brand: the role of affective commitment to the sponsored team. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 23(5-6), 483-496. doi: 10.1362/026725707x212784
- Liu, J. H., Lawrence, B., Ward, C., & Abraham, S. (2002). Social representations of history in Malaysia and Singapore: On the relationship between national and ethnic identity. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology*, 5(1), 3-20. doi: 10.1111/1467-839x.00091
- Liu, Y., & Shrum, L. J. (2002). What Is Interactivity and Is It Always Such a Good Thing? Implications of Definition, Person, and Situation for the Influence of Interactivity on Advertising Effectiveness. *Journal of Advertising*, 31(4), 53-64.
- Loges, W. E., & Jung, J.-Y. (2001). Exploring the Digital Divide: Internet Connectedness and Age. *Communication Research*, 28(4), 536-562. doi: 10.1177/009365001028004007
- Loroz, P. S. (2006). The Generation Gap: A Baby Boomer vs. Gen Y Comparison of Religiosity, Consumer Values, and Advertising Appeal Effectiveness. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 33(1), 308-309.
- Loroz, P. S., & Helgeson, J. G. (2013). Boomers and their Babies: An Exploratory Study Comparing Psychological Profiles and Advertising Appeal Effectiveness Across Two Generations. *The Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 21(3), 289-306.
- Luck, E., & Mathews, S. (2010). What Advertisers Need to Know about the iYGeneration: An Australian Perspective. *Journal of Promotion Management*, 16(1-2), 134-147. doi: 10.1080/10496490903574559

- Lyons, S., & Kuron, L. (2014). Generational differences in the workplace: A review of the evidence and directions for future research. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 35(S1), S139-S157. doi: 10.1002/job.1913
- Madill, J., & O'Reilly, N. (2010). Investigating social marketing sponsorships: Terminology, stakeholders, and objectives. *Journal of Business Research*, 63(2), 133-139. doi: 10.1016/j.jbusres.2009.02.005
- Malaysian Communications and Multimedia Commission. (2014). Internet Users Survey 2014. Cyberjaya, Selangor.
- Malhotra, N. K., Agarwal, J., & Peterson, M. (1996). Methodological issues in cross - cultural marketing research: A state - of - the - art review. *International Marketing Review*, 13(5), 7-43. doi: doi:10.1108/02651339610131379
- Mannheim, K. (1952). *The Problem of Generations*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- Marchegiani, C., & Phau, I. (2011). The value of historical nostalgia for marketing management. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, Vol. 29 (Iss: 2), pp.108 - 122. doi: 10.1108/02634501111117575
- Martin, B. A. S., Lee, C. K.-C., & Yang, F. (2004). The influence of ad model ethnicity and self-referencing on attitudes: Evidence from New Zealand. *Journal of Advertising*, 33(4), 27-37.
- Mauzy, D. K., & Milne, R. S. (1983). The Mahathir Administration in Malaysia: Discipline through Islam. *Pacific Affairs*, 56(4), 617-648.
- Mazodier, M., & Merunka, D. (2011). Achieving brand loyalty through sponsorship: the role of fit and self-congruity. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 1-14. doi: 10.1007/s11747-011-0285-y
- Mazodier, M., & Quester, P. G. (2014). The role of sponsorship fit for changing brand affect: A latent growth modeling approach. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 31(1), 16-29. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijresmar.2013.08.004>
- Mazodier, M., & Rezaee, A. (2013). Are sponsorship announcements good news for the shareholders? Evidence from international stock exchanges. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 41(5), 586-600. doi: 10.1007/s11747-013-0325-x
- McGuire, W. J. (1984). *Search for the self: Going beyond self-esteem and the reactive self* In RA Zucker, J. Aronoff, & AI Rabin (Eds.), *Personality and the prediction of behavior*: 73-120: New York: Academic Press.
- McGuire, W. J., McGuire, C. V., Child, P., & Fujioka, T. (1978). Salience of ethnicity in the spontaneous self-concept as a function of one's ethnic distinctiveness in the social environment. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 36(5), 511.
- McGuire, W. J., McGuire, C. V., & Winton, W. (1979). Effects of household sex composition on the salience of one's gender in the spontaneous self-concept. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 15(1), 77-90.
- McQuitty, S. (2004). Statistical power and structural equation models in business research. *Journal of Business Research*, 57(2), 175-183. doi: [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0148-2963\(01\)00301-0](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0148-2963(01)00301-0)

- Meade, A. W., & Lautenschlager, G. J. (2004). A Monte-Carlo Study of Confirmatory Factor Analytic Tests of Measurement Equivalence/Invariance. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, 11(1), 60-72. doi: 10.1207/s15328007sem1101_5
- Meade, A. W., Michels, L. C., & Lautenschlager, G. J. (2007). Are Internet and Paper-and-Pencil Personality Tests Truly Comparable?: An Experimental Design Measurement Invariance Study. *Organizational Research Methods*, 10(2), 322-345. doi: 10.1177/1094428106289393
- Meenaghan, T. (1991a). The Role of Sponsorship in the Marketing Communication Mix. *International Journal of Advertising*, Vol. 10(1), 35-47.
- Meenaghan, T. (2001a). Understanding Sponsorship Effects. *Psychology & Marketing*, 18(2), 95-122.
- Meenaghan, T. (2001b). Sponsorship and Advertising: A Comparison of Consumer Perceptions. *Psychology & Marketing*, 18(2), 191-215.
- Meenaghan, T. (2013). Measuring Sponsorship Performance: Challenge and Direction. *Psychology & Marketing*, 30(5), 385-393. doi: 10.1002/mar.20613
- Meenaghan, T., & Shipley, D. (1999). Media effect in commercial sponsorship. *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 33 (Iss: 3/4), pp.328 - 348. doi: 10.1108/03090569910253170
- Mehmet, O. (1982). Malaysian Employment Restructuring Policies: Effectiveness and Prospects under the Fourth Malaysia Plan, 1980-85. *Asian Survey*, 22(10), 978-987.
- Meredith, G., & Schewe, C. (1994). The power of cohorts. *American Demographics*, 16(12), 22-31.
- Meredith, G., Schewe, C. D., Hiam, A., & Karlovich, J. (2002). *Managing by defining moments: Innovative strategies for motivating 5 very different generational cohorts*. New York: Hungry Minds, Inc.
- Meredith, G., Schewe, C. D., & Karlovich, J. (2002). *Defining markets, defining moments: America's 7 generational cohorts, thier shared experiences, and why businesses should care*. New york: Hungy Minds, Inc.
- Milner, A. C. (1991). Inventing Politics: The Case of Malaysia. *Past & Present*(132), 104-129.
- Ministry of Higher Education Malaysia. (2007). Statistics of Higher Education of Malaysia 2002-2007. Retrieved June 10, 2011, from http://www.mohe.gov.my/web_statistik/statistik_pdf_2008_05/data_makro_1-1.pdf
- Ministry of Higher Education Malaysia. (2009). Statistics of Higher Education of Malaysia 2009. Retrieved June 10, 2011, from http://www.mohe.gov.my/web_statistik/statistik_pdf_2009/03_BAB_1_MAKRO_O.pdf
- Ministry of Higher Education Malaysia. (2010). Statistics of Higher Education of Malaysia 2010. Retrieved June 10, 2011, from http://www.mohe.gov.my/web_statistik/statistik2010/BAB1_DATA_MAKRO_PENGAJIAN_TINGGI.pdf

- Moore, M. (2012). Interactive media usage among millennial consumers. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 29(6), 436-444.
- Moore, R. S., Stammerjohan, C. A., & Coulter, R. A. (2005). Banner advertiser-web site context congruity and color effects on attention and attitudes. *Journal of Advertising*, 34(2), 71-84.
- Moschis, G. P., & Churchill, G. A., Jr. (1978). Consumer Socialization: A Theoretical and Empirical Analysis. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 15(4), 599-609. doi: 10.2307/3150629
- Moschis, G. P., & Ong, F. S. (2012). Effects of life status changes on changes in consumer preferences. *Journal of Global Scholars of Marketing Science*, 22(3), 195-217. doi: 10.1080/21639159.2012.696339
- Motta, P. C., & Schewe, C. (2008). Are marketing management decisions shaped during one's coming of age? . *Management Decision*, Vol. 46 (Iss: 7), pp.1096 - 1110. doi: 10.1108/00251740810890249
- Motta, P. C., Schewe, C. D., & Rossi, M. (2002). Generational marketing: exploring cohort-programmed values and their implications on cross-cultural variations in consumer behavior between Brazil and United States. *Revista Portuguesa de Marketing*, Vol. 12(pp. 11-21).
- Mustaffa, N., Ibrahim, F., Wan Mahmud, W. A., Ahmad, F., Chang Peng, K., & Mahbob, M. H. (2011). Diffusion of Innovations: The Adoption of Facebook among Youth in Malaysia. *Innovation Journal*, 16(3), 1-15.
- Mutz, D. C. (2011). *Population-based survey experiments*. Princeton: Princeton University Press.
- Nain, Z., & Kim, W. L. (2004). Ownership, control and the Malaysian media. In P. N. Thomas & Z. Nain (Eds.), *Who own the media? Global trends and local resistances* (pp. 249 - 270). Penang: Southbound Sdn. Bhd. Retrieved from <http://books.google.co.nz/books?hl=en&lr=&id=XXKyP-8XwuIoC&oi=fnd&pg=PA249&dq=Ownership,+control+and+the+Malaysian+media&ots=rC-9jIrvj-&sig=3I5BkRluqpA6YF8s-KI7mU92SdE#v=onepage&q=Ownership%20%20control%20and%20the%20Malaysian%20media&f=false>.
- Nan, X., & Heo, K. (2007). Consumer Responses to Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) Initiatives: Examining the Role of Brand-Cause Fit in Cause-Related Marketing. *Journal of Advertising*, Volume 36(Number 2), 63 - 74. doi: 10.2753/JOA0091-3367360204
- Nevitt, J., & Hancock, G. R. (2004). Evaluating Small Sample Approaches for Model Test Statistics in Structural Equation Modeling. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 39(3), 439-478. doi: 10.1207/S15327906MBR3903_3
- Noble, S. M., & Schewe, C. D. (2003). Cohort segmentation: An exploration of its validity. *Journal of Business Research*, 56(12), 979-987.
- Noble, S. M., Schewe, C. D., & Kuhr, M. (2004). Preferences in health care service and treatment: A generational perspective. *Journal of Business Research*, 57(9), 1033-1041.
- Obal, M., & Kunz, W. (2013). Trust development in e-services: a cohort analysis of Millennials and Baby Boomers. *Journal of Service Management*, 24(1), 45-63.

