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Multi sponsored events: should I sponsor if they are? The multi-dimensionality of fit and its effect on brand judgements

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Multi-Sponsored Events: Should I Sponsor if they are? The Multi-Dimensionality of Fit and its Effect on Brand Judgments.

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Certification

This is to certify that the work presented in this dissertation is to the best of my knowledge and belief, original, except as acknowledged in the text, and that the work has not been previously submitted for a degree or diploma at Bond University or any other institution.

Signed:

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Abstract

Over the past decade sponsorship has shown high growth as a promotional vehicle. Research has found that positive fit between the event and the sponsor assists in information transference. Using current sponsorship literature this research extends current theory by; 1) identifying three dimensions determining fit; and 2) testing for the effect of sponsor-sponsor fit on brand judgments. Results suggest two dimensions primarily determine fit though both are not found together in either event-sponsor or sponsor-sponsor fit. It was also observed that this fit between sponsors did have an effect on brand attitudes and to be stronger than event-sponsor fit. Managerial implications and directions for future research are advanced in the conclusions.

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Chapter 1: Overview

1.1: Introduction.

Corporate spending on sponsorship grew 14% in 2000 compared with a 10% growth in advertising and a 6% growth in sales promotion (Roy and Cornwell, 2004). In 2004 an estimated US$28 billion was expended worldwide (IEG, 2003). For the International Olympic Committee sponsorship was the second highest revenue stream accounting for US$292 million dollars in the 2003 – 2004 financial year (IOC Auditors report, 2005). Corresponding with this growth as a communications vehicle, interest in sponsorship has spanned several academic literatures such as advertising, consumer behaviour, social psychology and strategy (Fahy, Farrelly and Quester, 2004; Cornwell, Weeks and Roy, 2005).

Given this growth, sponsorships investments need to be carefully managed to ensure their effectiveness (Fahy, Farrelly and Quester, 2004). From a strategic perspective, as competition in the sponsorship marketplace grows it becomes more challenging to attain an advantage over competitors. Companies investing in sponsorship need to understand how the strategic use of this resource can affect consumer judgments. It is through understanding the consumers "black box" that this strategic advantage can be obtained (Wernerfelt, 1984; Cornwell, Weeks and Roy, 2005).

Current consumer research in sponsorship suggests a schema congruency model (Gwinner and Eaton, 1999; Jagre, Watson and Watson, 2001; Cornwell, Weeks and Roy, 2005). Schema congruency theory (Mandler, 1975, 1982, 1984, 1990) maintains that storage and retrieval of information is influenced by the degree of similarity between

entities (Srull, 1981; Fiske and Taylor, 1991). Using this theory, current sponsorship research has focused on event-sponsor associations.

However, further research is required to understand the effect of sponsor-sponsor associations. For a company looking to invest in sponsorship it is important to understand the effect another brand sponsor has on brand judgments. With many events co-sponsored due to their size and cost, answering this question has clear practical import. Research in the branding literature has found associations between brands may affect consumer information processing and subsequent evaluation of brands (Aaker and Keller, 1990; Simonin and Ruth, 1998; Keller, 2003). As such, associations between brand entities may then influence the value of a sponsorship campaign.

1.2: Research Problem

Sponsorship can shape consumers' perceptions. This shaping occurs through perceived associations where strong associations enhance information transference between parties and shape brand attitudes. Through altering perceptions of a brand, these associations can then influence product choice (Keller, 2003).

Just as associations between the event and the sponsor influence consumer perceptions, so may associations between brands (Sujan, 1985; Fiske and Pavelchak, 1986; Aaker and Keller, 1990; Simonin and Ruth, 1998). Simonin and Ruth (1998) found brand attitudes to be influenced by the spillover effect of one brand influencing another brand. However, little research has explored such associations in sponsorship. From a sponsorship perspective then, would a potential sponsor's brand be affected by other event sponsors? It is proposed that consumer judgments *are* influenced by these extra associations. This research seeks to find:

1. *What dimensions form these associations in sponsorship and,*
2. *What effect do associations between sponsors have on brand judgments?*

1.4: Summary.

Fit between sponsorship entities needs further research. The starting supposition of this thesis is that fit in sponsorship possesses multiple associations. Not only are there associations to the event to consider, there are also associations between sponsors. Understanding these associations is important given their influence on consumer information processing and judgments. This then leads to the question: what happens to my brand when there are other event sponsors?

Two studies have been undertaken to evaluate these associations in sponsorship. Study one sought to establish what dimensions underlie these associations. Study two sought to test these dimensions on sponsor-sponsor associations and their effect on consumer brand judgments.

Chapter 2: Literature Review and Hypotheses.

2.1: Introduction

This chapter looks at the use of sponsorship as a marketing strategy. Firstly theories are advanced on the dimensions forming associations in sponsorship and secondly, on the influence of other sponsors on brand judgments. Hypotheses are developed to assess the theories advanced.

2.2: Why Sponsor an Event?

> *"The increasingly important role played by sponsorship in the marketing mix has given rise to the view that it should be considered a strategic activity with the potential to generate a sustainable competitive advantage in the marketplace"* (Fahy, Farrelly and Quester, 2004; p 1013).

Companies now link sponsorship with other marketing activities to create a sustainable advantage. Defined as the "orchestration of and implementation of marketing activities for the purpose of building and communicating an association to a sponsorship" (Cornwell, 1995; p 15), sponsorship-linked marketing can positively influence an organization's brand (Amis, Slack and Berrett, 1999). Given the increase in sponsorship activity, from a brand managers perspective it is imperative that sponsorship be carefully understood to ensure its effectiveness (Tripodi, 1998; Fahy, Farrelly and Quester, 2004).

The overriding aim of event sponsorship is to positively shape consumers' brand judgments through transference of information (Fahy, Farrelly and Quester, 2004). This transference of information assists in branding campaigns by helping increase brand awareness (D'Astous and Bitz, 1995; Keller, 2003), and by assisting in recall of

information (Stipp and Schiavone, 1996; Johar and Pham, 1999). But, not only does sponsorship assist in brand awareness, the increase in knowledge created through this transference of information also helps shape brand perceptions and purchase intentions (Javalgi, Traylor, Gross and Lampman, 1994, Gwinner, 1997; Gwinner and Eaton, 1999; Madrigal, 2001). Hence, sponsorship provides an opportunity to improve consumer perceptions of a company and increase favourability in brand choice, thereby helping to increase brand equity (Keller, 2003; Cornwell Weeks and Roy, 2005). It is the perceived associations between the event and the sponsor that provide this improvement (Cornwell and Maignan, 1998; Cornwell, Pruitt and Von Ness, 2001).

2.3: Associations in Sponsorship

Perceived associations between the event and the sponsor assist in information transference (Gwinner, 1997; Gwinner and Eaton, 1999; Cornwell, Pruitt and Von Ness, 2001). Many concepts explaining these associations have been advanced in the sponsorship literature and have been examined under labels such as compatibility, congruency, synergy and relatedness (Meenaghan, 1983; Parker, 1991; Johar and Pham, 1999; Cornwell, Weeks and Roy, 2005). Labeled as fit in the branding literature, it is this perceived fit created by these associations that increase brand knowledge and influence judgments (Keller, 2003). Given the importance of these associations, it would be of interest to further classify fit within sponsorship.

Johar and Pham (1999) define fit in sponsorship as *any* associative judgment between the event and the sponsor. From this perspective, consumer judgments may be founded on anything from tangible physical attributes associated with the event (e.g. tennis racquets and tennis), to the image associated with the event (e.g. prestige cars and

golf). Associations can also be founded upon benefit offered through usage of the product (e.g. when watching the event, this television provides greater clarity). Fit can therefore be deemed to imply any dimension upon which associations may be formed between the event and the sponsor (Keller, 2003). Further research was conducted in order to identify the dimensions found within sponsorship.

A canvassing of the growing body of literature on sponsorship suggests that fit exists on multiple dimensions (refer table 2.1). Most researchers contributing to this body of work identify two dimensions to fit: image and functionality (Gwinner and Eaton, 1999; Rifon, Choi, Trimble and Li, 2004). Rifon, Choi Trimble and Li's (2004) paper looking at fit in sponsorship defined "image based similarity" as indirect relevance and refers to the association between the core values of the sponsor and the sponsored event. For instance, a cola company sponsoring a music tour may focus on the fun and excitement of the event and the product. These authors go on to define "functional based similarity" as direct relevance to the event where participants may use the sponsor's product while taking part in the event. For example, a tire company's sponsorship of motor racing has functional-based fit as the product is used by competing teams. Thus, both image and functionality can be viewed as dimensions of fit.

Additional analysis of the literature suggests functionality can be separated into two further dimensions: usage and attributes. Attributes refers to the attributes the brand sponsors should have if they are to best serve the goals associated with the participants' performance during the event. For instance, given a tennis event, manufacturers of tennis equipment are more likely to have higher associations with the event than real estate agents. The attributes associated with the tennis equipment are more likely to help

competitors when participating in the event. Sponsors can thus have fit with the event based upon the dominant attributes associated with the event.

However, fit need not be applied to just the dominant attributes and the competitors. There is also the benefit offered to other stakeholders in the event: consumers and event management (Dean, 1999; Keller, 2003). For example, Seiko has been the official timer of the Olympics for years and Motorola, as part of their sponsorship of the 1996 Olympics, gave the organisation 10,000 two way radios, 6,000 pagers, 1,500 computer modems, and 1,200 cellular phones (Keller, 2003). A sponsor may then promote the benefit offered through usage of their product. Dean, (1999) found favorable associations for a sponsoring television brand advertising their product as a better means of viewing the event. From this perspective, the benefit obtained through usage of the product provides the associations as opposed to just the dominant attributes.