- Oliver, R. L. (1999). Whence Consumer Loyalty? *Journal of Marketing*, 63(ArticleType: research-article / Issue Title: Fundamental Issues and Directions for Marketing / Full publication date: 1999 / Copyright © 1999 American Marketing Association), 33-44. doi: 10.2307/1252099
- Olson, E. (2010). Does sponsorship work in the same way in different sponsorship contexts? *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 44(Iss: 1/2), pp.180 - 199. doi: 10.1108/03090561011008664
- Olson, E., & Thjømmø, H. M. (2011). Explaining and articulating the fit construct in sponsorship. *Journal of Advertising*, 40(1), 57-70.
- Omar, R., & Pandian, S. (2006). Falsafah pemikiran politik Dr. Mahathir Mohamad. *Jurnal Kemanusiaan*, 08, 78-91.
- Pappu, R., & Cornwell, T. B. (2014). Corporate sponsorship as an image platform: understanding the roles of relationship fit and sponsor-sponsee similarity. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 42(5), 490-510. doi: 10.1007/s11747-014-0373-x
- Parment, A. (2013). Generation Y vs. Baby Boomers: Shopping behavior, buyer involvement and implications for retailing. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 20(2), 189-199. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2012.12.001>
- Peloza, J., & Shang, J. (2011). How can corporate social responsibility activities create value for stakeholders? A systematic review. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 39(1), 117-135. doi: 10.1007/s11747-010-0213-6
- Pennington-Gray, L., Fridgen, J. D., & Stynes, D. (2003). Cohort Segmentation: An Application to Tourism. *Leisure Sciences*, 25(4), 341-361. doi: 10.1080/714044495
- Pennington-Gray, L., Kerstetter, D. L., & Warnick, R. (2002). Forecasting Travel Patterns Using Palmore's Cohort Analysis. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 13(1-2), 125-143. doi: 10.1300/J073v13n01_09
- Pentecost, R., & Andrews, L. (2010). Fashion retailing and the bottom line: The effects of generational cohorts, gender, fashion fanship, attitudes and impulse buying on fashion expenditure. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 17(1), 43-52. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2009.09.003>
- Petroulas, E., Brown, D., & Sundin, H. (2010). Generational Characteristics and Their Impact on Preference for Management Control Systems. *Australian Accounting Review*, 20(3), 221-240. doi: 10.1111/j.1835-2561.2010.00099.x
- Pickton, D., & Broderick, A. (2005). *Integrated marketing communications*: Harlow: FT Prentice Hall.
- Ping, L. P., & Yean, T. S. (2007). Malaysia Ten Years After the Asian Financial Crisis. *Asian Survey*, 47(6), 915-929.
- Poddar, A., Donthu, N., & Wei, Y. (2009). Web site customer orientations, Web site quality, and purchase intentions: The role of Web site personality. *Journal of Business Research*, 62(4), 441-450. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2008.01.036>
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and

- recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(5), 879-903. doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.88.5.879
- Podsakoff, P. M., & Organ, D. W. (1986). Self-Reports in Organizational Research: Problems and Prospects. *Journal of Management*, 12(4), 531-544. doi: 10.1177/014920638601200408
- Powers, T. L., & Valentine, D. B. (2009). Response quality in consumer satisfaction research. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 26(4), 232-240.
- Pracejus, J. W., & Olsen, G. D. (2004). The role of brand/cause fit in the effectiveness of cause-related marketing campaigns. *Journal of Business Research*, 57(6), 635-640.
- Preacher, K., & Hayes, A. (2004). SPSS and SAS procedures for estimating indirect effects in simple mediation models. *Behavior Research Methods, Instruments, & Computers*, 36(4), 717-731. doi: 10.3758/bf03206553
- Preacher, K., & Hayes, A. (2008). Asymptotic and resampling strategies for assessing and comparing indirect effects in multiple mediator models. *Behavior Research Methods*, 40(3), 879-891. doi: 10.3758/brm.40.3.879
- Prendergast, G. P., Poon, D., & West, D. C. (2010). Match Game: Linking Sponsorship Congruence with Communication Outcomes. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 50(2), 214-226.
- Prensky, M. (2001). Digital Natives, Digital Immigrants. *On the Horizon*, Vol. 9 (No. 5).
- Prensky, M. (2004). Capturing the Value of "Generation Tech" Employees *Strategy + business magazine*.
- Quester, P. G., Karunaratna, A., & Goh, L. K. (2000). Self-congruity and product evaluation: a cross-cultural study. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 17 (Iss: 6), pp.525 - 535.
- Quester, P. G., Plewa, C., Palmer, K., & Mazodier, M. (2013). Determinants of Community-Based Sponsorship Impact on Self-Congruity. *Psychology & Marketing*, 30(11), 996-1007. doi: 10.1002/mar.20662
- Quester, P. G., & Thompson, B. (2001). Advertising and promotion leverage on arts sponsorship effectiveness. *Journal of Advertising Research*, Vol. 41(1), 33 - 47.
- Rahman, I. H. A., Moen, J. A., & Wel, A. C. (2004). *Agenda Pembangunan Masyarakat Perdagangan Dan Perindustrian Bumiputera (MPPB): Pencapaian 22 Tahun Pemerintahan Mahathir Dalam Melahirkan Usahawan Melayu*. Paper presented at the 4th International Malaysian Studies Conference; 3-5 August 2004, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Bangi, Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia.
- Ramasamy, B., & Yeung, M. (2009). Chinese Consumers' Perception of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR). *Journal of Business Ethics*, 88(1), 119-132. doi: 10.1007/s10551-008-9825-x
- Randle, M., & Dolnicar, S. (2011). Self-congruity and volunteering: a multi-organisation comparison. *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 45(Iss: 5), pp.739 - 758. doi: 10.1108/03090561111120019
- Rao, A. R., & Ruekert, R. W. (1994). Brand Alliances as Signals of Product Quality. *Sloan Management Review*, 36(1), 87.

- Reisenwitz, T. H., & Iyer, R. (2007). A comparison of younger and older baby boomers: investigating the viability of cohort segmentation. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 24 (Iss: 4), pp.202 - 213.
- Reisenwitz, T. H., & Iyer, R. (2009). Differences in generation x and generation y: implications for the organization and marketers. *Marketing Management Journal*, 19(2), 91-103.
- Rentz, J. O., & Reynolds, F. D. (1991). Forecasting the Effects of an Aging Population on Product Consumption: An Age-Period-Cohort Framework. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 28(3), 355-360.
- Rentz, J. O., Reynolds, F. D., & Stout, R. G. (1983). Analyzing Changing Consumption Patterns with Cohort Analysis. *Journal of Marketing Research (JMR)*, 20(1), 12-20.
- Rifon, N. J., Choi, S. M., Trimble, C. S., & Li, H. (2004). Congruence Effects in Sponsorship: The Mediating Role of Sponsor Credibility and Consumer Attributions of Sponsor Motive. *Journal of Advertising*, 33(1), 29-42.
- Rindfleisch, A. (1994). Cohort Generational Influences on Consumer Socialization. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 21(1), 470-476.
- Robinson, S. R., Irmak, C., & Jayachandran, S. (2012). Choice of Cause in Cause-Related Marketing. *Journal of Marketing*, 76(4), 126-139. doi: 10.1509/jm.09.0589
- Rodgers, S. (2004). The effects of sponsor relevance on consumer reactions to internet sponsorships. *Journal of Advertising*, 32, 67-76.
- Rodgers, S. (2007). EFFECTS OF SPONSORSHIP CONGRUITY ON E-SPONSORS AND E-NEWSPAPERS. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly*, 84(1), 24-39.
- Ross, J., Patterson, L., & Stutts, M. (1992). Consumer perceptions of organizations that use cause-related marketing. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 20(1), 93-97. doi: 10.1007/bf02723480
- Ryan, A., & Fahy, J. (2012). Evolving priorities in sponsorship: From media management to network management. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 28(9-10), 1132-1158. doi: 10.1080/0267257x.2011.645858
- Ryan, N. J. (1967). *The making of modern Malaysia: a history from earliest times to 1966* (3rd ed. ed.). Kuala Lumpur: Oxford University Press.
- Ryder, N. B. (1965). The Cohort as a Concept in the Study of Social Change. *American Sociological Review*, 30(6), 843-861.
- Salajan, F. D., Schönwetter, D. J., & Cleghorn, B. M. (2010). Student and faculty inter-generational digital divide: Fact or fiction? *Computers & Education*, 55(3), 1393-1403.
- Saleh, M. I., Mustaffa, C. S., & Shaffie, F. (1994). *Sejarah pembangunan bangsa dan negara* Kuala Lumpur: Utusan Publication Sdn.Bhd.
- Sass, D. A., Schmitt, T. A., & Marsh, H. W. (2014). Evaluating Model Fit With Ordered Categorical Data Within a Measurement Invariance Framework: A Comparison of Estimators. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, 21(2), 167-180. doi: 10.1080/10705511.2014.882658

- Schewe, C. D., Debevec, K., Madden, T. J., Diamond, W. D., Parment, A., & Murphy, A. (2013). "If You've Seen One, You've Seen Them All!" Are Young Millennials the Same Worldwide? *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 25(1), 3-15. doi: 10.1080/08961530.2013.751791
- Schewe, C. D., & Meredith, G. (2004). Segmenting global markets by generational cohorts: Determining motivations by age *Journal of Consumer Behaviour* (Vol. 4, pp. 51-63): John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Schewe, C. D., & Noble, S. M. (2000). Market Segmentation by Cohorts: The Value and Validity of Cohorts in America and Abroad. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 16, 129-142.
- Schewe, C. D., Noble, S. M., & Meredith, G. E. (2000). Defining Moments: Segmenting by Cohorts. *Marketing Management*, Vol. 9(No. 3), pp. 48 - 53.
- Schmitt, N., & Kuljanin, G. (2008). Measurement invariance: Review of practice and implications. *Human Resource Management Review*, 18(4), 210-222. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2008.03.003>
- Schuman, H., & Scott, J. (1989). Generations and Collective Memories. *American Sociological Review*, 54(3), 359-381.
- Sekaran, U., & Bougie, R. (2010). *Research methods for business: a skill-building approach*. Chichester: Wiley.
- Sen, S., & Bhattacharya, C. B. (2001). Does Doing Good Always Lead to Doing Better? Consumer Reactions to Corporate Social Responsibility. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 38(2), 225-243. doi: 10.2307/1558626
- Shih, T.-H., & Xitao Fan. (2008). Comparing Response Rates from Web and Mail Surveys: A Meta-Analysis. *Field Methods*, 20(3), 249-271. doi: 10.1177/1525822x08317085
- Shim, S., Serido, J., & Barber, B. L. (2011). A Consumer Way of Thinking: Linking Consumer Socialization and Consumption Motivation Perspectives to Adolescent Development. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 21(1), 290-299. doi: 10.1111/j.1532-7795.2010.00730.x
- Shook, C. L., Ketchen, D. J., Hult, G. T. M., & Kacmar, K. M. (2004). An assessment of the use of structural equation modeling in strategic management research. *Strategic management journal*, 25(4), 397-404.
- Siddiquee, N. A. (2002). Administrative reform in Malaysia: Recent trends and developments. *Asian Journal of Political Science*, 10(1), 105-130. doi: 10.1080/02185370208434204
- Sierra, J. J., Hyman, M. R., & Torres, I. M. (2009). Using a Model's Apparent Ethnicity to Influence Viewer Responses to Print Ads: A Social Identity Theory Perspective. *Journal of Current Issues & Research in Advertising*, 31(2), 41-66. doi: 10.1080/10641734.2009.10505265
- Simmons, C. J., & Becker-Olsen, K. L. (2006). Achieving Marketing Objectives Through Social Sponsorships. *Journal of Marketing*, 70(4), 154-169.
- Simonin, B. L., & Ruth, J. A. (1998). Is a Company Known by the Company It Keeps? Assessing the Spillover Effects of Brand Alliances on Consumer Brand Attitudes. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 35(1), 30-42. doi: 10.2307/3151928

- Sinaiko, H. W., & Brislin, R. W. (1973). Evaluating language translations: Experiments on three assessment methods. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 57(3), 328-334. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/h0034677>
- Singh, H. (2000). Democratization or Oligarchic Restructuring? The Politics of Reform in Malaysia. *Government and Opposition*, 35(4), 520-546. doi: 10.1111/1477-7053.00044
- Sirgy, M. J. (1982). Self-Concept in Consumer Behavior: A Critical Review. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 9(3), 287-300.
- Sirgy, M. J. (1985). Using self-congruity and ideal congruity to predict purchase motivation. *Journal of Business Research*, 13(3), 195-206. doi: 10.1016/0148-2963(85)90026-8
- Sirgy, M. J., Grewal, D., Mangleburg, T., Park, J.-o., Chon, K.-S., Claiborne, C., . . . Berkman, H. (1997). Assessing the predictive validity of two methods of measuring self-image congruence. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 25(3), 229-241. doi: 10.1177/0092070397253004
- Sirgy, M. J., Johar, J., Samli, A., & Claiborne, C. (1991). Self-congruity versus functional congruity: Predictors of consumer behavior. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 19(4), 363-375. doi: 10.1007/bf02726512
- Sirgy, M. J., Lee, D.-J., Johar, J. S., & Tidwell, J. (2008). Effect of self-congruity with sponsorship on brand loyalty. *Journal of Business Research*, 61(10), 1091-1097.
- Smith, S. M., & Alcorn, D. S. (1991). Cause Marketing: a New Direction in the Marketing of Corporate Responsibility. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 5(4), 21-37. doi: 10.1108/08876049110035639
- Sneath, J. Z., Finney, R. Z., & Close, A. G. (2005). An IMC Approach to Event Marketing: The Effects of Sponsorship and Experience on Customer Attitudes. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 45(4), 373-381. doi: 10.1017/s0021849905050440
- Speed, R., & Thompson, P. (2000). Determinants of Sports Sponsorship Response. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 28(2), 226-238. doi: 10.1177/0092070300282004
- Sprott, D., Czellar, S., & Spangenberg, E. (2009). The Importance of a General Measure of Brand Engagement on Market Behavior: Development and Validation of a Scale. *Journal of Marketing Research (JMR)*, 46(1), 92-104. doi: 10.1509/jmkr.46.1.92
- Steenkamp, J.-Benedict E. M., & Baumgartner, H. (1998). Assessing Measurement Invariance in Cross-National Consumer Research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 25(1), 78-107. doi: 10.1086/209528
- Stokburger-Sauer, N., Ratneshwar, S., & Sen, S. (2012). Drivers of consumer-brand identification. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 29(4), 406-418. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijresmar.2012.06.001>
- Strahilevitz, M. (1999). The Effects of Product Type and Donation Magnitude on Willingness to Pay More for a Charity-Linked Brand. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 8(3), 215-241.

- Strahilevitz, M., & Myers, John G. (1998). Donations to Charity as Purchase Incentives: How Well They Work May Depend on What You Are Trying to Sell. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 24(4), 434-446.
- Subrahmanyam, K., Reich, S. M., Waechter, N., & Espinoza, G. (2008). Online and offline social networks: Use of social networking sites by emerging adults. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology*, 29(6), 420-433.
- Suh, K.-S., Kim, H., & Suh, E. K. (2011). What if your avatar looks like you? Dual-congruity perspectives for avatar use. *MI Quarterly*, 35(3), 711-729.
- Sung, Y., & Choi, S. M. (2010). The Influence of Self-Concept on Self-Brand Congruity in the United States and Korea. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*. doi: 10.1177/0022022110383318
- Sung, Y., Choi, S. M., & Tinkham, S. F. (2012). Brand-Situation Congruity: The Roles of Self-Concept and Brand Commitment. *Psychology & Marketing*, 29(12), 941-955. doi: 10.1002/mar.20576
- Tamam, E. (2010). National Pride, Race, Language Use in Interracial Communications with Peers: A Case of Malaysian Youths of 20-25 Years Old. *Human Communication. A Publication of the Pacific and Asian Communication Association*, Vol. 13(No. 3), pp.127 – 136.
- Tamam, E., Tien, W. Y. M., Idris, F., & Hamzah, A. (2006). Relationship of exposure to public affairs news with cognitive, attitudinal and behavioural dimensions of ethnic tolerance among Malaysian youths. *Kajian Malaysia*, Vol. XXIV(No. 1 & 2), 171-183.
- Taylor, D. G., Lewin, J. E., & Strutton, D. (2011). Friends, Fans, and Followers: Do Ads Work on Social Networks? *Journal of Advertising Research*, 51(1), 258-275.
- Teik, K. B. (2002). Democracy and Transition in Malaysia: An Analysis of the Problems of Political Succession. *Macalester International*, Vol. 12(1), 59 - 79.
- Teo, P.-C., Mohamad, O., & Ramayah, T. (2011). Testing the dimensionality of Consumer Ethnocentrism Scale (CETSCALE) among a young Malaysian consumer market segment. *African Journal of Business Management*, 5(7), 2805-2816.
- The National IT Council Malaysia. (2011). National IT Agenda. Retrieved June 15, 2011, from <http://www.nitc.my/index.cfm?&menuid=49>
- Thjømmø, H. M., Olson, E. L., & Brønn, P. S. (2002). Decision-making Processes Surrounding Sponsorship Activities. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 42(6), 6-15.
- Thomas Kilian, N. H., & Langner, S. (2012). Do Millennials read books or blogs? Introducing a media usage typology of the internet generation. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 29 (Iss: 2), pp.114 - 124. doi: 10.1108/07363761211206366
- Thompson, P., & Speed, R. (2007). Typology of Sponsorship Activity. *International Perspectives on the Management of Sport*. Ed. Milena Parent and Trevor Slack. Elsevier, 2007.

- Tian, Z., Wang, R., & Yang, W. (2011). Consumer Responses to Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) in China. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 101(2), 197-212. doi: 10.1007/s10551-010-0716-6
- Ting, H., & De Run, E. C. (2012). Generations X and Y Attitude towards Controversial Advertising. *Asian Journal of Business Research*, 2(2), 24-37.
- Ting, H., & de Run, E. C. (2013). *How Young Adults Perceive Advertising: A Comparative Study of Three Ethnic Groups*. Paper presented at the 5th Asia Pacific Marketing and Management Conference (APMMC), Hilton Kuching Hotel, Kuching, Malaysia.
- Ting, H., Run, E. C. d., & Fam, K.-S. (2012). *Identifying Generational Cohorts in Sarawak*. Paper presented at the 5th International Borneo Business Conference, Tawau, Malaysia.
- Tuškej, U., Golob, U., & Podnar, K. (2013). The role of consumer–brand identification in building brand relationships. *Journal of Business Research*, 66(1), 53-59. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2011.07.022>
- Usunier, J.-C. (1996). *Marketing across cultures* (2nd ed.). London: New York: Prentice Hall.
- Valentine, D. B., & Powers, T. L. (2013). Generation Y values and lifestyle segments. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 30(7), 597-606.
- Vanhamme, J., Lindgreen, A., Reast, J., & van Popering, N. (2012). To Do Well by Doing Good: Improving Corporate Image Through Cause-Related Marketing. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 109(3), 259-274. doi: 10.1007/s10551-011-1134-0
- Varadarajan, P. R., & Menon, A. (1988). Cause-Related Marketing: A Coalignment of Marketing Strategy and Corporate Philanthropy. *Journal of Marketing*, 52(3), 58-74.
- Waller, D. S., Fam, K.-S., & Erdogan, B. Z. (2005). Advertising of controversial products: a cross-cultural study. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 22 (Iss: 1), pp.6 - 13. doi: 10.1108/07363760510576509
- Waller, D. S., & Fam, K. S. (2000). Cultural values and advertising in Malaysia: views from the industry. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, Vol. 12 (Iss: 1), pp.3 - 16. doi: 10.1108/13555850010764613
- Wang, X., Yang, Z., & Liu, N. R. (2009). The Impacts of Brand Personality and Congruity on Purchase Intention: Evidence From the Chinese Mainland's Automobile Market. *Journal of Global Marketing*, 22(3), 199-215. doi: 10.1080/08911760902845023
- Webb, D. J., & Mohr, L. A. (1998). A Typology of Consumer Responses to Cause-Related Marketing: From Skeptics to Socially Concerned. *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing*, 17(2), 226-238.
- Weeks, C. S., Cornwell, T. B., & Drennan, J. C. (2008). Leveraging sponsorships on the Internet: Activation, congruence, and articulation. *Psychology & Marketing*, 25, 637-654.
- Westland, C. J. (2010). Lower bounds on sample size in structural equation modeling. *Electronic Commerce Research and Applications*, 9(6), 476-487. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.eierap.2010.07.003>

- Westwood, R. I., & Everett, J. E. (1996). Comparative Managerial Values. *Journal of Asia-Pacific Business*, 1:3, 3-38. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1300/J098v01n03_02
- Whittler, T. E. (1989). Viewers' processing of Actor's race and message claims in advertising stimuli. *Psychology & Marketing*, 6(4), 287-309. doi: 10.1002/mar.4220060405
- Winterich, K. P., & Barone, M. J. (2011). Warm Glow or Cold, Hard Cash? Social Identify Effects on Consumer Choice for Donation Versus Discount Promotions. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 48(5), 855-868. doi: 10.1509/jmkr.48.5.855
- Woisetschläger, D. M., & Michaelis, M. (2012). Sponsorship congruence and brand image: A pre-post event analysis. *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 46 (Iss: 3/4), pp.509 - 523. doi: 10.1108/03090561211202585
- Wolf, E. J., Harrington, K. M., Clark, S. L., & Miller, M. W. (2013). Sample Size Requirements for Structural Equation Models: An Evaluation of Power, Bias, and Solution Propriety. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 73(6), 913-934. doi: 10.1177/0013164413495237
- Wolf, T. R., Hattrup, K., & Mueller, K. (2011). A Cross-National Investigation of the Measurement Equivalence of Computerized Organizational Attitude Surveys: A Two-Study Design in Multiple Nations. *Journal of Organizational Computing and Electronic Commerce*, 21(3), 246-263. doi: 10.1080/10919392.2011.590112
- World Trade Organization. (2001). Trade policy review - Malaysia 2001. . Retrieved August 07, 2011, from http://www.wto.org/english/tratop_e/tpr_e/tp180_e.htm#top
- Xinshu Zhao, Jr, John G. L., & Qimei Chen. (2010). Reconsidering Baron and Kenny: Myths and Truths about Mediation Analysis. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 37(2), 197-206. doi: 10.1086/651257
- Xue, F., & Phelps, J. E. (2013). Self-Concept, Product Involvement, and Responses to Self-Congruent Advertising. *Journal of Current Issues & Research in Advertising*, 34(1), 1-20. doi: 10.1080/10641734.2013.754705
- Yavas, U., Woodbridge, A., Ashill, N. J., & Krisjanous, J. (2007). Attitudes of tweeners to cause-related marketing: A New Zealand Study. *Scientific Journal of Administrative Development*, Vol. 5.
- Yong Seok, S., Jin, K. H., & Sung-Hack, L. (2012). Communication strategies for enhancing perceived fit in the CSR sponsorship context. *International Journal of Advertising*, 31(1), 133-146.
- Zawawi, I. (2004). Globalization and national identity: Managing ethnicity and cultural pluralism in Malaysia. In Y. Sato (Ed.), *Growth and Governance in Asia* (pp. 115-136). Honolulu: AsiaPacific Center for Security Studies.
- Zdravkovic, S., Magnusson, P., & Stanley, S. M. (2010). Dimensions of fit between a brand and a social cause and their influence on attitudes. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 27(2), 151-160.
- Zeithaml, V. A., Berry, L. L., & Parasuraman, A. (1996). The Behavioral Consequences of Service Quality. *Journal of Marketing*, 60(2), 31-46. doi: 10.2307/1251929

- Zhou, Z., & Bao, Y. (2002). Users' Attitudes toward Web Advertising: Effects of Internet Motivation and Internet Ability. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 29(1), 71-78.
- Zikmund, W. G., Ward, S., Lowe, B., Winzar, H., & Babin, B. J. (2011). *Marketing Research: 2nd Asia Pacific Edition*: Cengage Learning, Australia.
- Zyglidopoulos, S. C., Georgiadis, A. P., Carroll, C. E., & Siegel, D. S. (2012). Does media attention drive corporate social responsibility? *Journal of Business Research*, 65(11), 1622-1627. doi: 10.1016/j.jbusres.2011.10.021



This page is intentionally left blank.