Table 2.1: Dimensions of Fit in Sponsorship.
(Articles in chronological order)

Author(s)	Definition of fit.	Dimensions of Fit
McDaniel (1999)	*Match-up:* Using advertising based schema fit the author states: "One of the implicit principles in the match-up hypothesis is that consumers have memory based expectations of the attributes embodied by celebrities, brands, and product categories". (p 168)	Image and Functional: "Advertising response is influenced by a perceived match (or similarity) between an endorsers image attributes, and/or the function of a product (as moderated by product category involvement)". (p 167).
Gwinner and Eaton. (1999).	*Congruence/ similarity:* "It can be argued that congruent event-brand information in the form of either functional or image based similarity will lead to enhanced image transfer." (p 49).	Functional or image. "Functional based similarity can occur when the sponsored brand is actually used by participants during the event. (p. 49). "Image based similarity has been described as occurring when the image of the event is related to the image of the brand." (p 49).
Dean. (1999).	*Linkage:* Using Heider's (1958) Balance Theory a "belief is out of balance and unstable if a lowly valued object is linked with a highly valued object." (p 4).	Benefit/usage: Quality: "is defined as an overall judgment of a brands excellence or superiority of performance (with respect to its intended purpose) relative to alternative brands." (p 2). Image: Esteem: "the degree to which the brand is held in high regard, is trusted by, and is respected by its valued customers". (p 2)
Speed and Thompson. (2000).	*Congruence:* "The response to a sports sponsorship is proposed to be affected by (1) attitudes towards the event, (2) attitudes towards the sponsor, and (3) perception of congruence between sponsor and event." (pp 227-228).	Image. "(1) There is a logical connection between the event and the sponsor, (2) the image of the event and the image of the sponsor are similar, (3) the sponsor and the event fit well together, (4) the sponsor and the event stand for similar things and , (5) it makes sense to me that this company sponsors this event". (p 231).

Keller (2003)	*Associations* "Events have their own set of associations that may become linked to a sponsoring brand under certain conditions." (p 381)	Image and Benefit/usage "Events can be chosen on attendee's attitudes and usage regarding certain products or brands." (p 317)
Ruth and Simonin. (2003).	*Congruency:* "Sponsorship research has investigated congruence effects in the past, where the focus is on understanding the 'fit' between the sponsor and the event itself." (p 22)	Functional and/or Image. "The transfer of image from the event to the brand was higher when the event and the sponsor were congruent in either functionality or image." (p 22).
Grohs, Wagner and Vsetecka. (2004)	*Link/synergy/similarity:* "Scientific literature has used numerous words to describe the fit between a sponsor and a sponsored activity, such as synergy, similarity, or link." (p 122).	Image and Functionality. "Generally, most authors distinguish between a functional fit and an image fit." (p 122).
Rifon, Choi, Trimble and Li (2004)	*Congruenc*e: "The study presented in this paper develops and tests a theoretical explanation for the effects of congruence on consumer attitude towards the sponsor of a cause." (p 29).	Functional and Image: "…direct relevance as 'functional based similarity' which occurs when the sponsor's product is used during the sponsorship event, and indirect relevance as 'image based similarity'…". (p 30).

To summarize, fit helps assist information transference. The concept of fit in sponsorship has been found to contain three dimensions: attributes benefit/usage and image. For marketers, the strategic use of fit and these dimensions must entail a focus on the consumer their decision making process. To achieve this, an understanding of how fit influences consumer information processing is required.

2.4: Associations and Information Processing in Sponsorship

Most researchers contributing to this body of work take the position that an event is a schema in the mind of the consumer (Cornwell, Weeks and Roy, 2005). Founded in Asch's (1946) configural model schemas define a consumer's knowledge about an event including features and relationships between these features (Collins and Quillian, 1963; Anderson and Bower, 1973; Meyer and Schvaneveldt, 1976). It is these structures that are used to evaluate information and to form attitudes (Fishbein, 1967; Cacioppo, Petty and Green, 1989; Fiske and Taylor, 1991).

Schemas form generalized information about the event and are shaped through the encoding of external information (Simon, 1978; Fiske and Taylor, 1991). That is, before any internal information management can occur, external information has to be processed. This external information is encoded into a representation in a person's long-term memory (Fiske and Taylor, 1991). Thus, information processing begins with the encoding of external information (Newell and Simon, 1972).

However, encoding is conducted within a given set of parameters. Encoding is not only dependent upon the processing system but also the context in which the task is taking place and the way in which the person views this task setting (Newell and Simon, 1972). Defined as the "basic problem space" (Simon, 1978; p 275), this setting

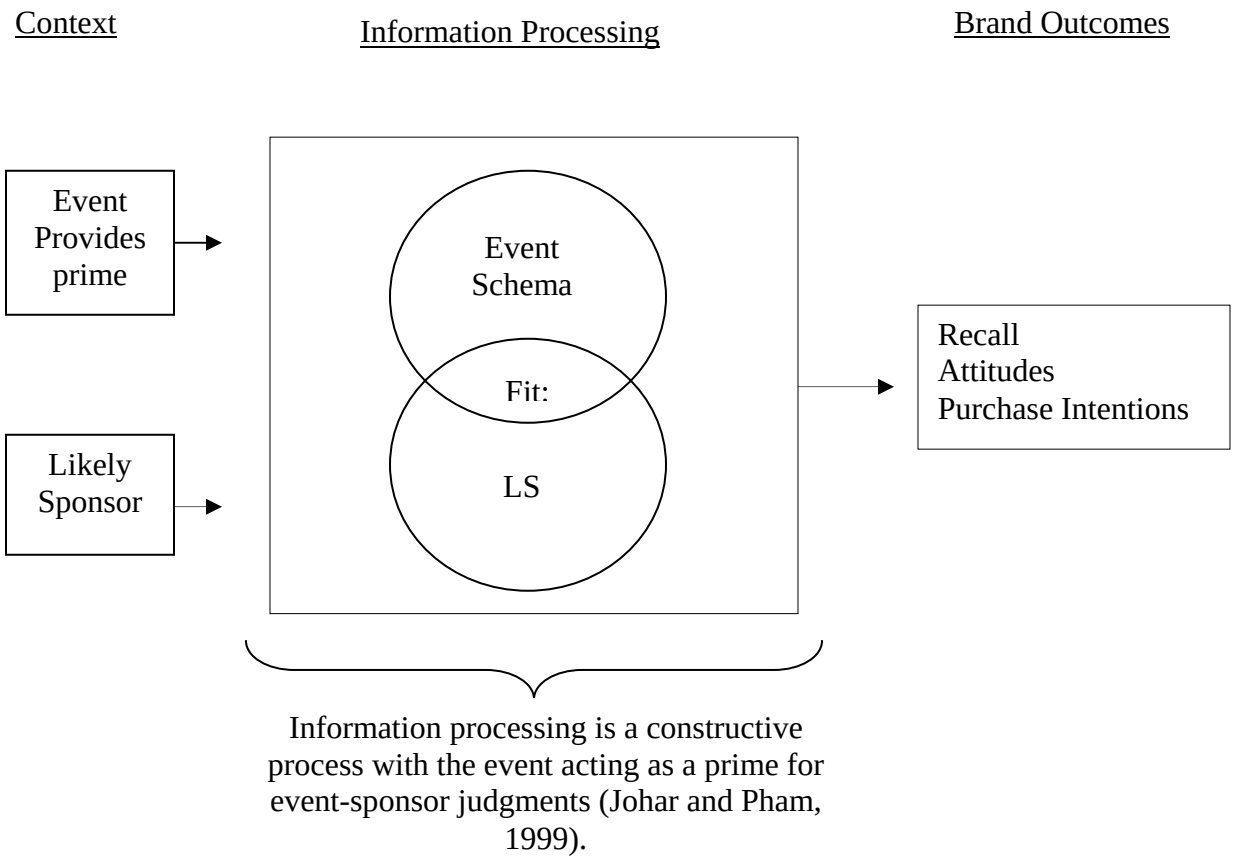
determines an initial set of interrelated nodes representing the knowledge a person may have on that environment. This knowledge is simply what the person knows about that environment at that particular point in time, in the sense that the information is available to them and can be retrieved easily (Simon, 1978). Further external information is either assimilated or rejected from this schema (Chaffin, 1981). An object is consequently salient *relative* to the perceiver's activated knowledge of a given context.

This activated knowledge effects the processing of further information. The application of activated knowledge to current stimuli is called priming and describes the effects of prior knowledge on the interpretation of further external information. For instance, in the social science literature it has been found that exposing people to positive or negative terms (e.g., adventurous versus reckless) causes people soon afterward to interpret behaviour (e.g., white water rafting) as correspondingly positive or negative because of the meaning that has been primed (Higgins, 1989; Fiske and Taylor, 1991). Thus, the context (e.g., adventurous versus reckless) acted as a prime, influencing interpretation of other external information (e.g., white water rafting).

These priming effects can be applied to sponsorship. By insertion of a likely sponsors brand (LS) within a given event, the event is acting as a prime by activating prior knowledge of that or similar events from a person's long term memory. The association of the LS brand to the event is then interpreted against this event schema, not the other way round (Chaffin, 1981). Taking the view that an event acts as a prime for initial schema formation, judgments therefore result from the associations between the primed event and likely sponsor.

Fit between entities is an important consideration as there should be no clash between them (Rao and Ruekert, 1994). Taking the view that a brand acts as a signal for perceived quality consumers may become confused when there is inconsistency between these entities (Wernerfelt, 1988; Park, Jun and Shocker, 1996; Rao, Qu and Ruekert, 1999; Keller, 2003). According to Levin and Levin (2000) consumer brand judgments are directly related to the degree of perceived associations between these entities. For example, a high quality event linked with a lowly perceived brand could create confusion and damage the images of both. This may not be so if the event linked with a high quality brand. Fit is thus constructed from the perceived associations between the primed event and the sponsor (Johar and Pham, 1999). Figure 2.1 shows this process.

Figure 2.1: Event as a Prime for Sponsor Evaluations.



2.4.1: Hypotheses.

As indicated previously, fit between the primed event and the sponsor can be based upon attributes. Focusing on the goal of the event and the performance of participants, this dimension refers to the perceived attribute associations between the event and with the sponsor. To be more precise, this dimension focuses on the attributes the sponsors' product should have if they are to match the ideal characteristics associated with the event (Rosch and Mervis, 1975; Tversky, 1977; Hodges and Hollenstein, 2001). For example, a sports shoe manufacturers sponsorship of a running event has attribute fit as the perceived attributes associated with the shoe may assist event participants when taking part in the event. Where the product shares common attributes associated with the goal of the event there is likely to be greater fit between the event and the sponsor (Gwinner and Eaton, 1999). That is, the higher the perceived attribute overlap between the event and the sponsor, the greater the fit (Tversky, 1977; Ward and Loken, 1986).

Hypothesis 1a: Greater perceived attribute overlap between the event and the sponsor will increase the perceived fit between the event and the brand sponsor.