APPENDICES


Appendix 1:

a) Examples of advertisements


Newspaper Advertisement

The Truth Newspaper
Help us fight child poverty around the world

Pure Mineral Water proudly sponsors “International Child Poverty Fund”



Facebook Advertisement

facebook.  [Home](#)

Help us fight child poverty around the world



**Pure Mineral Water proudly sponsors
“International Child Poverty Fund”**



Control group



i) Printed version (English)



Dear Sir / Madam,

Re: Consumers' perceptions toward sponsorship programmes

I am a postgraduate student working towards a PhD at Victoria University of Wellington. As a part of my research, I am carrying out a survey examining consumers' perceptions of sponsorship programmes. Your participation in this research is voluntary, but very much appreciated.

Victoria University ethics approval has been obtained for this research. Responses collected will form the basis of research project. All data will be reported in an aggregated manner, with material collected kept confidential in locked or password protected files and access restricted to the investigator. Only my supervisors, Professor Kim Fam and Dr. Aaron Gazley will view the completed questionnaires in addition to myself. Questionnaires will be disposed of three years after completion of the research. A thesis will be submitted for marking to the School of Marketing and International Business and be deposited in the University Library. It is proposed that one or more articles concerning the research will be submitted for academic conferences/publications. Please be assured that all of your answers are anonymous – please do not write down your name or any other identifying information.

If you have any questions or require further information about the project, or would like to receive a summary of results once the research has been completed, please contact me at mohamadnoor.sharipudin@vuw.ac.nz, or any of my supervisors, Professor Kim Fam at kim.fam@vuw.ac.nz and Dr. Aaron Gazley at aaron.gazley@vuw.ac.nz.

At the end of the questionnaire, you will be given a form to enter in a draw to win RM100 shopping voucher. Please fill out the form and submit only this form to the box provided or scan it and email to me at mohamadnoor.sharipudin@vuw.ac.nz.

Thank you very much for your help. Your involvement in this research is highly valued and much appreciated.

Mohamad-Noor Sharipudin
PhD Candidate
School of Marketing and International Business
Victoria University of Wellington
Room 101, Rutherford House, 23 Lambton Quay,
Wellington 6104, New Zealand.
Tel: +64 – 4 – 463 9784 (office)
Email: mohamadnoor.sharipudin@vuw.ac.nz

EM (E), Int (S), FB (M)

Please read the instruction before you start the survey

For Part A, you will be given an advertisement regarding sponsorship programme. Please read the statement and view the advertisement before you answer the following questions in this part.

Please imagine you are accessing Facebook. The advertisement illustrates a sponsorship programme taken from Facebook page.

The following statement is about a programme sponsored by a brand.

Pure Mineral Water

“**Pure Mineral Water**” is a mineral water product and multinational brand owned by non-Malaysian. This brand involves in sponsoring a campaign to raise funds for **Malay child poverty** in Malaysia.

Next, please view the advertisement.



Part A

This part has three (3) sections (section 1, 2, and 3). Please view the advertisement before you answers the following questions in this part.

Based on the advertisement, please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following opinion statements by circling an appropriate number on the scales provided:

Section 1

Sponsorship programme:	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1. I feel like I am part of the "Malay Child Poverty Fund" family.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. People who are participating in "Malay Child Poverty Fund" are very different from me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Participating in "Malay Child Poverty Fund" reflects who I am.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Brand:	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1. People who drink "Pure Mineral Water" have more similarity with me compare to other brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I can identify with people who prefer "Pure Mineral Water" than other brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I am very much like a typical person who prefers to drink "Pure Mineral Water" rather than other brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. The image of "Pure Mineral Water" consumers is highly consistent with my self-image.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Media (Facebook) :	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1. People who use "Facebook" have more similarity with me compare to printed newspaper reader.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I can identify with people who prefer to use "Facebook" than printed newspaper.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I am very much like a typical person who prefers to use "Facebook" rather than printed newspaper.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. The image of "Facebook" users is highly consistent with my self-image.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 2

Below are the questions regarding your attitude towards the sponsorship programme (in the advertisement),

Please circle the number (1 to 7) that best describes how you feel about following statements.

1. With reference to the Pure Mineral Water sponsoring "Malay Child Poverty Fund" in the advertisement, please evaluate your attitude towards the overall sponsorship programme:

Very Unfavourable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Favourable
Very Bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Good
Very Negative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Positive

Section 3

The following statements concern your views on brand sponsoring the sponsorship programme (In the advertisement).

Please circle the number (1 to 7) that best describes how you feel about following sponsorship programme

Brand:	Extreme unlikely Extremely likely						
1. I would say positive things about "Pure Mineral Water" to other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I would recommend "Pure Mineral Water" to my friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I would encourage friends and relatives to buy "Pure Mineral Water".	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I would consider "Pure Mineral Water" as my first choice to buy mineral water.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I would buy more "Pure Mineral Water" in the next few years.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Below are the questions regarding your intention towards the sponsorship programme (in the advertisement). Please indicate your response to the following by statements circling your answers using the scale below:

	Low Probability							High Probability
1. How likely would you <u>share the information</u> about the sponsorship programme in the advertisement with others?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2. How likely would you <u>make a donation</u> to the sponsorship programme in the advertisement?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Part B The following statements concern your media use

Your answer should be between 1 and 7, where 1 indicates "not at all" and 7 indicates "very frequently".

1. If I would like to find information for work/study purposes, I will use:

	Not at all							Very Frequently
a. Printed newspaper:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
b. Social media (e.g. Facebook, twitter)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

2. If I would like to find information for personal/leisure purposes, I will use:

	Not at all							Very Frequently
a. Printed newspaper:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
b. Social media (e.g. Facebook, twitter)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

3. If I would like to find information on goods / services, I will use:

	Not at all							Very Frequently
a. Printed newspaper:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
b. Social media (e.g. Facebook, twitter)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Part C Please tell us about you (tick ONE answer only).

- 1 I am a: ☐ Male ☐ Female
- 2 Please indicate your age:
- ☐ 20 - 22 ☐ 23 - 25 ☐ 26 - 28
☐ 50 - 55 ☐ 56 - 60
- 3 Please indicate your highest education level:
- ☐ Primary school ☐ Secondary school ☐ Diploma/First Degree
☐ Master's degree & above ☐ Not applicable
- 4 What is your occupation?
- ☐ Self-employed ☐ Government employee ☐ Private sector employee
☐ Retired ☐ Housewife ☐ Student
- 5 Please indicate your ethnicity (please check the one option that best describes you):
- ☐ Malay ☐ Chinese
- 6 Please indicate your religion:
- ☐ Islam ☐ Christian ☐ Buddha
☐ Hindu ☐ Others: _____
- 7 Did you live in Malaysia when you were 17 to 23 years old ☐ Yes ☐ No
- 8 Have you lived abroad for more than one-year ☐ Yes ☐ No
- 9 Based on the advertisement and scenario given, please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following opinion statement by circling an appropriate number on the scales provided:

The advertisement and scenario given related to:	Strongly Disagree Strongly Agree						
1. Malays child poverty campaign	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. International brand	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Facebook	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

10 Following statements ask your opinion of the sponsorship programme and brand category in general.

Please circle the number (1 to 7) that best describes how you feel about following statements.

a) To me, child poverty campaign is.....

Unimportant to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Important to me
Means nothing to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Means a lot to me
Irrelevant to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Relevant to me

b) To me, mineral water is.....

Unimportant to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Important to me
Irrelevant to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Relevant to me

c) Have you donated or participated in the following charity organisation recently?

Ethnic-based organisation (e.g. child poverty for Malay, Chinese)		Yes		No
National organisation (e.g. child poverty for Malaysian)		Yes		No
International organisation (e.g. child poverty for other countries)		Yes		No

.....

Thank you for your participation. It is much appreciated.

j) Printed version (Malay)



Tuan / Puan,

Re: Persepsi pengguna terhadap program penajaan

Saya adalah pelajar pascasiswazah di peringkat kedoktoran di Universiti Victoria, Wellington. Sebagai sebahagian dari penyelidikan saya, saya menjalankan satu soal-selidik mengkaji pengaruh generasi terhadap program penajaan. Penglibatan tuan/puan di dalam kajian ini adalah sukarela, namun ianya adalah amat dihargai.

Kajian ini telah mendapat kelulusan etika daripada Universiti Victoria. Maklumbalas yang diterima akan menjadi asas bagi penyelidikan ini. Kesemua data akan dilaporkan secara agregat dan disimpan secara rapi di dalam fail yang berkunci dan capaian hanya untuk penyelidik. Hanya penyelia saya, Professor Kim Fam dan Dr. Aaron Gazley akan berpeluang melihat soal selidik yang sudah dijawab termasuk saya sendiri. Soal selidik ini akan dihapuskan selepas 3 tahun tamatnya kajian ini. Sebuah tesis akan dihantar untuk penilaian ke School of Marketing and International Business dan disimpan di perpustakaan universiti. Dicadangkan satu atau lebih artikel berkaitan kajian ini dihantar untuk seminar akademik dan juga penerbitan. Kesemua jawapan anda adalah tidak bernama – mohon jangan tulis nama atau sebarang maklumat pengenalan.

Andai anda mempunyai sebarang pertanyaan atau memerlukan maklumat lanjut berkaitan projek ini, atau ingin menerima kesimpulan bagi keputusan setelah kajian ini tamat, sila hubungi saya di alamat email mohamadnoor.sharipudin@vuw.ac.nz, atau mana-mana penyelia saya, Professor Kim Fam di kim.fam@vuw.ac.nz dan Dr. Aaron Gazley di aaron.gazley@vuw.ac.nz.

Di akhir kaji selidik ini, anda akan diberikan sekeping borang untuk menyertai sebuah cabutan untuk memenangi RM100 bawcar membeli-belah. Sila isi borang tersebut dan masukkan ke dalam kotak yang disediakan atau imbas dan e-mail kan ke mohamadnoor.sharipudin@vuw.ac.nz.

Terima kasih di atas bantuan anda. Penglibatan anda di dalam kajian ini amatlah dihargai.

Mohamad-Noor Sharipudin
Calon PhD
School of Marketing and International Business
Victoria University of Wellington
Room 101, Rutherford House, 23 Lambton Quay,
Wellington 6104, New Zealand.
Tel: +64 – 4 – 463 9784 (office)
Email: mohamadnoor.sharipudin@vuw.ac.nz

EM (E), Int (S), FB (M)

Sila baca arahan sebelum memulakan soal-selidik

Untuk Bahagian A, anda akan diberikan iklan mengenai program penajaan. Sila baca kenyataan dan lihat iklan yang diberikan sebelum menjawab soalan-soalan di bahagian ini.

Sila bayangkan anda sedang mengakses **Facebook**. Iklan tersebut menunjukkan program penajaan yang diambil daripada **Facebook**.

Kenyataan berikut adalah mengenai program yang ditaja oleh sebuah jenama.

Pure Mineral Water

“**Pure Mineral Water**” adalah air mineral dan sebuah jenama multinasional milik **bukan warganegara Malaysia**. Jenama ini terlibat di dalam menaja kempen mengumpul dana bagi kanak-kanak miskin Melayu di Malaysia.



Bahagian A

Bahagian ini mempunyai tiga (3) seksyen (seksyen 1, 2, dan 3). Sila rujuk iklan sebelum anda menjawab soalan dalam bahagian ini

Berdasarkan iklan berikut, sila nyatakan sejauh mana anda bersetuju atau tidak bersetuju mengenai setiap pernyataan dengan membulatkan nombor pada skala yang telah diberikan]

Seksyen 1

Program penajaan:	Sangat Tidak setuju						Sangat Setuju
1. Saya merasakan saya adalah sebahagian daripada keluarga "Malay Child Poverty Fund".	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Orang yang terlibat di dalam "Malay Child Poverty Fund" yang sangat berbeza dari saya.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Penyertaan atau penglibatan di dalam "Malay Child Poverty Fund" ini mencerminkan diri saya sebenar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Jenama:	Sangat Tidak setuju						Sangat Setuju
1. Orang yang minum "Pure Mineral Water" mempunyai lebih persamaan dengan saya berbanding dengan orang yang minum air mineral lain.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Saya boleh mengenal pasti orang-orang yang lebih suka kepada "Pure Mineral Water" berbanding jenama lain.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Saya seperti orang lain yang mengutamakan "Pure Mineral Water" berbanding jenama lain.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Imej pengguna "Pure Mineral Water" adalah sangat konsisten dengan imej diri saya.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Media (Facebook):	Sangat Tidak setuju						Sangat Setuju
1. Orang yang menggunakan "Facebook" mempunyai lebih persamaan dengan saya berbanding dengan orang membaca surat khabar bercetak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Saya boleh mengenal pasti orang-orang yang lebih suka menggunakan "Facebook" berbanding dengan surat khabar bercetak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Saya lebih suka menggunakan "Facebook", berbanding dengan surat khabar bercetak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Imej pengguna "Facebook" adalah sangat konsisten dengan imej diri saya.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Seksyen 2

Di bawah adalah soalan-soalan berkenaan sikap anda terhadap program tajaan di dalam iklan yang diberikan.

Sila bulatkan nombor (1 hingga 7) yang dirasakan terbaik untuk menerangkan pendapat anda terhadap kenyataan di bawah:

1. Merujuk kepada Pure Mineral Water menaja "Malay Child Poverty Fund" di dalam iklan ini, sila berikan penilaian sikap anda terhadap program penajaan tersebut secara keseluruhan:

Sangat Tidak Berminat	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Sangat Berminat
Sangat Buruk	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Sangat Baik
Sangat Negatif	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Sangat Positif

Seksyen 3 Kenyataan berikut berkaitan pandangan anda terhadap jenama yang menaja program penajaan (di dalam iklan).

Sila bulatkan nombor (1 hingga 7) yang dirasakan terbaik bagi menerangkan pendapat anda terhadap jenama di dalam program penajaan (di dalam iklan yang diberikan).

	Tidak mungkin							Sangat berkemungkinan						
1. Saya akan mengatakan perkara yang positif tentang "Pure Mineral Water" kepada orang lain	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
2. Saya akan mencadangkan "Pure Mineral Water" kepada rakan-rakan saya.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
3. Saya akan menggalakkan rakan-rakan dan saudara-mara untuk membeli "Pure Mineral Water".	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
4. Saya akan mempertimbangkan "Pure Mineral Water" sebagai pilihan utama untuk air mineral.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							
5. Saya akan membeli lebih banyak "Pure Mineral Water" pada masa akan datang.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7							

Berikut adalah soalan-soalan mengenai kecenderungan anda ke arah program penajaan (di dalam iklan).
Sila nyatakan maklumbalas anda dengan membulatkan jawapan anda menggunakan skala di bawah:

	Kemungkinan Rendah				Kemungkinan Tinggi		
1. Apakah kemungkinan anda untuk <u>berkongsi maklumat</u> berkaitan program penajaan di dalam iklan tersebut dengan orang lain?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Adakah kemungkinan anda akan <u>menderma</u> kepada program penajaan di dalam iklan ini?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Bahagian B Pernyataan-pernyataan berikut berkaitan media yang anda gunakan

Jawapan anda haruslah di antara 1 dan 7, di mana 1 menunjukkan "tidak sama sekali" dan 7 menunjukkan "sangat kerap".

1. Sekiranya saya ingin mencari informasi untuk tujuan kerja/belajar, saya akan menggunakan:
- 2.

	Tidak sama sekali						Sangat Kerap
a. Surat khabar bercetak:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b. Media sosial (e.g. Facebook, twitter)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3. Sekiranya saya ingin mencari maklumat untuk tujuan peribadi / masa lapang, saya akan menggunakan:

	Tidak sama sekali						Sangat Kerap
a. Surat khabar bercetak:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b. Media sosial (e.g. Facebook, twitter)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

4. Sekiranya saya ingin mencari maklumat mengenai barangan / perkhidmatan, saya akan menggunakan:

	Tidak sama sekali						Sangat Kerap
a. Surat khabar bercetak:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b. Media sosial (e.g. Facebook, twitter)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part C Maklumat diri anda (tandaikan SATU jawapan sahaja).

1 Jantina: ☐ Lelaki ☐ Perempuan

2 Umur anda:

☐ 20 – 22 tahun ☐ 23 – 25 tahun ☐ 26 – 28 tahun
☐ 50 – 55 tahun ☐ 56 – 60 tahun

3 Sila nyatakan pengajian tertinggi anda:

☐ Sekolah rendah ☐ Sekolah menengah ☐ Diploma/Sarjana Muda
☐ Sarjana dan ke atas ☐ Tidak berkaitan

4 Apakah pekerjaan anda?

☐ Bekerja sendiri ☐ Penjawat awam ☐ Pekerja swasta
☐ Bersara ☐ Suri rumah ☐ Pelajar

5 Sila pilih etnik anda (tandaikan pilihan yang terbaik menggambarkan anda):

☐ Melayu ☐ Cina

6 Sila nyatakan agama anda:

☐ Islam ☐ Kristian ☐ Buddha
☐ Hindu ☐ Lain-lain: _____

7 Adakah anda tinggal di Malaysia ketika berumur 17 hingga ke 23 tahun ☐ Ya ☐ Tidak

8 Pernahkah anda tinggal di luar negara melebihi satu tahun ☐ Ya ☐ Tidak

9 Berdasarkan iklan dan scenario yang diberikan sebelum ini, sila nyatakan sejauh mana anda bersetuju atau tidak bersetuju mengenai setiap pernyataan dengan membulatkan nombor pada skala yang diberikan:

Iklan dan scenario adalah berkaitan dengan:	Sangat tidak setuju						Sangat setuju
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Kempen kanak-kanak Melayu	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Jenama antarabangsa	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Facebook	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- 10 Berikut adalah kenyataan mengenai pendapat anda terhadap kategori program penajaan and jenama secara umum.

Sila bulatkan nombor (1 hingga 7) yang dirasakan terbaik bagi menerangkan pendapat anda terhadap kenyataan di bawah.

- a) Pada saya, kempen kanak-kanak miskin adalah.....

Sangat tidak penting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Sangat penting
Sangat tidak bermakna	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Sangat bermakna
Sangat tidak relevan	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Sangat relevan

- b) Pada saya, air mineral adalah.....

Sangat tidak penting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Sangat penting
Sangat tidak relevan	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Sangat relevan


- c) Pernahkah anda menderma atau terlibat di dalam pertubuhan kebajikan berikut baru-baru ini?


Pertubuhan berasaskan kaum (e.g. Dana kanak-kanak miskin untuk kaum Melayu, Cina dan lain)		Ya		Tidak
Pertubuhan kebangsaan (e.g. Dana kanak-kanak miskin untuk semua kanak-kanak Malaysia)		Ya		Tidak
Pertubuhan antarabangsa (e.g. Dana kanak-kanak miskin untuk kanak-kanak luarneqara)		Ya		Tidak

Terima kasih di atas penglibatan anda. Ianya amatlah dihargai.

k) Cover email – online version (Malay and English)

School of Marketing and International Business





Tuan/Puan,

Saya adalah pelajar pascasiswazah di peringkat kedoktoran di Universiti Victoria, Wellington. Sebagai sebahagian dari penyelidikan saya, saya menjalankan satu kajian mengenai pengaruh generasi terhadap program-program penajaan. Kajian ini telah mendapat kelulusan etika daripada Victoria University of Wellington.

Penglibatan anda di dalam survey untuk tempoh masa 20 minit ini amatlah dihargai. Di akhir soal-selidik ini, anda akan diberikan sekeping borang untuk menyertai sebuah cabutan untuk memenangi RM100 bawoar membeli-belah. Untuk memulakan soal-selidik ini, sila klik "Start Survey"

[Start Survey](#)

Jika anda ingin mengesahkan kesahihan kajian ini, sila saya di alamat email mohamadnoor.sharipudin@vuw.ac.nz atau mana-mana penyelia saya, Prof. Kim Fam di kim.fam@vuw.ac.nz dan Dr. Aaron Gazley di aaron.gazley@vuw.ac.nz.

Terima kasih di atas kerjasama anda.

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am a postgraduate student working towards a PhD at Victoria University of Wellington. As a part of my research, I am carrying out a survey examining the influence of generations on sponsorship programmes. The research is approved by the Victoria University of Wellington, Pipitea Human Ethic Committee.

Your participation in this 20-minute anonymous survey is greatly appreciated. At the end of the survey, you will be given a form to enter in a draw to win \$100 shopping voucher. To start the survey, please click "Start Survey",

[Start Survey](#)

If you wish to confirm the authenticity of this survey you can contact me at mohamadnoor.sharipudin@vuw.ac.nz, or any of my supervisors, Prof. Kim Fam at kim.fam@vuw.ac.nz and Dr. Aaron Gazley at aaron.gazley@vuw.ac.nz.

Regards,

Mohamad-Noor Sharipudin
 PhD Candidate
 School of Marketing and International Business
 Victoria University of Wellington
 Room 101, Rutherford House, 23 Lambton Quay,
 Wellington 6104, New Zealand.
 Tel: +64 – 4 – 463 9784 (office)
 Email: mohamadnoor.sharipudin@vuw.ac.nz

Appendix 2.1: Generational cohort in Malaysia

The end of Colonial era cohort

The end of the colonial era is the first cohort in Malaysia. This generational cohort's members are individuals who were born between 1924 and 1940, and their current ages are between 71 and 87 years. Their coming of age period was 1941 to 1957.