Literature also points towards image being an important dimension in sponsor-event fit. Image looks at the match between the core values of the event and the sponsor (Grohs, Wagner and Vsetecka, 2004; Rifon, Choi, Trimble and Li, 2004). Take the message "celebrate the spectacle" (as used in the 2006 Indy 500 event in the U.S.) associations with an event using this message can then be based upon the image the event is trying to portray rather than particular attributes linked with the event. Hence, likely sponsors for an event using this message can base their campaign around this image

irrespective of whether or not they have attribute associations with the specific event. For example, Mercedes Benz may share no attribute associations with golf but consumers may perceive a similarity between the two through the image associated with both. Thus, sponsors need not be constrained by attributes associated with achieving the goal of the event; fit can be based upon the image the event is trying to portray.

Hypothesis 1b: Greater perceived image similarity between the event and the sponsor will increase the perceived fit between the event and the brand sponsor.

One of the central tenets of marketing is the benefit offered by the use of the product/service (Kotler, Brown, Adam and Armstrong, 2004). This may be applied to event-sponsor fit. Founded upon the benefit gained through use of the product this dimension focuses on the product providing benefits to the event (e.g. Motorola's sponsorship of the Olympics) or to the consumer (e.g. a television company promoting its product as a better way to watch the event). Therefore, a product perceived as offering some benefit/usage to the event management or event consumers, rather than event participants, is likely to have positive associations with the event.

Hypothesis 1c: Greater perceived benefit/usage between the event and the sponsor will increase the perceived fit between the event and the brand sponsor.

Although research on information processing and fit within sponsorship exists, gaps remain. No research has been conducted to examine these dimensions simultaneously. One method to address this gap is to specifically investigate each of the three dimensions and their effect on brand judgments. To formalize the previous

discussion and given model 1, brand judgments (B_o) may be expressed as a function of fit:

$$(B_o) = f(Y)$$

- Where:
    - Y = Holistic measure of fit.

Therefore, given a holistic measure of fit (Y) as indicative of the total associations found in sponsorship the general mathematical equation to investigate these dimensions may be expressed as:

$$Y = e(A, B, I)$$

- Where:
    - A = Attribute fit
    - B = Benefit/usage fit
    - I = Image fit

Analysis using this model should help clarify the existence of each individual dimension.

However, a gap still remains in our knowledge regarding how other sponsors influence brand judgments. Given that modern events have multiple brand sponsors, it certainly seems that research on their influence on brand judgments is required.

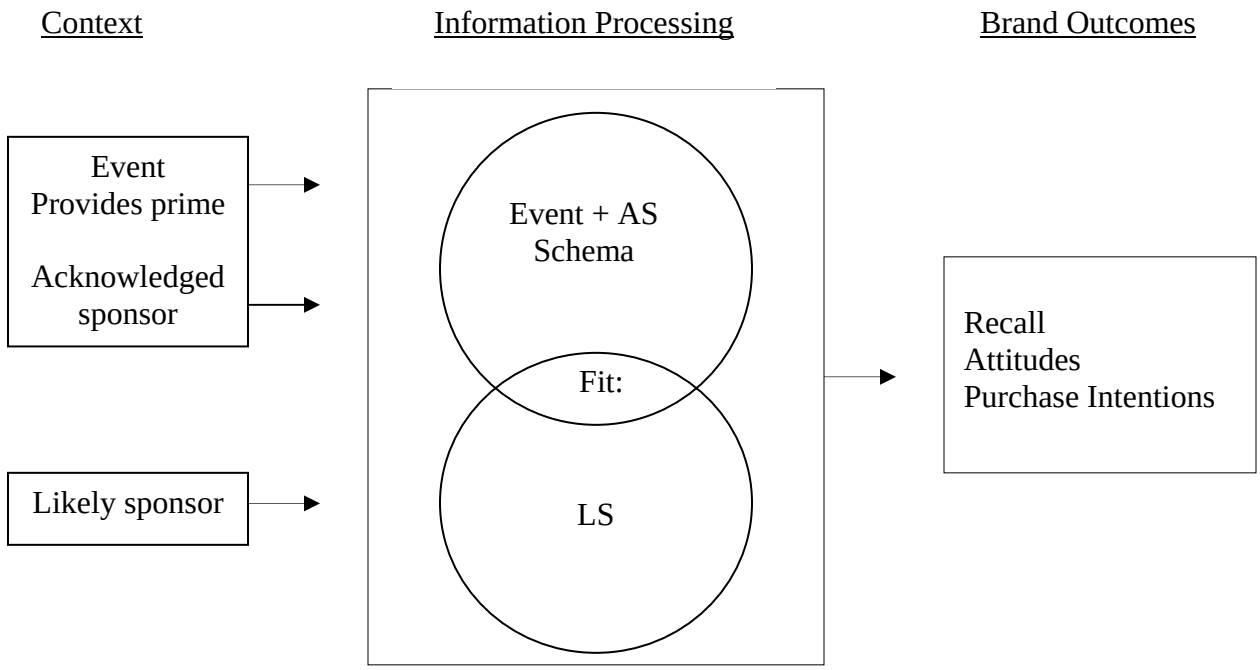
2.5: Multi-Sponsored Events

Modern events are expensive and, as such, have become dependent upon multiple sponsors. Take for instance the Indy 300 motor race on the Gold Coast, Australia. This major event has Lexmark, Bartercard, Falken tires, VB, Gillette, Coca-Cola, and Carsguide as sponsors, just to name a few. It would make sense that an organisation

wishing to sponsor this event should consider the effects of these other sponsors. Despite this, little research has been done involving other sponsors and their effect on brand judgments.

Information processing theory proposes that attitudes and beliefs are modified and integrated as people receive and assimilate more information (Anderson, 1981; Fiske and Taylor, 1991). From a sponsorship perspective the addition of an acknowledged sponsor (AS) to the event changes the information contained within the event context. No longer are there just associations with the event to consider, there are also associations to the AS that may enter into consumer information processing. As such, information processing now includes information on both the event and the AS (refer figure 2.2).

Figure 2.2: Addition of Acknowledged Sponsor on Information Processing.



However, there is a lack of theory on the effect of other sponsors. There is the possibility that fit between the AS and LS may have a greater influence on brand outcomes than Event-LS fit. It may be that only one or all the fit dimensions may be found between sponsors. A further possibility is that the AS may have no effect on LS brand judgments at all. However, current branding literature would suggest that fit between sponsors would have a positive influence on brand judgments.

2.5.1: Other Sponsors and Consumer Judgments.

Fit between brand sponsors cannot be ignored. When brand entities have some perceived association to each other transference of information is positively influenced, and improves promotional leverage (Sujan, 1985; Fiske and Pavelchak, 1986; Aaker and Keller, 1990; Keller, 2003). For example, the Intel and IBM relationship is founded on the perceived synergy of both being able to produce better computing power. This then indicates that associations between brands have an influence on information processing and brand evaluations (Simonin and Ruth, 1998).

With events having multiple sponsors these associations are likely to influence decision-making. Where the event incorporates a known sponsor (AS), no longer are LS brand judgments solely dependent upon Event-LS associations. Judgments can now also be influenced by the sponsor-sponsor associations. Thus, brand judgments (e.g. recall, attitude, intentions) may be affected by fit between brands.

2.5.2: Hypotheses

2.5.2.1: Recall.

Brand retrieval is perceptually separate from brand evaluation as brand awareness is a necessary precondition for retrieval and subsequent brand choice (Nedungadi, 1990).

Researching the effects of brand priming on recall, Nedungadi (1990) makes the point that brand accessibility will depend upon three factors: strength of activation of the brand node (frequency, recency and salience), strength of association between the brand node and other activated nodes, and the availability of retrieval cues. Using major versus minor brands as primes, it was found for memory-based choice the probability of choosing a brand was dependent upon the associations between the brand and *any* cues used to access brand information (Nedungadi, 1990). Transposing this to sponsorship, this suggests brand retrieval will likely be greater for sponsors having greater associations with each other.

Hypothesis 2a: Brand recall will be positively influenced by a perceived positive fit between brand sponsors.

2.5.2.2: Attitudes

It is generally acknowledged that attitudes intervene between the observed stimulus and the subsequent response. Related to the beliefs held by an individual, attitudes play an important part in the evaluation of objects (Fiske and Taylor, 1991). With a given event acting as a prime, attitudes towards a sponsor are likely to be influenced by fit between the event and the sponsor. Johar and Pham (1999) found fit between an event and a sponsor to influence consumer information processing and subsequent judgments. Thus, event-sponsor fit influences brand attitudes.

This influence on attitudes also applies to fit between sponsors. Positive fit between brands in different product categories has been found to positively increase brand attitudes (Aaker and Keller, 1990). Branding literature suggests associations between different brands in difference product categories accesses related attitudes and

beliefs about the brands stored in memory. These pre-existing attitudes towards the brands are then modified by the perceived fit between the brands (Simonin and Ruth, 1998). As such, associations between brands have the potential to change attitudes. From a sponsorship perspective, brands possessing high fit with each other are likely to have a positive impact on brand attitudes.

Hypothesis 2b: Brand attitudes will be positively influenced by a perceived positive fit between brand sponsors.

2.5.2.3: Intentions

The attitude-intentions relationship plays an important part in human behaviour. Intentions based upon attitudes have been found to be better predictors of everyday behaviors than intentions based upon subjective norms, with positive attitudes showing a positive influence on behaviour (Sheeran, Norman and Orbell, 1999; Ajzen, 2000). This would suggest if event-sponsor and sponsor-sponsor fit shapes attitudes so may it shape purchase intentions. For example, if fit were found to influence brand attitudes, intentions may also differ accordingly. From a sponsor's perspective:

Hypothesis 2c: Brand intentions will be positively influenced by a perceived positive fit between brand sponsors.

2.5.2.4: Dimensions between Brand Sponsors

While fit may consist of three dimensions, the use of sponsorship as a strategy would suggest not all of them need apply between brand sponsors. One may assume the greater the attribute similarity between products, the greater the chance of being in the same product category. However, one of the major advantages of sponsorship strategy is exclusivity of product category within the event (Fahy, Farrell, and Quester, 2004). For

instance, if Coke were to sponsor an event other soft drink/soda pop producers would not be allowed to sponsor the same event. Given this exclusivity, attribute similarity is therefore less likely to have a significant influence on associations between sponsors. This lack of the attribute associations must then reduce the importance of this dimension of fit. Hypotheses were developed to test this theory.

Hypothesis 3a: Positive perceived benefit/usage will have a positive effect on perceived fit between brand sponsors.

Hypothesis 3b: Positive perceived image similarity will have a positive effect on perceived fit between brand sponsors.

Hypothesis 3c: Attributes will have no significant effect on perceived fit between brand sponsors.

Given model 2 is an extension of model 1, brand outcomes for a LS may be expressed as a function of the perceived associations both to the event and to the acknowledged sponsor:

$$B_o = f'(Y_1, Y_2)$$

- Where:
  - B_o =Judgment for Likely Sponsor.
  - Y_1 = Event-LS Fit = e(A, B, I)
  - Y_2 = AS-LS Fit = s(A, B, I)

2.6: Moderators

However, sponsorship is not as simple as model 2 would suggest. There are some caveats in the literature as other factors can influence information processing. These factors confound the relationships and must therefore be accounted for. Two known

factors include gender effects and consumer knowledge. For instance, McDaniel (1999) found female subjects to have more favorable responses towards sponsorship advertising than males.

2.6.1: Gender

It has been suggested that males and females differ in their information processing and judgments (Meyers-Levy, 1988; Meyers-Levy and Maheswaran, 1991). Meyers-Levy (1988) found gender effects in information processing with male judgments sensitive to the favorableness of only self-relevant information. However, females were sensitive to both self- and other-relevant information. As such they may be thought of as comprehensive information processors (Meyers-Levy and Sternthal, 1991). Consistent with this research, Darley and Smith (1995) found females to consider both subjective and objective product attributes and responded to subtle cues. Males on the other hand were selective information processors using heuristic processing and missing the subtle cues. Given this difference in information processing, it is important to reduce and measure for this moderator. It is through controlling for this particular confound that we can directly measure the issues at hand.

2.6.2: Consumer Knowledge.

Some schemas are stronger due to consumer knowledge (Brucks, 1985; Alba and Hutchinson, 1987). According to Pope and Vogues (1999) knowledge of the brand name and use of the product prior to the sponsorship has been shown to effect corporate image. The implication being, the greater the knowledge, the greater the perceptual links in consumers' memory and the greater the information transference. Samu, Krishnan and Smith (1999) suggest that this knowledge affects brand recognition, brand recall, and

consideration set formation. Consumer knowledge therefore influences consumers' information processing and judgment.

Two forms of consumer knowledge have been identified in the academic literature: familiarity and instantiation (Barsalou, 1983, 1985; Alba and Hutchinson, 1987).

2.6.2.1: Familiarity.

Seminal studies on consumer knowledge found differences in information processing and brand evaluation resulting from brand familiarity (Fazio, 1986; Alba and Hutchinson, 1987; Fazio, 1989). According to Fazio (1986, 1989) attitudes for less familiar brands may be weaker in regards both strength and accessibility. Correspondingly, Bettman and Sujan, (1987) found that liking for a brand is prone to be well established and stable for familiar brands. These overall results indicate the importance of familiarity in information processing.

This applies to sponsorship. Johar and Pham (1999), suggest judgments in sponsorship to be dependent upon both fit to the event and the market prominence of the brand. In their research, they found familiar brands to be not only more accessible in memory, they were also perceived as more plausible sponsors of large scale events. Thus, sponsor identification was biased towards brands of which consumers' were more familiar.

Familiarity also applies to fit between brands. Consistent with information integration and accessibility theories Simonin and Ruth (1998) found brand attitudes to be sensitive to the levels of brand familiarity for brands forming an association. As such, brand familiarity between sponsors figures in consumer evaluations.

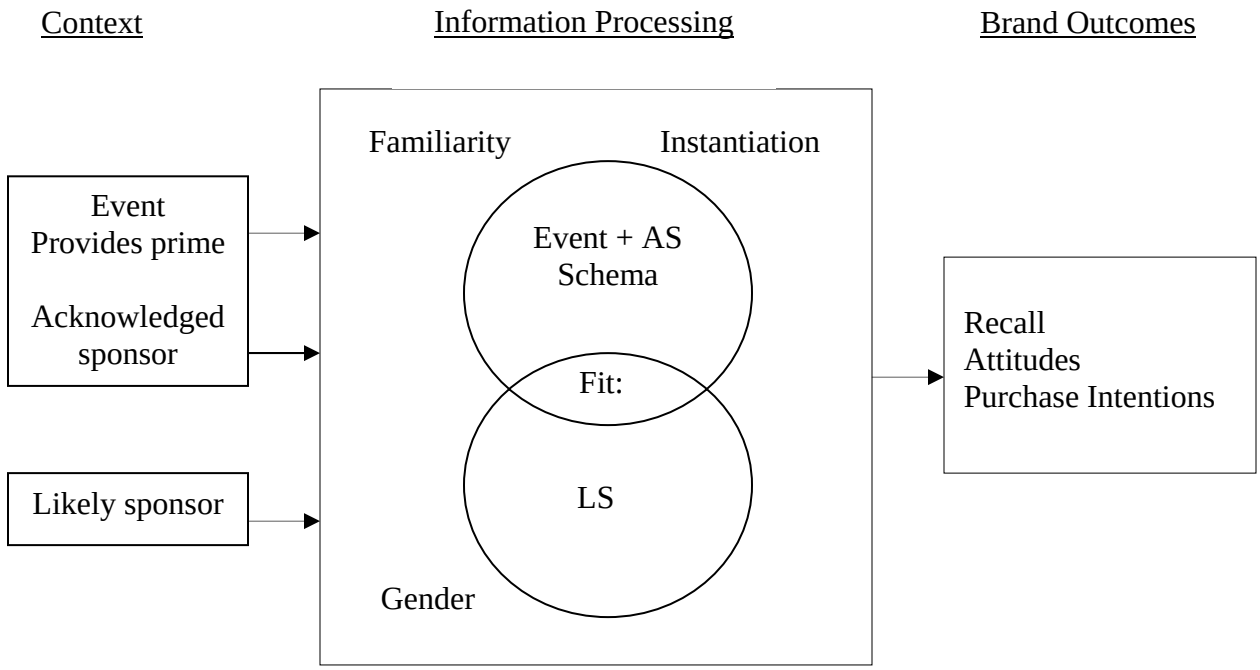
2.6.2.2: Instantiation.

While familiarity is general knowledge about an item, instantiation is knowledge of the frequency with which an item appears as a member of a particular category (Barsalou, 1985). These two forms of consumer knowledge are conceptually different. One may be familiar with a brand but not know of the events it sponsors. For instance, one may be familiar with Network Video, but not be aware that it sponsored the Indy 300 event on the Gold Coast. Conversely, one may know of a brand that undertakes sponsorship but have less knowledge of them in marketplace. For instance, one may know of Bartercard sponsoring the Indy 300 event but have little knowledge of them in the marketplace – is it a credit card or a company? Accordingly, knowledge about events may also contain a great deal of detailed information including its associated sponsors (Heit and Barsalou, 1996).

Therefore the principle of instantiation can influence consumer information processing. Sponsors should enter into consideration based not only on consumer knowledge of their market prominence, but also on consumer knowledge of events and their sponsors. Take for instance Coca-Cola; though it may not be undertaking a specific sponsorship, acceptance of it as a sponsor may be largely due to the number of sponsorships Coca-Cola has adopted. Like familiarity, instantiation is likely to moderate fit within sponsorship.

Given these extra factors influencing information processing in sponsorship, the model should then include these moderators. Figure 2.3 shows these new variables.

Figure 2.3: Event and Acknowledged Sponsor as a Prime for Sponsor Evaluations.



Given the influencing factors in information processing the general mathematical equation for figure 2.3 may now be expressed as:

$$B_o = f'(e[A, B, I] + s[A, B, I] + [G + Fam + Inst])$$

- Where:
  - B_o = Brand outcomes.
  - e(A, B, I) = Event-LS Fit (attributes, benefit/usage, image)
  - s(A, B, I) = AS-LS Fit (attributes, benefit/usage, image)
  - G = Gender
  - Fam = Familiarity
  - Inst = Instantiation

2.7: Summary

There is a need for more theoretical activity in sponsorship (Ruth and Simonin, 2003). Current literature suggests fit to be multi-dimensional and includes fit to the event and other sponsors. This research puts forward that; 1) there are three dimensions determining fit, and 2) associations between sponsors influence brand judgments. Hypotheses 1 and 3 relate to the testing of the dimensions determining fit, while hypothesis 2 refers to the influence of associations between sponsors on consumer brand judgments: recall, attitudes and purchase intentions (refer table 2.2).

Table 2.2: Hypotheses Summary

Hypotheses No.		*Hypotheses*
Hypothesis 1	**a**	Greater perceived attribute overlap between the event and the sponsor will increase the perceived fit between the event and the brand sponsor.
	b	Greater perceived image similarity between the event and the sponsor will increase the perceived fit between the event and the brand sponsor.
	c	Greater perceived benefit/usage between the event and the sponsor will increase the perceived fit between the event and the brand sponsor.
Hypothesis 2	**a**	Brand recall will be positively influenced by a perceived positive fit between brand sponsors.
	b	Brand attitudes will be positively influenced by a perceived positive fit between brand sponsors.
	c	Brand intentions will be positively influenced by a perceived positive fit between brand sponsors..
Hypothesis 3	**a**	Positive perceived benefit/usage will have a positive effect on perceived fit between brand sponsors.
	b	Positive perceived image similarity will have a positive effect on perceived fit between brand sponsors.
	c	Attributes will have no significant effect on perceived fit between brand sponsors.

Chapter 3: Methodology and Pre-tests

3.1: Introduction

One of the major arguments of this research is the multi-dimensionality of fit in sponsorship. Two studies have been proposed. The first study tests for each dimension as found within event-sponsor associations. Study two extends current research by testing the same dimensions on sponsor-sponsor associations and their added effect on brand judgments.

3.2: Study One

Study one used a non-experimental field study design to increase the generalisability of the findings. Field studies provide a design that is "likely to occur in the normal course of the subjects' lives, that is, the 'real world'" (Aronson, Brewer and Carlsmith, 1985, p. 482). While there is debate over the use of realism in research versus the artificiality of laboratory settings, the answer to this argument depends upon the specific questions asked within a given situation and the kind of answers sought. As the overall objective of study one is to test for the dimensions of fit as found in sponsorship, the use of field research was felt appropriate to increase the external validity of the findings. That is, the research is describing what does happen in the real world, rather than does it happen at all, therefore increasing the generalisability of any findings (Pedhazur and Schmelkin, 1991).

One of the major differences between an experimental and a non-experimental design is the direction of the inferences. In experimental designs inferences are made from the independent variables to the dependent variable, while for non-experimental research inferences are generally made in the opposite direction (Churchill, 1995).