World War II in Malaysia commenced in December 1941 when Japanese troops attacked and invaded Malaysia, at the same time as attacking Pearl Harbour (Ryan, 1967). As a result, the British were forced to withdraw and leave Malaysia. Japanese occupied Malaysia from 1941 until 1945 (Jali, 2003, p. 28). Malaysians experienced great hardship where food was scarce, imports were non-existent, the currency became worthless and worst of all, the Japanese military regime was brutal (Ryan, 1967, p. 206). In addition, there was an increase in the unemployment rate and low wages, conscription of labour, and scarcity of food (Hoong, 2003, p. 64).

Thereafter, Malaysians also experienced the "Malaysian emergency" during the influence of communism in South East Asian countries. To prevent and control the influence of communist ideology, especially to the Chinese, the British provided a "new village" for Chinese between the years 1948 to 1955 (Ryan, 1967). The losses in this emergency were \$150 to \$200 million. That was a significant impact on the economy and socially to the people of Malaysia.

After the Japanese withdrew from Malaysia, the British returned and proposed a "Malayan Union" as a new constitution in Malaysia (Ryan, 1967). However, this proposal was opposed by Malaysians, especially the Malays, and the anti-Malayan Union movement used newspapers as a medium to disseminate information as well as to gather support from Malaysians. As a result, the British were unable to proceed with the Malayan Union since they failed to gain support from the people of Malaysia.

There was a rise of nationalist spirit to achieve independence among Malaysians, especially after the end of the "Malayan Union" agenda in 1948 (Ryan, 1967). At this time, newspapers were once again seen as an extremely influential medium for disseminating news about independence and influencing people on the importance of independence (Ryan, 1967). In 1955, the first general election was held in Malaysia

which was a starting point on the independence process in the country (Hoong, 2003, p. 286; Jali, 2003, p. 40). The British granted independence to Malaysia on August 31, 1957.

This generational cohort which experienced these external events of World War II, the Malaysian emergency and the communist threat, had developed characteristics such as depression, scarcity, safety and security concerns. In addition, most of the cohort members joined the security forces or the movement against colonialism. Therefore, these cohort members were characterised as obedient followers and embraced with "command and conquer". This cohort had more independence and nationalist spirit than other cohorts.

Post-independence cohort

The post-independence cohort members are those who were born between 1941 and 1952. Their current age is 59 to 70 years old. Coming of age for this cohort occurred from 1958 until 1969, after Malaysia gained independence from the British in 1957.

In 16 September 1963, the British merged Peninsular Malaysia (Malaya) with Singapore, and East Malaysia (Sarawak and Sabah) to become Malaysia. The intention was to prevent Singapore from becoming a communist country since the majority of the population in Singapore was Chinese (Ryan, 1967). The formation of Malaysia led to disagreement and political confrontation between Malaysia, Indonesia and the Philippines. The culmination of this crisis was when Indonesia invaded Sarawak and Sabah in April 1963 (Jali, 2003, p. 58), a confrontation which ended in 1966 (Ryan, 1967). However, Singapore separated from Malaysia and formed a republic in 1965 because of disagreement and conflict between the People's Action Party (PAP), under Lee Kuan Yew and other Malaysian counterparts (Liu et al., 2002).

In economic terms, the Malaysian government practiced a laissez-faire system from the time it gained independence in 1957 until 1969 (Embong, 1996) and this policy was the reason for the failure of Malays to enhance their economy. Economic differences between the races remain a significant problem in Malaysia. According to (Embong, 1996), the laissez-faire system could not address the historical problem of the "Malay dilemma", but it increased the Malay sense of insecurity and political vulnerability. In this regards, Malaysians was frustrated with the government due to its failure to

overcome the economic and social problems and for allowing the political situation to become unstable (Zawawi, 2004).

In 1969, the Alliance Coalition Party (current ruling government) suffered the worst defeat in a general election since Malaysian independence, especially in urban areas (Zawawi, 2004). A parade was held by the Democratic Action Party (DAP), one of the opposition parties, to celebrate their victory after the election. However, government supporters were not happy and caused a racial riot on May 13, 1969 (Zawawi, 2004). Saleh, Mustaffa, and Shaffie (1994) argued that three factors triggered this tragedy: political, economic, and social factors. The racial riot in 1969 was an event that most Malaysians remember, and it was the most serious racial riot in the history of modern Malaysia (Comber, 1983, p. 126).

This cohort had experienced the confrontation between Malaysia, Indonesia and the Philippines, the formation of Malaysia (Malaya merging with Singapore, Sabah and Sarawak to become Malaysia), the separation of Singapore from Malaysia, laissez-faire economic policy and the racial riot in 1969. These external events have shaped the characteristics and values of cohort members. The formation of Malaysia with Singapore provided mixed feelings among Malaysians, especially the Malays. One of the reasons was Singapore had a large number of Chinese, and this affected the political landscape in Malaysia. Thus, these events contributed to instability and political vulnerability characteristics among the cohort's members.

In addition, high poverty and unemployment also caused people not to favour the government. In fact, the laissez-faire system employed by the government failed to improve the economy of Malaysia, especially for Malays. This made Malays continue to be poor and created huge economic disparity between ethnics in Malaysia. Therefore, frustration with government economic strategy, poverty, and deprivation were the characteristics that influenced the cohort members. Jali (2003) argued that the diversity of origins, cultures, languages, and religions were the main problems to unite the people of Malaysia. As a result, communalism or racism among the cohort's members engendered the racial riot between the Malays and the Chinese in 1969.

Boomers cohort

After the racial riot in 1969, the Malaysian government made some changes in order to maintain unity and inter-ethnic relationships in Malaysia. The post-racial riot cohort is individuals who were born from 1953 to 1963, and came of age from 1970 until 1981. The current age for this cohort in 2011 is 48 and 58. The New Economic Policy (NEP) and National Ideology are external events that influenced this generational cohort. The government wanted to improve relationships among the ethnics and maintain unity as well as to reduce the economic gaps which were the main factors that caused the racial riot in Malaysia.

The objectives of the NEP were poverty eradication among Malaysians, restructuring Malaysian society, and reducing economic disparity among ethnics (Ahmed et al., 2005; Embong, 1996). Despite that, the NEP was intended to create Malay entrepreneurial and professional classes (Embong, 1996), equitable distribution to promote national unity and maintain political stability (Abdullah, 1997). The Malaysian government aimed to increase corporate equity owned by Malays up to 30% from 3% in 1970 (Ahmed et al., 2005; Kamarudin & Ramli, 1990).

In addition, the government introduced the National Ideology in 1971 to improve the relationship and harmony between ethnics in Malaysia (Jali, 2003, p. 184). This ideology was a string to the racial riot in Malaysia in 1969. The National ideology was expected to encourage a sense of unity among the multi-ethnic population, and lead to nationhood in Malaysia (Abdullah, 1997).

The post-racial riot cohort had experienced less external events as compared to previous generational cohorts. In this period, the government took initiatives to improve national unity after the racial riot. The introduction of the NEP and the National ideology are two significant events for this generational cohort. The economy was better than the previous cohort and there were more job opportunities. This was an effort by the government to reduce the economic disparity and enhance racial integration. This generational cohort embraced with national unity and maintained political stability (Abdullah, 1997). However, the NEP only focused on Malays and created a negative impression from other ethnics. The NEP policy was seen to discriminate and provide unfair treatment to other ethnics and ignore their rights (Ahmed et al., 2005; R. L. M. Lee, 1988).

Generation X cohort

The Generation X cohort are individuals who were born between 1964 and 1979, and the current age in 2011 is between 32 and 47. Their coming of age began in 1981 and ended in 1997. The Malaysian government had launched a number of government policies including The Look East Policy, Privatisation Policy and National Development Policy (Rahman, Moen, & Wel, 2004). In the early 1990s, Malaysia had introduced the National Development Policy (NDP) to replace the NEP policy in order to catalyse Malaysia to achieve the status of a developed country (Siddiquee, 2002).

In line with the NDP policy, the Malaysian government introduced "Vision 2020". The government planned for Malaysia to become a fully industrialised and modern nation as well to transform it into a developed nation (Jali, 2003, p. 213; Siddiquee, 2002). Furthermore, the introduction of the "Look East Policy" made the government administration more disciplined, dedicated, and hardworking in order to achieve its goal of Malaysia becoming a developed country (Mauzy & Milne, 1983). This policy emulated the Japanese and Korean working culture and intended to follow the achievements of both these countries in economic domination (Rahman et al., 2004). The joint venture between Malaysian and Japanese companies succeeded in producing Malaysia's first national car known as the "Proton Saga".

The privatization policy was an attempt to reduce the government's involvement in the economy and society as well as to reduce the financial and administrative burden (Siddiquee, 2002). In this regards, the government downsized the public sector by changing employees from public sector to private sector employees (Embong, 1996). Rahman et al. (2004) argued that privatisation was intended to enable Malays to participate actively in the private sector because the government had required at least 30% of Malays' equity in all private entities. The privatisation enabled the increasing of Malays in professional, technical and managerial sectors (Embong, 1996). This policy encouraged Malays economically but it rather focused on a particular ethnic group (i.e. Malays). Hence, other ethnics in the nation perceived the policy differently and did not find favour with the government mission and its objectives to help out the Malays.

Generational X cohort experienced rapid economic growth (Mehmet, 1982), and got more job opportunities than the previous cohort. Meanwhile, the middle class group increased significantly (e.g. 11.2% in 1990 to 13% in 1995, and expected to reach

15.3% in 2000), and this generational cohort's members received a higher household income (e.g. RM505 10 in 1976, RM2,007 in 1995) as compared to the older generational cohorts (Embong, 1996).

On the other hand, the Malaysian government had taken several approaches to maintain stability in Malaysia such as the Internal Security Act (ISA), the Sedition Act, the Official Secrets Act (OSA) and the Printing Presses and Publications Act (Omar & Pandian, 2006). According to Crouch (1992), Malaysia had applied a "neither democratic nor autocratic" approach in government administration (Cited in Teik, 2002, p. 61). Malaysia is a democratic country; however, there are a number of acts used to prevent Malaysians from embracing a democracy in Malaysia. The acts are seen to protect the government and restrict freedom of speech among Malaysians.

In 1987, the government implemented the "Lalang Operation" to detain more than a hundred activists especially in opposition parties against the government and suspended publishing permits for three national mainstream newspapers (Nain & Kim, 2004, p. 255). Meanwhile, the use of the acts (e.g. ISA) received criticism because the government had the right to detain individuals without trial and this act is seen as being against human rights (Mauzy & Milne, 1983). Singh (2000) argued that the ISA was an important mechanism for political repression and protection of the government.

These government policies and actions received criticism from the Malaysian people; however, they needed to take a cautious approach otherwise the government would take drastic action against them (Rahman et al., 2004). The Generation X cohort experienced an autocratic government during their coming of age and were forced to obey or comply with government action (Funston, 2000).