Beginning with a dependent variable, attempts are made to detect, or uncover, the independent variables (Pedhazur and Schmelkin, 1991). This indicates a single stage model in which the dependent variable is said to be affected by a set of intercorrelated independent variables.

One means to analyze non-experimental designs is through correlational research (Cook and Campbell, 1979). As indicated in chapter 2, where holistic fit is indicative of the total associations found in sponsorship, the general model to test for these correlations may be expressed as:

$$Y = e(A, B, I)$$

The major threat to the validity of a non-experimental design originates from uncontrolled confounding variables (Pedhazur and Schmelkin, 1991; Churchill, 1995). Literature suggests both gender and consumer knowledge to play such a part in consumer judgments. Adding these potential confounding variables into the general model above, the mathematical equation may now be expressed as:

$$Y = A + B + I + G + Fam + Inst$$

Where:

- Y = Holistic measure of fit.
- A = Attribute fit
- B = Benefit/usage fit
- I = Image fit
- G = Gender
- Fam = Familiarity
- Inst = Instantiation

This equation was used to investigate each dimension.

3.2.1: Questionnaire Design

Multiple events and brands were used to remove potential biases. Given that each event and brand can have its own set of characteristics, it was felt that the use of multiple brands and multiple events would help minimize any potential event or brand specific effects (Parker, 1991; Keller, 2003). To achieve this minimization each brand was measured on each dimension over multiple events.

To provide scale standardisation the dimensions were measured using a 10-point Likert scale anchored with strongly disagree (1) and strongly agree (10). While it may be noted that a 5-point scale is generally used to measure fit, for this research a 10-point scale was used for two reasons. Firstly, a 10 point scale provides a greater degree of sensitivity within the dimensions and secondly, to have the respondents think more about the issue so as to give a preference (Pedhazur and Schmelkin, 1991; Zikmund, 2003). Though there is still lack of agreement on the use of even or odd numbered scales, the general conclusion is that if one is using only the extreme points for evaluating an idea, either could be used (Churchill, 1995). For a copy of the questionnaire refer appendix 1.

Compliant with the ethical issues associated with human subject research each questionnaire included a cover page acknowledging the right of any respondent to not participate in the research, or to withdraw at any stage. This is in accordance with the guidelines offered by Griffith University (Griffith University Ethics Committee approval number MKT/14/04/HREC). For a copy of the ethical clearance form refer appendix 2.

3.2.1.2: Event-Sponsor Associations

Firstly, a statement was provided to bring to mind perceptions of event-sponsor associations. Information was given on how to respond to the given statement:

> *I would like your opinion concerning how good of a fit you think each of the following sponsors would be if they were to sponsor an International* [name of event]. *You may, for example, think that some brands would make more appropriate sponsors than would other brands. You will also be asked to indicate your general awareness of each sponsor. There are no right or wrong answers, so please be honest.*
>
> *In the tables that follow, on a scale of 1-10 (1 being strongly disagree and 10 being strongly agree), please answer the statements given. There are no right or wrong answers. We are only interested in your honest opinion. (Please circle your response).*

Holistic fit was measured first. Adapted from Loken and Ward (1990) this multi-item construct was measured using such terms as "exemplar goodness", "typicality", and "representativeness", resulting in the following items:

- [Name of brand] *is an extremely good example of an International* [name of event] *sponsor.*
- [Name of brand] *is very typical of an International* [name of event] *Event sponsor.*
- [Name of brand] *is very representative of an International* [name of event] *Event sponsor.*

Attribute Fit

Items developed to measure attribute fit focused on feature, characteristic and attribute similarity. This resulted in the following set of items:

- *The features I associate with* [name of brand] *complement the features I associate with* [name of event].

- *The characteristics of* [name of brand] *and* [name of event] *are similar.*
- [Name of brand] *and* [name of event] *share similar attributes.*

Benefit/usage Fit

For this dimension measures were adapted from Keller (2003) and Varadarajan (1986) with an additional question referring specifically to benefit. This resulted in the following three item measure:

- [Name of brand] *and* [name of event] *can be used together in certain situations.*
- [Name of brand] *and* [name of event] *are very complementary in use.*
- *The factors I associate with* [name of brand] *provide the same benefit as those I associate with* [name of event].

Image Fit

Adapted from Gwinner and Eaton (1999) and using such terms as "similarity", "ideas", and "difference" the following set of items were developed:

- [Name of brand] *and* [name of event] *have a similar image.*
- *The ideas I associate with* [name of brand] *are similar to the ideas I associate with* [name of event].
- *My image of* [name of brand] *is no different from the image I have of* [name of event].

3.2.1.2: Moderators

Familiarity

Brand judgments are affected by general brand awareness. This brand awareness was measured using Simonin and Ruth's (1998) measures of familiarity. Respondents rated their familiarity using the following items:

- *I am very familiar with* [sponsor's brand name].
- *I can easily recognize* [sponsor's brand name].

Instantiation

Instantiation was adapted from Barsalou's (1985) category specific measures of instantiation using the following items:

- [Sponsor's brand name] *frequently sponsors International* [name of event].
- *I have often seen* [sponsor's brand name] *sponsor International* [name of event].

The demographic question of gender was placed at the end of the questionnaire.

3.2.2: Data Collection

Data was collected from the general public on the Gold Coast of Australia. Using a self administered questionnaire, 90 respondents rated each brand on each dimension over multiple events. Questionnaires possessing missing data were removed from further analysis. This within subjects design resulted in 320 observations per measure (4 brands x 80 respondents).

3.3: Study Two.

More use of experimental methodology is required in sponsorship (Cornwell and Maignan, 1998). Using such a design the goal of study 2 is to evaluate sponsor-sponsor

associations. This study extended current research by firstly testing for the same three dimensions within sponsor-sponsor fit, and then adding this fit into the consumers' brand judgments. From the literature it was predicted that fit between sponsors will have an effect on brand outcomes. Specifically, positive associations will have a positive effect on sponsor recall, attitudes and purchase intentions. Incorporating the moderating variables defined in the literature review the model testing this theory was expressed as:

$$B_o = f'[e(A, B, I) + s(A, B, I) + (G + Fam + Inst)]$$

- Where:
    - B_o = Brand outcomes.
    - e(A, B, I) = Event-LS Fit (attributes, benefit/usage, image)
    - s(A, B, I) = AS-LS Fit (attributes, benefit/usage, image)
    - G = Gender
    - Fam = Familiarity
    - Inst = Instantiation

3.3.1: Experimental Design

An advantage in experimental design is control of extraneous factors that may be found in field studies. This provides a better understanding of whether relationships do exist through manipulation of the controlled variables. As such, study 2 is testing just the relationships rather than where or with whom they exist specifically. A post measure design has been employed to compare these relationships.

$$X_N\ O.$$

Using this design, relationships to the dependent variable as measured in the observations (O) may be attributed to the manipulated variable(s) (X_N). By randomly

assigning subjects to different levels of the manipulated variable(s) relationships to the dependent variable are whatever that manipulated variable may represent. Analysis of such a design is achieved through regression of the dependent variable against the independent variables (Pedhazur and Schmelkin, 1991).

Multiple events and brands were again used to reduce potential event specific effects (Parker, 1991).

3.3.2: Data Collection

Scenarios identifying events and brand sponsors were randomly assigned to 202 undergraduate marketing students. Questionnaires found to possess missing data were removed from further analysis resulting in a total of 171 observations for study 2.

The scenarios were delivered in the form of a media release. Media releases provide an effective means to impart ecological validity and flexibility in an experimental setting (Cornwell, Humphreys, Maguire and Tellegen, 2004). Under the guise of assessing the quality of news articles, so as not to pre-empt the true nature of the research, the experiment was administered over distinct stages. The procedure and development of each stage will now be discussed.

3.3.3: Procedural Measures

Using the pretext of assessing mistakes built into news articles five separate steps were undertaken. An unrelated item was evaluated first to develop the deception. Students were then asked to read three different media releases, the middle one of which was the manipulated sports release. Following another unrelated filler task to reduce recency effects, recall was measured, followed by attitudes and intentions towards the brand sponsors. Thus, the experiment involved five separate stages (refer table 3.1):

Table 3.1: Experimental Procedure.

1	2	3	4	5
Un-related media evaluation task	Stimulus	Un-related filler task	Recall	Attitudes and Intentions

3.3.3.1: Stage One

Every participant was given a master envelope containing five smaller numbered envelopes; one for each stage of the procedure. Subjects were requested to open envelope number one. This questionnaire contained a small news article intended to deceive the participants of the true nature of the experiment. Subjects first answered general questions on requirements of news article and then were asked to identify a number of mistakes deliberately placed in the article. At the end of this stage subjects were asked to return the completed questionnaire back into envelop 1 and seal it. For a copy of the questionnaire refer appendix 3.

3.3.3.2: Stage Two

In the second stage subjects read three news items, the second of which was the manipulated sports media release. Whilst releases may provide ecological validity and flexibility, they can also be complex in their construction (Cornwell, Humphreys, Maguire and Tellegen, 2004). In developing the press releases every attempt was made to match the content for each scenario. Adapting the format developed by the above authors, the press release was a passage of text, six sentences in length, announcing sponsorship deals between the event and two brands.

In the first three sentence paragraph, the beginning sentence gave the name of the acknowledged sponsor, a brief description of the brand, and the name of the event. The

second sentence described the event and nature of how the sponsor will be associated with it. The third sentence was designed to be a filler sentence containing non-essential information having no bearing on the reason for the sponsorship.

The second paragraph, a paraphrase of the first, was designed to introduce the likely brand sponsor. Replicating the sequence above, it contained a brief description of the sponsor with the fifth and sixth sentences acting as filler sentences and balancing out the number of times both brands were mentioned. Thus, subjects read the following generic media release:

> *Today*, [name of acknowledged sponsor], *one of the most well-known* [name of marketplace] *in the world, announced the beginning of a five-year sponsorship deal with the* [name of sport context]. *The management of* [name of sport context] *explained that over the course of their contract* [name of acknowledged sponsor] *would be given rights to the Australasian Tour schedule incorporating events in Australia, New Zealand, and China. A spokesperson from* [name of acknowledged sponsor] *indicated that the finer details had yet to be finalised but management were excited to be part of this sponsorship deal.*
>
> *A representative from the* [name of sport context] *also indicated that other potential sponsors were yet to be finalised but revealed that well-known* [name of marketplace] *manufacturer* [name of likely sponsor] *was 99% certain to take up the offer. Though still in the negotiation phase a spokesperson from* [name of likely sponsor] *stated that they would be delighted to be involved in the event. Both the* [name of sport context] *and* [name of likely sponsor] *are hoping that a decision will be reached later in the week.*

This format maintained equality within the press releases. In each release the event was mentioned four times with both brand sponsors mentioned three times along with a picture of each sponsor's logo. After reading the articles subjects then placed the articles back onto the envelope and sealed it. For copies of all stimulus conditions refer appendix 4.