Generation Y cohort

Generation Y comprises individuals who were born between 1980 and 1994, with their coming of age starting in 1997 until the present. The Internet advent is a significant event that influenced this generation, known as the Gen Y cohort (Meredith, Schewe, &

¹⁰ Malaysia currency (RM)

Karlovich, 2002, p. 277). The Malaysian government established the Multimedia Super Corridor (MSC) and the National IT Agenda (NITA) as steps to transform Malaysia into a developed nation by equipping Malaysia with information and communication technology (ICT) facilities to achieve Mission 2020 (The National IT Council Malaysia, 2011). This was the beginning of the information age and the Internet advent and Malaysia's attempt to encounter the globalisation era and a borderless society. Gen Y is a generation that embraced the Internet and digital technology. This generation grew up in the Internet era and is also known as "Digital Native" (Prensky, 2001).

Gen Y experienced the Asian financial crisis occurring in mid-1997 until 1998 (Abidin, 1999) when Malaysian's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) decreased sharply to -7.36% (1998) as compared to 10% in 1997 (Ping & Yean, 2007), and the Malaysian currency fell from RM2.52/\$1 U.S.D. (1997) to RM4.50/\$1 U.S.D in 1998 (Tourres, 2003, cited in Ping & Yean, 2007).

The Malaysian government employed a number of strategies to overcome this crisis such as implementing currency controls in September 1998 (Abidin, 1999; World Trade Organization, 2001), the imposition of capital controls (Tourres, 2003, cited in Ping & Yean, 2007), and consolidation of financial institutions (Abidin, 1999). As a result, Malaysia managed to recover from the financial crisis and recorded a GDP growth of 6.1% in 1999 and 8.3% in 2000 (World Trade Organization, 2001).

Furthermore, simultaneously with the financial crisis in 1997, this generation experienced a leadership and internal political crisis during their coming of age. This crisis occurred between Mahathir (i.e. the then Prime Minister) and his Deputy Prime Minister, Anwar Ibrahim (Anwar). The culmination of this crisis was the removal of Anwar as Malaysian Deputy Prime Minister by Mahathir in 1998 (Ganesan, 2004; Ping & Yean, 2007; Teik, 2002). Anwar was also removed from The United Malays National Organisation (UMNO), the biggest political party in Malaysia (Teik, 2002).

"Reform movement" is another defining moment that influenced Gen Y. After Anwar's dismissal, people protested against the government and were involved in street demonstrations (Ping & Yean, 2007). This indicated that people had lost their faith in the government (Singh, 2000) and Anwar's dismissal resulted in political turmoil in Malaysia (Ahmad, 1999).

After the reform movement, a number of demonstrations or peaceful protests were held in Malaysia. For example, the Coalition for Clean and Fair Elections (BERSIH) is the largest street demonstration and had an impact on the Malaysian political landscape. In 2007, a BERSIH protest was held to demand more honest and fair elections in Malaysia. This protest had an effect on the ruling government especially for the general election 2008 and was marked as a “political tsunami in Malaysia (Hamayotsu, 2010).

So Gen Y experienced the political transformation towards desire for a democratic country (Singh, 2000) and against the autocratic government. It can be argued that this generation is more vocal and will demonstrate their dissatisfaction more overtly than the previous generation (Pereira, 1999, cited in Ahmad, 1999). These characteristics are related to the Internet since this cohort was exposed to media or information freedom as well as external media (Fam et al., 2008).

In Malaysia, educational achievement is crucial for social class mobility and social transformation (Embong, 1996). Improving living standards and the economy has a strong relationship with the level of education. As compared to previous generational cohorts, Gen Y members attained tertiary education either at university or college more than previous generational cohorts. For instance, the total number of entrants in tertiary education was about 2.9 million students from 2002 until 2010 (Ministry of Higher Education Malaysia, 2007, 2009, 2010).

In addition, education is one of the important processes of socialization especially in Malaysia. It can be argued that Malaysia is a multi-ethnic and plural country; hence, education is seen as a socialisation process to improve racial integration and ethnic tolerance. Jali (2003, p. 239) stated that the increasing numbers of people who have an education were part of an effort to improve the economy, reduce the rate of poverty and foster unity among the ethnics. This generational cohort was exposed to a multi-ethnic environment and integrates together via education. They experienced a longer education process from school to higher learning education than the previous generational cohorts.

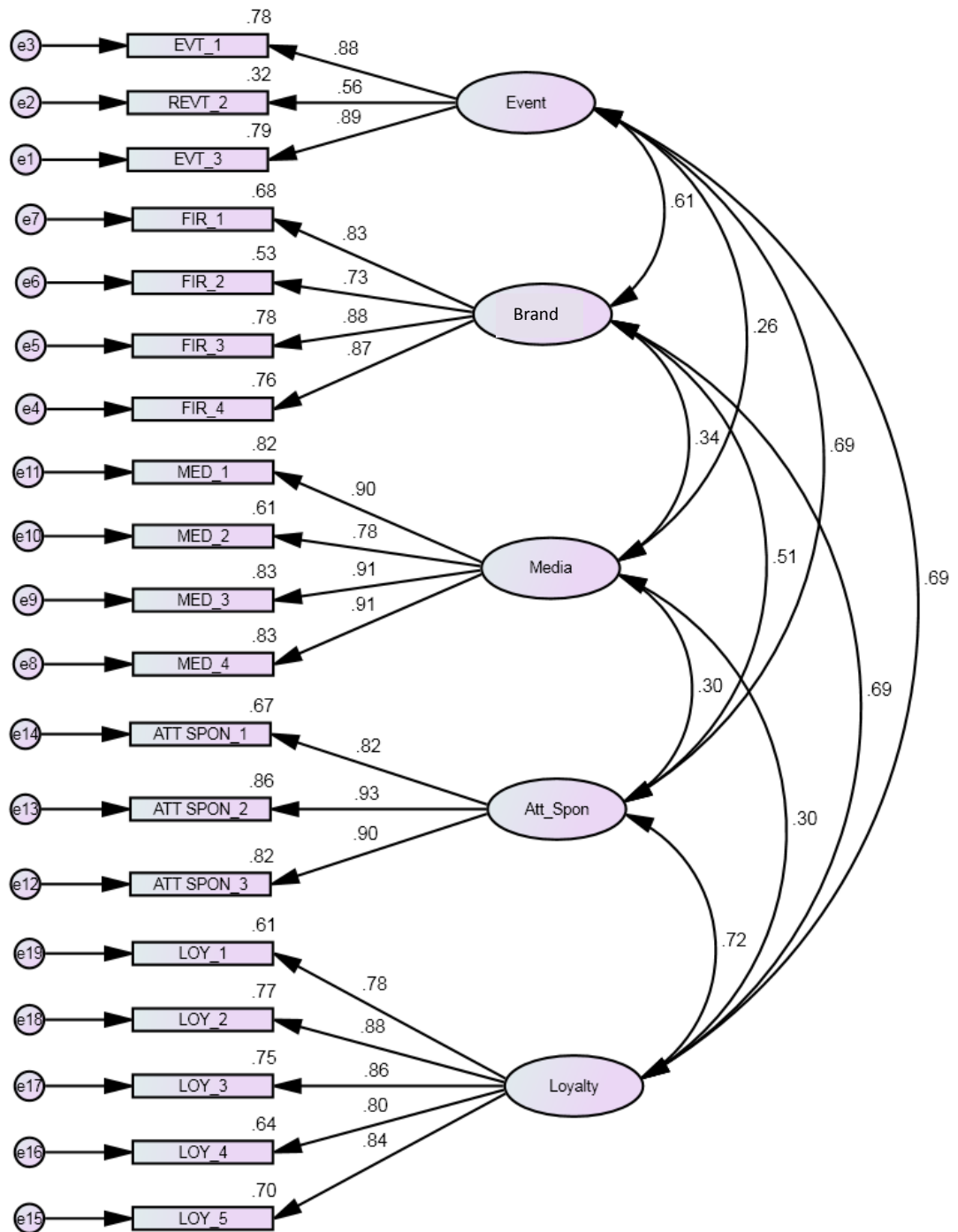
Appendix 4.1: Preliminary study results

Generational cohort	External events	Frequency
Boomers (n=111) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Born : 1953 and 1963 Coming of age: 1970 to 1981 Current age 50 and 60 (2013) 	Racial riot 1969	79.3%
	The establishment of the New Economic Policy (NEP)	72.1%
	Formation of the National Ideology (after 13th May)	67.6%
	Japanese Red Army hijacked AIA building in Kuala Lumpur	55.9%
	“Memali” incident (1985)	53.2%
	Anwar Ibrahim expelled as Deputy Prime Minister	42.3%
	First national car (Proton)	41.4%
	The Independence Day 1957	37.8%
	Tunku Abdul Rahman resigned as Prime Minister	36%
	Tsunami in Aceh	36%
Gen Y (n=259) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Born : 1980 and 1994 Coming of age: 1997 until recent Current age 19 and 33 (2013) 	Parliament was suspended in 1969 and 1971	33.3%
	BERSIH demonstration	69.1%
	Ops Daulat in Lahad Datu	69.1%
	The emergence of Internet in Malaysia	59.1%
	Tsunami in Aceh	57.1%
	Financial crisis 1998	56%
	Anwar Ibrahim expelled as Deputy Prime Minister	55.6%
	The Independence Day 1957	54.4%
	1 Malaysia concept	54.1%
	2008 general election	53.3%
	Vision 2020	45.2%