3.3.3.3: Stage Three

The objective of this task was to clear short-term memory. Subjects had two minutes to respond to questions pertaining to movie viewing, a totally separate topic from sponsorship (refer appendix 5). At the end of this period subjects placed the completed questionnaire back into the appropriate envelope and sealed it.

3.3.3.4: Stage Four.

For this stage subjects were asked to recall the event used in the sport media release along with the brand sponsors. Subjects were asked the following question:

> *"In stage 2 you read three articles. One of the articles had to do with a media release about a sporting event. Can you name the sporting event? Can you name the sponsor or sponsors?"*

Space was given below for responses to this open-ended question (refer appendix 6). At the completions of this task subjects placed the completed questionnaire back into the appropriate envelope and sealed it.

3.3.3.5: Stage Five

The dimensions of fit, brand attitudes and intentions along with consumer knowledge were measured in this fifth and final stage. After opening the envelope subjects responded to questions pertaining to these variables.

3.3.3.5.1: Questionnaire Design

The same items from study one were used to measure the sponsor-sponsor dimensions by substituting the name of the event for the name of the other sponsor. For example: "[Name of brand A] *and* [name of brand B] *have a similar image"*. However, the holistic measure of sponsor-sponsor fit was adapted from Simonin and Ruth (1998)

and Ruth and Simonin (2003) and incorporated the terms “combination” and “fit” as well as “complement”. This resulted in the following set of items:

- *The* [name of brand entity A] *and the* [name of brand entity B] *are a very good product combination.*
- *The* [name of brand entity A] *and the* [name of brand entity B] *fit very well together.*
- *The* [name of brand entity A] *and the* [name of brand entity B] *complement each other.*

Again instructions were given on how to evaluate these sponsor-sponsor associations and gave an overview to the purpose of these questions. This comprised the statement:

> *It is believed that some brands form a better relationship or fit with each other than do others. For instance you may think that the Gillette brand and the Disney brand would form a better or worse “fit” than would the Mattel brand and the Toys ‘R’ Us brand.*
>
> *In the tables that follow, on a scale of 1-10 (1 being strongly disagree and 10 being strongly agree), please answer the statements given. There are no right or wrong answers. We are only interested in your honest opinion. (Please circle your response).*

Added to this questionnaire were the attitude and intentions items. Again all items (including attitudes and intentions) were measured using a 10 point Likert scale anchored with strongly disagree (1) and strongly agree (10) to provide scale standardization. For a copy of the questionnaire refer appendix 7.

Attitudes

Brand attitudes form the basis for consumer action with behaviour towards the brand often defined in terms of the consumers' overall attitude (Keller, 2003). Brand attitudes were calculated using Ruth and Simonin's (2003) three item measure which included item two being reverse coded.

- *Overall my attitude towards the* [name of brand] *is positive.*
- *My overall attitude towards the* [name of brand] *is unfavorable.*
- *Generally I have a good attitude towards the* [name of brand].

Purchase Intentions

To increase correspondence between purchase intentions and actual purchase, it is important to specify, the exact circumstance involved, the purpose of the purchase, the location of the purchase and the time of the purchase (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980; Keller, 2003). To accommodate this, individual scenarios were advanced for each brand. For example, the following scenario for Mercedes Benz was developed:

> *"Assume that your car broke down and could not be inexpensively repaired. You went around to all your favourite car dealers and found all the different brands competitively priced for the style of car you require. How likely would you be to purchase a Mercedes Benz car?"*

Compliant with the ethical issues associated with human subject research each questionnaire included a cover page acknowledging the right of any respondent to not participate in the research, or to withdraw at any stage. This is in accordance with the guidelines offered by Griffith University (Griffith University Ethics Committee approval number MKT/05/05/HREC). For a copy of the ethical clearance form and response refer appendix 8.

Events and brands for use in both studies were determined through pretests.

3.4: Pre-tests.

Pretests were undertaken to help reduce potential confounds present in event sponsorship and to confirm to current use of sponsorship as a marketing strategy. This consisted of: 1/ refining events, 2/ identifying brand sponsor and product categories for those events and, 3/ selection of brand sponsors.

3.4.1: Pre-test 1

Pretest 1 was conducted to minimize gender effects and nationality effect. It has been found that males and females differ in their mental processing (Meyers-Levy, 1988; Meyers-Levy and Sternthal, 1991 Darley and Smith, 1995). Given these differences in information processes pre-test 1 sought to reduce this potential confound. Also sports sponsorship is now a global medium (Cunningham, Taylor and Reeder, 1993; Miyazaki and Morgan, 2001; Fahy, Farrell and Quester, 2004). Marketers are now using this media vehicle to cross both social and geographic cultural borders (Amis, Slack and Berrett, 1999). Events chosen needed to possess no nationality effects.

A questionnaire was given out to 46 undergraduate marketing students. Respondents were asked to rate their degree of interest in twelve world sports. Sports events were used for the research as approximately 70% of sponsorship funding goes to this marketplace (Keller, 2003). Events were selected based upon their being included in the Olympics and/or holding a world championship. Events included: Motor Car Racing, Tennis, Rugby League, Cricket, Association Football/Soccer, Rugby Union, Netball, Beach Volleyball, Triathlon, Swimming, Basketball, and Golf. Ratings were measured using a seven-point Likert scale anchored with very interested (7) and very uninterested (1). At the end of the questionnaire respondents were asked to indicate their gender and nationality. For a copy of the questionnaire refer appendix 9.

3.4.1.1: Results

Refinement involved two-steps. First, gender effects were assessed using a t-test. A t-test was chosen due to its ability to assess statistical differences between two independent sample means where individual group sizes may be less than 30 (Mendenhall and Sincich, 1996; Hair Anderson, Tatham, and Black, 1998).

Second, nationality differences were evaluated using an ANOVA. The over-riding aim of this analysis was to see whether there were significant nationality differences rather than between which individual groups. As such, and given this was a pretest rather than a hypothesis test, this helped to refine the events for further research.

3.4.1.1.1: Gender Effects

Results of the t-test (refer table 3.2) indicate significant gender differences ($p < .05$) in the level of interest regarding Motor car racing, Rugby League, Association Football/soccer, and Rugby Union. These events were removed from further analysis.

Table 3.2: Interest in Sports by Gender.

	Mean		t-test		Sample size	
	Male	Female	sig	df	Male.	Female
Association Football	5.69	4.12	.012*	44	29	17
Rugby Union	3.96	2.44	.026*	42	28	16
Rugby league	4.07	2.59	.026*	43	28	17
Motor car racing	5.14	3.68	.027*	43	29	16
Netball	2.11	3.00	.111	42	27	17
Triathlon	3.26	2.65	.235	42	27	17
Swimming	4.19	4.76	.335	41	26	17
Golf	4.40	3.76	.349	42	27	17
Tennis	5.29	4.94	.511	43	28	17
Cricket	2.93	2.59	.603	43	28	17
Beach Volleyball	3.85	3.76	.878	42	27	17
Basketball	4.37	4.41	.942	42	27	17

* Significant at the .05 level.

3.4.1.1.2: Nationality Effects

Nationalities were spread over 13 countries. Respondents were recoded into 5 primary groupings (Australia, United States, Scandinavia, Central Europe, and others, which accounted for Asian and Middle Eastern countries). These grouping were developed based upon the researcher's perceptions of the likelihood of the sport having a large following in each global community. For instance, beach volleyball may have less of a following in Scandinavia or Asia. Netball and cricket are likely to have a higher following in Australia. Basketball may have a greater influence on U.S. citizens.

Results of the one-way ANOVA tests (refer table 3.3) identified significant differences ($p < .05$) in 2 sports: Cricket, and Basketball. These sports were removed from further research.

Table 3.3: Interest in Sports by Nationality.

	Means					
	Australia	U.S.A	Scandinavia	Europe	Others	Sig.
Cricket	5.22	2.64	1.75	1.14	3.00	.000**
Basketball	3.57	4.27	4.25	3.57	6.00	.020*
Golf	3.62	4.36	5.75	2.71	3.78	.075
Beach Volleyball	2.50	4.36	4.13	4.14	3.67	.218
Triathlon	2.25	3.64	3.63	2.71	2.67	.305
Netball	2.00	3.09	2.38	1.71	2.89	.483
Tennis	4.78	4.73	5.75	5.29	5.22	.714
Swimming	4.38	4.18	4.75	4.83	4.00	.889

* Significant at the .05 level.
** Significant at the .01 level.

3.4.1.1.3: Interest in Sport Events

Descriptive analysis of the remaining sports indicated tennis (M = 5.2) to have the highest level of interest. Possessing medium levels of interest both swimming (M = 4.4)

and golf (M = 4.2) were rated second and third respectively. Table 3.4 shows the rating for each remaining sport context.

Table 3.4: Level of Interest in Selected Sports.

Sport Context	Ranking	Mean	n.
Tennis	1	5.155	45
Swimming	2	4.416	43
Golf	3	4.159	44
Beach Volleyball	4	3.818	44
Triathlon	5	3.022	44
Netball	6	2.454	44

The three top ranked sports identified above were used for event contexts in the main studies.

3.4.2: Pre-test 2

Using the three events identified in pretest 1, a list of sponsors was generated. Forty five post-graduate and undergraduate students were asked to identify potential sponsors for each of the events. Thirty five questionnaires were returned complete.

Questionnaires opened with the generic statement *"Assume you are an events management company. Your company is currently considering putting on an international* [name of sport] *event. In an effort to help pay the costs for this event you are asked to identify up to 10 potential sponsors you consider likely to provide assistance."* Following this, spaces were provided for writing down the recalled sponsors. This then makes allowance for a potential 350 sponsors being identified. For a copy of the questionnaire refer appendix 10.

3.4.2.1: Results

Brands were ranked for each sport based upon frequency of mention. Some sponsors can be found in each event (e.g. Nike, Coca Cola). Table 3.5 indicates the top 6 brand sponsors identified in each context.

Table 3.5: Brands Identified.

	Tennis	Swimming	Golf
1	Nike	Speedo	Nike
2	Adidas	Adidas	Coca-Cola
3	Reebok	Uncle Toby's	Mercedes Benz
4	Dunlop	Nike	Ping
5	Uncle Toby's	Coca-Cola	Lacoste
6	Coca-Cola	Gatorade	Ralph Lauren

3.4.3: Pre-test 3

One of the main concerns in statistical analysis is the power of the findings (Pedhazur and Schmelkin, 1991). A dominant aspect of the power of a test is the size of the effect under measure. According to Cohen, (1988), this effects size refers to the "degree to which the phenomenon is present in the population" (pp 9-10). Though there is still debate over the actual definition of this degree, its use in analysis cannot be ignored (Pedhazur and Schmelkin, 1991). Brands were selected for further research based upon their degree of fit. Brands possessing high and low fit on either event-sponsor and sponsor-sponsor fit, thus greatest effect size, were selected for further research.

Selection was conducted by assessing:

1. Product categories for each brand identified in pre-test 2.
2. The global nature of each brand.
3. Event-sponsor fit and sponsor-sponsor fit.

3.4.3.1: Product Category Analysis.

To attain a strategic advantage event sponsors require product category exclusivity (Hall, 1992; Fahy, Farrell and Quester, 2004). Given the importance of this exclusivity brands used in this pre-test had to be operating in different product categories. To accommodate this only six of the twelve brands identified in pre-test 2 were chosen based upon the following reasoning:

- *Nike*: one of the most recognized global brands in the sports wear marketplace.
- *Coca-Cola*: one of the most popular global brands in the soft drink industry.
- *Mercedes Benz:* a well-known global brand in the car manufacturing industry.
- *Gatorade*: recognized globally as an energy replenishment sports drinks.
- *Speedo*: a global brand manufacturing sports specific functional sports attire.
- *Ralph Lauren*: a global brand operating in the more exclusive casual wear industry.

3.4.3.2: Additional Brands and Product Categories

It is likely that the brands recalled in the pretests were those perceptually related to the events. What was overlooked in the development of brands for further analysis was to identify brands *not* related to the events. To address this issue, additional brands and product categories were considered. Using personal judgment an extra four brands from the list of the top 100 global brands were included in the study (BusinessWeek, August 2, 2004). Selection of these brands was based upon exclusivity of product category to separate them from the previously identified brands and to maintain the global nature of the study. Brands chosen were:

- *Kellogg's*: one of the world's most recognized cereal brands.
- *McDonalds*: a market founder and well known in the fast food industry.
- *Visa Card*: A major brand operating in the finance industry.
- *Nescafe*: one of the world's most recognized coffee brands.

This resulted in 10 product categories and brands. Each brand was measured on event-sponsor fit with 45 brand pairings for sponsor-sponsor fit. Table 3.6 shows the brands and product categories used in pretest 3.

Table 3.6: Brands and Product Categories

Brand	Product category
Nike:	Casual Sports wear
Coca-Cola	Soft drink
Mercedes Benz	Car manufacturer
Gatorade:	Energy replenishment drink
Speedo	Functional sports specific sportswear
Ralph Lauren	Exclusive casual wear
Kellogg'	Breakfast cereal
McDonalds	Fast food
Visa Card	Financial
Nescafe	Coffee

A questionnaire was developed to measure event-sponsor and sponsor-sponsor fit. These were again measured using a 10-point scale anchored with very poor fit (1) and very good fit (10). The questionnaires were randomly distributed to 29 undergraduates undertaking a marketing degree. For a copy of the questionnaire refer appendix 11.

3.4.3.3: Results.

Brands selected for inclusion in the main studies needed to contain three important aspects, high difference on event-sponsor fit, high difference on sponsor-sponsor fit, and be well known in the global marketplace.

3.4.3.3.1: Event-Sponsor Fit

Table 3.7 shows Nike (M = 8.86), Mercedes (M = 7.52) and Ralph Lauren (M = 6.82) to have high event fit (M > 6). McDonalds had the lowest fit (M = 3.03).

Table 3.7: Event-sponsor Fit

	Event fit		
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Nike	29	8.86	1.457
Visa card	29	8.31	2.523
Mercedes	29	7.52	2.558
Ralph Lauren	28	6.82	2.405
Gatorade	29	6.59	2.571
Speedo	29	6.07	3.845
Kellogg's	28	5.32	2.611
Coca Cola	29	4.62	2.441
Nescafe	29	4.55	2.080
McDonalds	29	3.03	2.556

Note: Brands in bold indicate those found in the top 100 global brand names (refer BusinessWeek, August 2, 2004)

3.4.3.3.2: Sponsor-Sponsor Fit

Table 3.8 shows seven brand pairings to have high fit (M > 6) and eighteen brand pairings to have poor fit (M < 4). The Coca-Cola/McDonald (M = 8.14), Ralph Lauren/Visa Card (M = 7.75) and Mercedes/Visa Card (M = 8.07) pairings displayed the highest levels of fit. The Ralph Lauren/McDonalds (M = 2.14), and Kellogg's/Ralph Lauren (M = 2.43) pairings showed the lowest fit. For a copy of all brand pairings refer appendix 12.

Table 3.8: Sponsor–Sponsor Fit.

Degree of Fit	Brand Pairing	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
High (> 6.00)	**Coca Cola** / **McDonalds**	29	8.14	2.709
	Ralph Lauren / Visa card	28	8.11	1.618
	Mercedes / Visa card	29	8.07	1.624
	Nike / Gatorade	29	7.76	2.760
	Mercedes / **Ralph Lauren**	28	7.75	2.084
	Gatorade / Speedo	29	6.86	3.091
	Nike / Speedo	28	6.36	2.752
Low (< 4.00)	**Kellogg's** / Visa card	28	3.86	2.240
	Ralph Lauren / Speedo	27	3.85	2.032
	Coca Cola / **Ralph Lauren**	28	3.61	1.812
	Nescafe / Speedo	29	3.59	1.862
	Coca Cola / **Nescafe**	29	3.52	1.975
	Nike / **Ralph Lauren**	28	3.46	2.186
	Nike / **Nescafe**	29	3.41	1.296
	Mercedes / Speedo	29	3.41	2.079
	McDonalds / Speedo	29	3.17	1.965
	Gatorade / **Ralph Lauren**	28	3.14	1.880
	Mercedes / **Coca Cola**	29	3.14	1.941
	Gatorade / **Nescafe**	29	3.03	2.079
	Nike / **McDonalds**	29	2.86	2.013
	Mercedes / Gatorade	29	2.69	1.491
	Mercedes / **McDonalds**	29	2.59	1.743
	Mercedes / **Kellogg's**	29	2.45	1.764
	Kellogg's / **Ralph Lauren**	28	2.43	1.289
	Ralph Lauren / **McDonalds**	28	2.14	1.484

Note: Brand names in bold indicate those found in the top 100 global brand names (refer BusinessWeek, August 2, 2004)

In summary, results indicate that Coca-Cola, McDonalds, Mercedes and Ralph Lauren possess the criteria for inclusion in further studies. Firstly, all have been named in the top 100 global brands (BusinessWeek, August 2, 2004). Secondly, Mercedes and McDonalds were found to have high and low event fit respectively. Ralph Lauren was found to possess high fit with Mercedes and low fit with McDonalds. Conversely Coca-

Cola possessed high fit with McDonalds but low fit with Mercedes. These four brands will be used for the main studies. Table 3.9 shows these relationships.

Table 3.9: Fit Between Chosen Brand Entities

Event-Sponsor fit		Sponsor-Sponsor fit High	Sponsor-Sponsor fit Low
High	Mercedes: (M = 7.52)	Ralph Lauren: (M = 7.75)	Coca-Cola: (M = 3.14)
Low	McDonalds: (M = 3.03)	Coca-Cola: (M = 8.14)	Ralph Lauren: (M = 2.14)

3.5: Summary.

Pre-testing for events and brand sponsors identified three sports and four brands for use in the main studies. Tennis, swimming, and golf were found to contain no significant gender bias and high levels of interest. Four brands found in the top 100 global brands (Mercedes, McDonalds, Ralph Lauren, and Coca-Cola) were found to possess variance on both event-sponsor fit and sponsor-sponsor fit (BusinessWeek, August 2, 2004). These brands and events were used in both the major studies.

Study one looks to test for the dimensions of fit identified in the sponsorship literature. Employing a field study to increase the generalisability of the findings, this study seeks to establish the dimensions of fit. Using an experimental design study two extended study one by testing for the same dimensions on sponsor-sponsor fit using the same brands and events. Study 2 also extends current research by adding this measure of fit into brand judgments. Brand recall, attitudes and intentions were measured after manipulating fit using media releases containing an acknowledged sponsor and likely sponsor.

Chapter 4: Results Study One

4.1: Introduction

To date no research has been conducted using all three theoretical event-sponsor dimensions. The focus of study 1 therefore is to specifically measure each of these dimensions. Unfortunately some error is always involved when measuring multi-item psychometric constructs (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). To assess the psychometric properties of each item used both reliability and confirmatory factor analysis techniques were employed.

However, these techniques only assess relationships between dimensions, not their predictive strength. To examine this strength, each specific dimension was evaluated as to both its significance and predictive power. One means to test for these is to use a nested model design (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). Nested models have the same constructs but can differ in the number of relationships presented. That is, a single relationship is added or deleted from another model; therefore, the model with fewer estimated relationships is nested within the more general model (Mendenhall and Sincich, 1996; Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black, 1998). This technique has been applied in this study to test hypothesis 1a, 1b and 1c.

4.2: Reliability tests

Reliability tests were conducted on all the multi-item constructs using as a minimum Cronbach's alpha (α) of .7 (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). The measures appear in appendix 1. The dimensions were found to meet this criteria with all alphas exceeding .9 (refer table 4.1).

Table 4.1: Dimensions Reliability Tests

Construct	Cronbach's Alpha
Holistic fit	.98
Attribute Dimension	.98
Benefit/usage Dimension	.96
Image Dimension	.97
Familiarity	.95
Instantiation	.96

While reliability tested for random error in the measurement of the construct, validity tests were next conducted to assess the extent to which each item measured the desired dimension and was uncontaminated by other dimensions (Judd, Smith, and Kidder, 1991; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). Accordingly, both convergent and discriminant validity tests were conducted.

4.3: Validity Tests

The central tenet of this study is that three separate dimensions measure fit in sponsorship. All the theory is stating is that these dimensions go together in the sense that they measure a common construct. This is said to be a weak or congeneric theory in that each dimension is not orthogonal (Spearman, 1904; Joreskog, 1974; Bernstein, 1988; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). That is, the dimensions are from the same origin and thus must logically possess some relationship with each other. These correlations, and hence lack of orthogonality, are shown in table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Correlations between Dimensions.