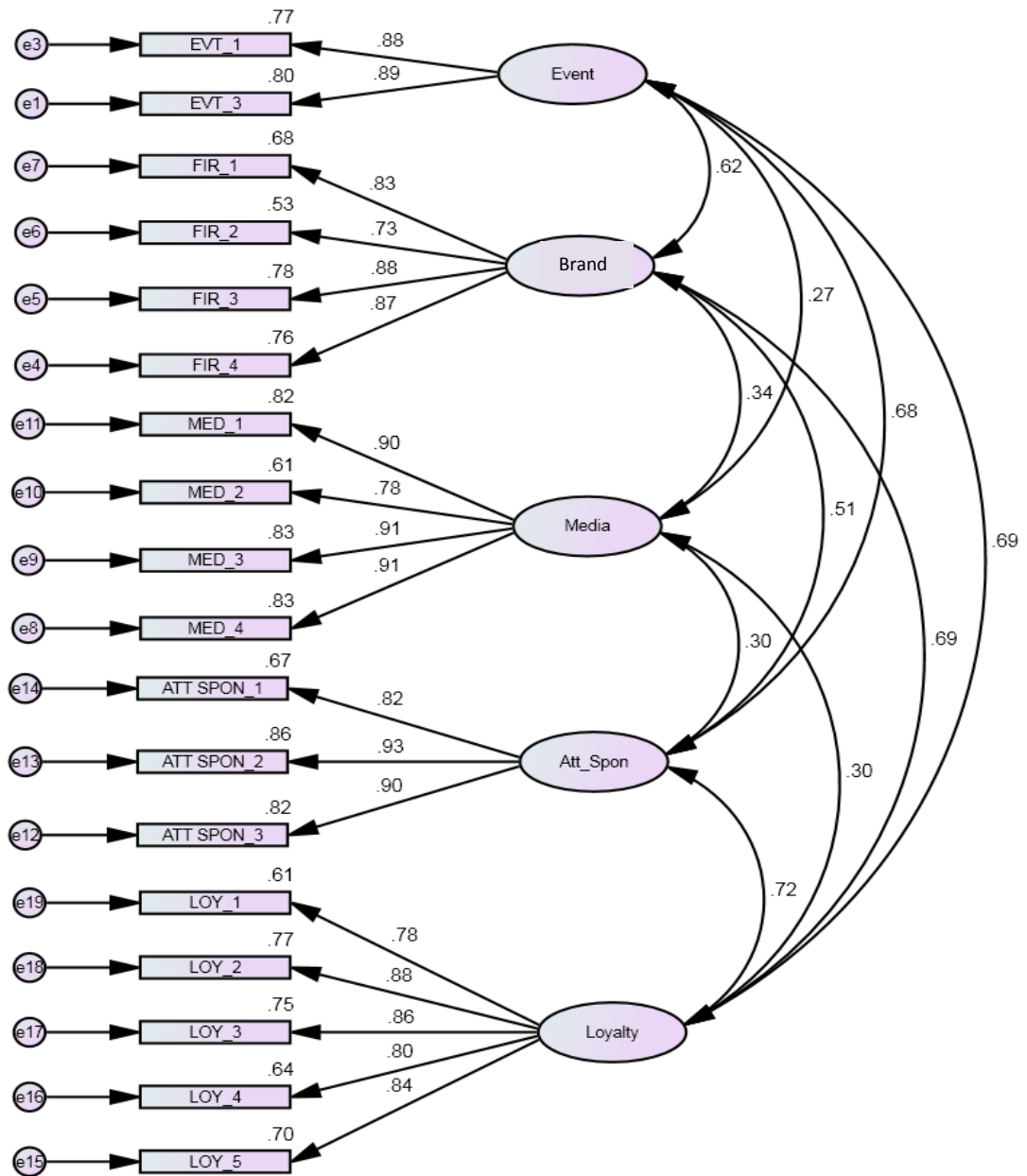
Appendix 5.1: Skewness and Kurtosis

	Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
	Self-Congruity				
EVT_1	Event Congruity 1	4.45	1.493	-0.442	-0.459
REVT_2	Event Congruity 2	4.24	1.333	-0.17	-0.346
EVET_3	Event Congruity 2	4.51	1.407	-0.331	-0.387
FIR_1	Brand Congruity 1	4.22	1.383	-0.299	-0.454
FIR_2	Brand Congruity 2	3.89	1.387	-0.264	-0.636
FIR_3	Brand Congruity 3	4.08	1.431	-0.136	-0.504
FIR_4	Brand Congruity 4	4.12	1.439	-0.167	-0.408
MED_1	Media Congruity 1	4.44	1.525	-0.424	-0.743
MED_2	Media Congruity 2	4.54	1.382	-0.583	-0.131
MED_3	Media Congruity 3	4.46	1.588	-0.339	-0.805
MED_4	Media Congruity 4	4.29	1.453	-0.411	-0.61
	Attitude				
ATS_1	Attitude Toward Sponsorship_1	5.26	1.083	-0.613	0.356
ATS_2	Attitude Toward Sponsorship_2	5.28	1.109	-0.554	0.175
ATS_3	Attitude Toward Sponsorship_3	5.33	1.093	-0.633	0.403
	Brand Loyalty				
LOY_1	Loyalty _1	5.13	1.022	-0.558	1.055
LOY_2	Loyalty _2	4.88	1.163	-0.587	0.632
LOY_3	Loyalty _3	4.85	1.132	-0.592	0.694
LOY_4	Loyalty _4	4.77	1.212	-0.464	0.145
LOY_5	Loyalty _5	4.66	1.254	-0.434	0.172

Appendix 5.2: Initial single group measurement model (before deleted REVT_2)



Appendix 5.3: Final single group measurement model



Appendix 5.4: Residual Covariances

	LOY_1	LOY_2	LOY_3	LOY_4	LOY_5	ATS_1	ATS_2	ATS_3	MED_1	MED_2	MED_3	MED_4	FIR_1	FIR_2	FIR_3	FIR_4	EVT_1	EVT_3
LOY_1	.000																	
LOY_2	.072	.000																
LOY_3	-.005	.030	.000															
LOY_4	-.048	-.047	-.013	.000														
LOY_5	-.077	-.056	-.006	.146	.000													
ATS_1	.150	.084	.098	.114	.116	.000												
ATS_2	.014	-.041	-.071	.002	-.014	-.013	.000											
ATS_3	.075	-.038	-.056	-.030	-.002	-.023	.015	.000										
MED_1	-.004	-.023	.026	-.059	-.031	.080	.020	-.058	.000									
MED_2	.051	.098	.072	.030	-.031	.046	.046	-.031	.032	.000								
MED_3	.024	-.014	.026	-.112	-.052	.027	-.024	-.087	.008	-.047	.000							
MED_4	.001	.051	.032	-.025	-.034	.071	.067	-.057	-.021	.008	.015	.000						
FIR_1	-.042	.036	.028	-.046	.085	.172	-.013	.040	.064	.060	-.009	-.037	.000					
FIR_2	-.030	-.039	-.082	-.019	.020	.094	-.067	-.045	.051	.218	-.059	.002	.025	.000				
FIR_3	-.062	-.030	-.026	-.059	.074	.082	-.081	-.015	.048	.112	.030	.011	-.003	-.013	.000			
FIR_4	-.040	.029	-.002	-.021	.138	.147	-.027	.009	-.110	.087	-.121	-.028	-.028	.027	.009	.000		
EVT_1	-.030	.003	.006	-.004	.021	.095	-.025	-.011	-.045	-.103	-.085	-.034	.107	-.163	.017	-.033	.000	
EVT_3	.070	.006	-.017	-.069	.006	.124	-.029	-.026	.061	.054	.006	.083	.063	-.103	.016	-.016	.000	.000

Appendix 5.5: Original model – factor loadings, communality, AVE, and CR

	Items	Factor loading	Com*	AVE	CR
Self-Congruity					
Event Congruity	EVT_1	0.88	0.780	0.63	0.83
	REVT_2	0.56	0.315		
	EVET_3	0.89	0.793		
Brand Congruity	FIR_1	0.83	0.686	0.69	0.90
	FIR_2	0.73	0.528		
	FIR_3	0.88	0.781		
	FIR_4	0.87	0.759		
Media Congruity	MED_1	0.90	0.816	0.77	0.93
	MED_2	0.78	0.608		
	MED_3	0.91	0.829		
	MED_4	0.91	0.828		
Attitude					
Attitude toward Sponsorship	ATS_1	0.82	0.666	0.78	0.91
	ATS_2	0.93	0.861		
	ATS_3	0.90	0.817		
Brand Loyalty					
Brand Loyalty	LOY_1	0.78	0.585	0.68	0.91
	LOY_2	0.88	0.768		
	LOY_3	0.86	0.765		
	LOY_4	0.80	0.602		
	LOY_5	0.84	0.675		

*Com=communality; CR=construct reliability

Appendix 5.7: Goodness-of-Fit for ethnic-based brands (Boomers and Gen Y)

Model	χ^2/df	CFI	ΔCFI	RMSEA	$\Delta RMSEA$	SRMR	$\Delta SRMR$
1. Configural invariance	1.797	0.944		0.060		0.057	
2. Metric invariance	1.843	0.937	0.007	0.062	0.002	0.062	0.004
3. Scalar invariance	1.806	0.937	0.007	0.060	0.000	0.094	0.037
4. Residual invariance	1.963	0.919	0.025	0.066	0.006	0.105	0.047

Appendix 5.8: Goodness-of-Fit for international brands (Boomers and Gen Y)

Model	χ^2/df	CFI	ΔCFI	RMSEA	$\Delta RMSEA$	SRMR	$\Delta SRMR$
1. Configural invariance	1.793	0.938		0.059		0.059	
2. Metric invariance	1.820	0.933	0.005	0.060	0.001	0.061	0.001
3. Scalar invariance	1.785	0.932	0.006	0.059	0.000	0.069	0.010
4. Residual invariance	1.824	0.924	0.014	0.061	0.002	0.070	0.011

Appendix 5.9: Goodness-of-Fit for newspaper (Boomers and Gen Y)

Model	χ^2/df	CFI	ΔCFI	RMSEA	$\Delta RMSEA$	SRMR	$\Delta SRMR$
1. Configural invariance	1.506	0.959		0.047		0.054	
2. Metric invariance	1.539	0.954	0.005	0.048	0.001	0.052	0.002
3. Scalar invariance	1.652	0.941	0.018	0.053	0.006	0.073	0.018
4. Residual invariance	1.778	0.925	0.034	0.058	0.011	0.075	0.021

Appendix 5.10: Goodness-of-Fit for Facebook (Boomers and Gen Y)

Model	χ^2/df	CFI	ΔCFI	RMSEA	$\Delta RMSEA$	SRMR	$\Delta SRMR$
1. Configural invariance	2.146	0.908		0.073		0.071	
2. Metric invariance	2.169	0.901	0.007	0.074	0.001	0.070	0.001
3. Scalar invariance	2.207	0.892	0.016	0.075	0.002	0.112	0.041
4. Residual invariance	2.310	0.875	0.033	0.078	0.005	0.114	0.043

Appendix 5.11: Goodness-of-Fit for ethnic-based events (Ethnic groups)

Model	X^2/df	CFI	ΔCFI	RMSEA	$\Delta RMSEA$	SRMR	$\Delta SRMR$
1. Configural invariance	1.646	0.905		0.055		0.085	
2. Metric invariance	1.662	0.895	-0.010	0.055	0.000	0.087	0.002
3. Scalar invariance	1.664	0.886	-0.019	0.055	0.000	0.169	0.083
4. Residual invariance	1.720	0.865	-0.040	0.058	0.003	0.176	0.091

Appendix 5.12: Goodness-of-Fit for international events (Ethnic groups)

Model	X^2/df	CFI	ΔCFI	RMSEA	$\Delta RMSEA$	SRMR	$\Delta SRMR$
1. Configural invariance	1.872	0.881		0.062		0.058	
2. Metric invariance	1.834	0.877	-0.004	0.061	-0.001	0.059	0.001
3. Scalar invariance	1.797	0.873	-0.008	0.059	-0.003	0.075	0.017
4. Residual invariance	1.787	0.863	-0.018	0.059	-0.003	0.076	0.018

Appendix 5.13: Goodness-of-Fit for ethnic-based brands (Ethnic groups)

Model	X^2/df	CFI	ΔCFI	RMSEA	$\Delta RMSEA$	SRMR	$\Delta SRMR$
1. Configural invariance	1.783	0.894		0.060		0.067	
2. Metric invariance	1.772	0.888	-0.006	0.059	-0.001	0.074	-0.008
3. Scalar invariance	1.731	0.885	-0.009	0.058	-0.002	0.152	-0.086
4. Residual invariance	1.812	0.860	-0.034	0.061	0.001	0.159	-0.093

Appendix 5.14: Goodness-of-Fit for international brands (Ethnic groups)

Model	X^2/df	CFI	ΔCFI	RMSEA	$\Delta RMSEA$	SRMR	$\Delta SRMR$
1. Configural invariance	1.719	0.895		0.057		0.060	
2. Metric invariance	1.743	0.883	-0.012	0.058	0.001	0.064	0.004
3. Scalar invariance	1.762	0.870	-0.025	0.058	0.001	0.082	0.022
4. Residual invariance	1.806	0.850	-0.045	0.060	0.003	0.086	0.026