	Attribute	Benefit/usage	Image
Attribute	1	.925**	.889**
Benefit/usage		1	.907**
Image			1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

One technique to measure the theory of the 3 dimensions contributing to fit is through confirmatory factor analysis using LISREL (Joreskog and Sorbom, 1989; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). However, one of the problems with using LISREL is "what constitutes a good fitting model"? Suggestion has been made that a good fitting model is one that is independent of sample size, accurately reflects differences in fit, and tests for model parsimony (Marsh, Balla, and McDonald, 1988; Schumacker and Lomax, 1996). For this reason three measures of fit have been chosen: Chi-square, root mean square of error approximation (RMSEA), and adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI). Chi-square is a binary test of the fit between the sample covariance matrix and the estimated covariance matrix (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1996). Where the Chi-square is insignificant ($p > .05$) the model is deemed to have good fit, the preferred result.

However, though the Chi-square may accurately reflect fit, this test can be overly sensitive to sample size. To compensate for this the RMSEA has also been chosen based upon its indifference to this problem (Loehlin, 1998). RMSEA is a measure of the ratio between centrality and degrees of freedom; values less than .10 are considered to be good, with values below .05 very good (Steiger, 1989, Loehlin, 1998). For this study the .05 criteria shall be applied.

AGFI (adjusted goodness of fit) is a measure of variance accounted for after adjusting for the number of parameters and degrees of freedom in the model (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1996). Given this ability to measure individual parameters it may be considered a test for model parsimony (Schumacker and Lomax, 1996). Like the R^2 in regression, the larger the figure, the greater the explained variance.

Table 4.6 displays these fit indices. While there may be high variance accounted for in the model (AGFI = .82), the two other indices would suggest points for further investigation. The high chi-square (χ^2 = 171.45; p < .05) combined with the high RMSEA (> .10) indicates lack of model fit, a less than desirable finding (Joreskog and Sorbom, 1989).

Table 4.6: Event-Sponsor Fit Indices.

Measure		p
Chi-square	171.45	< .05
RMSEA	0.13	
AGFI	0.82	

Each item was next assessed as to their loading on their respective dimension. Table 4.7 shows each item to have a high loading on its respective dimension indicating high convergent validity (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). This then accounts for the high variance explained by the LISREL model.

Table 4.7: Event-Sponsor Item Loadings

	Attributes			Benefit			Image		
Dimension	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3
Attribute	.96	.97	.98						
Benefit/usage				.91	.97	.97			
Image							.98	.98	.92

However, the results shown in table 4.8 indicate high correlations between each item. These inter-item correlations ranged from .97 to .77 suggesting lack of discriminant validity.

Table 4.8: Event Sponsor Inter-item Correlations

		Attributes			Benefit			Image		
Dimension	Measure	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3
Attributes	Item 1	1								
	Item 2	.94	1							
	Item 3	.94	.96	1						
Benefit	Item 1	.85	.85	.86	1					
	Item 2	.92	.90	.92	.90	1				
	Item 3	.90	.89	.91	.87	.94	1			
Image	Item 1	.88	.88	.91	.84	.90	.93	1		
	Item 2	.88	.88	.89	.83	.90	.94	.97	1	
	Item 3	.83	.83	.86	.77	.85	.88	.91	.91	1

The significance of these inter-item correlations was evaluated through the standardized residuals. One of the main values of residual analysis is to check for independence of the error terms and the equality of the variance in the residuals; that is, all error terms should be unrelated to each other. This analyses whether all systematic variance has been accounted for (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). This measure of internal consistency tests correlations using the errors of the individual test items (Hunter and Gerbing, 1982). Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) recommend standardized residuals of greater than +/- 1.96 as indicative of significant relationships between items. That is, there is a 95% likelihood that the two items are correlated.

Table 4.9 shows the standardized residuals. Significant correlations were found for the benefit/usage dimension with these items possessing significant relationships with the attribute items and image items (standardized residuals range from -4.52 to 7.92). Attributes was also found to have a significant relationship with the image items (standardized residual range from -2.15 to 3.92).

Table 4.9: Event-Sponsor Standardized Residuals

		Attributes			Benefit			Image		
Dimension	Measure	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3
Attributes	Item 1	--								
	Item 2	1.20	--							
	Item 3	**-4.17**	**3.13**	--						
Benefit	Item 1	1.59	.036	.85	--					
	Item 2	**5.10**	-1.49	**1.99**	**5.03**	--				
	Item 3	.64	**-4.79**	-1.85	**-2.97**	**-1.99**	--			
Image	Item 1	.36	**-2.15**	**3.92**	**-2.29**	**-4.52**	**4.53**	--		
	Item 2	.38	**-2.11**	-1.82	**-3.79**	**-4.45**	**7.92**	.57	--	
	Item 3	.59	-0.54	**2.24**	**-2.97**	-1.12	**2.73**	-.26	-.19	--

Items ≥ +/- 1.96 are identified in bold.

In summary, while high reliability was found, results from the confirmatory factor analysis indicate lack of discriminant validity. Consistent with table 4.5, correlation analysis through standardized residuals in table 4.8 shows the benefit/usage dimension to be significantly related to both the image and attribute dimensions. Also a significant correlation was found between the attribute and image dimensions. These findings suggest that problems of collinearity may occur between the dimensions. This possibility will have to be addressed in the main study when assessing the predictive ability of each in the hypotheses tests.

4.4: Hypothesis Testing

While confirmatory factor analysis measures the psychometric properties of the individual items it does not measure the ability of each dimension to estimate fit. That is, does the dimension significantly predict fit or not? One technique to test this significance is nested modeling using regression (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994; Mendenhall and Sincich, 1996; Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black, 1998).

Nested regression is a between models test where one of the regression models contains all the terms of the other model and at least one additional term (Mendenhall and

Sincich, 1996). The amount of predictive power in a complete model (M_C) should increase substantially when an added variable(s) has a strong effect. That is, can the complete model (M_C) predict fit significantly better than a reduced model (M_R)? Using the sum of squared errors from the F-tests as a measure of comparison, a complete model is said to have greater predictive power where the total error from the reduced model (SSE_R) is significantly larger than the error from the complete model (SSE_C) (Gujarati, 1995; Mendenhall and Sincich, 1996). The equation for this comparison test may be written as:

$$F_t = \frac{(SSE_R - SSE_C) / k - g}{SSE_C / [n - (k + 1)]}$$

Where

- F_t = F statistic for comparing nested models
- SSE_R = Sum of squares error for the reduced model (M_R)
- SSE_C = Sum of squares error for the complete model (M_C)
- $k - g$ = Number of betas tested
- $k + 1$ = number of betas in the complete model
- n = Number of observations.

Accepting the hypothesis that a dimension significantly predicts fit occurs when the calculated F_t is greater than the critical value of F for a specific alpha given the number of betas tested (v1) and the number of observations (v2) (Gujarati, 1995; Mendenhall and Sincich, 1996). For this research an alpha of .05 was applied.

Collinearity diagnostics were also employed to further examine the findings from the validity tests. One of the main assumptions in regression is that there is no strong correlation between the independent variables in the model, or more simply, that there is

no multicollinearity (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1996; Ramanathan, 1998). Though these variables still retain the property of BLUE (best linear unbiased estimator) high multicollinearity makes it hard to get co-efficient estimates possessing only small standard errors. This can then influence the significance of the coefficients and the sum of squared errors of the model (Achen, 1982; Gujarati, 1995).

One measure of multicollinearity is the variance-inflation factor (VIF) (Gujarati, 1995; Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black, 1998). Indicating the effect of other independent variables on the standard error of a regression coefficient, it is generally accepted the larger the VIF, the greater the collinearity. VIF's greater than 10 are said to indicate high collinearity with a VIF less than 5 indicating low collinearity (Gujarati, 1995; Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black, 1998). For this study, the more stringent less than 5 criteria will be applied.

Firstly, a regression was run incorporating all variables including the theoretical moderating variables. Results from this regression shown in table 4.10 indicate gender to have no significant influence on holistic fit ($p = .375$). A significant model was indicated ($F = 231.53$; $p < .01$) with the independent variables accounting for 81% of the variance in the model ($R^2 = .814$). Attributes, benefit/usage, familiarity and instantiation were found to have a significant relationship with fit ($p < .01$). Image ($t = -1.774$; $p = 077$) and gender ($t = .889$; $p = .375$) were found to have no significant relationships. These results support the pretests in that gender had no effect on fit. Gender was hence removed from further analysis. However the image dimension was still included for hypothesis testing. High multicollinearity was noted between the fit dimensions, corroborating the findings from the validity tests.

Table 4.10: Event-Sponsor Multiple Regression.

	Co-efficient statistics				Model Statistics		
Variable	β	t statistic	Sig	VIF	R2	F Statistic	Sig.
Attributes	.797	8.565	.000**	6.749	.81	231.534	.000**
Benefit/usage	.333	4.488	.000**	9.230			
Image	-.106	-1.774	.077	6.337			
Familiarity	.080	3.020	.003**	1.105			
Instantiation	.173	4.825	.000**	2.022			
Gender	.131	.889	.375	1.024			

Dependent variable: Holistic Fit.
**: Significant at the .01 level
N = 320

A new complete model (M_C) was run followed by a series of reduced models (M_R) (refer table 4.11). All regressions were found significant ($p < .01$) with the amount of variance accounted for fluctuating between 77% and 81%. Both attributes and benefit/usage possessed significant relationships with fit in the complete model (M_C: $p < .01$), but this was not so for the image dimension. Results show image to have an insignificant relationship with fit ($\beta = -.079$; $p = .184$). However, this is likely to have been a result of the high multicollinearity found between all dimensions in this model (VIF > 5) (Gujarati, 1995).

Results of the reduced models show changes in the dimensions. The direction of the image beta changed with the removal of the attribute dimension (M_{Ra}; Image $\beta = .058$) and the benefit/usage dimension (M_{Rb}; Image $\beta = .042$), confirming the effect of multicollinearity. However, the image dimensions relationship to holistic fit was still insignificant ($p = .367$ and .423 respectively). Multicollinearity was also present with the attribute reduced model ($M_{Ra:}$ VIF > 5) but was below the threshold for the benefit/usage reduced model ($M_{Rb:}$ VIF < 5). While the M_{Ri} model shows attributes and benefit/usage to be significant predictors of fit ($p < .01$), the high multicollinearity suggests high

correlations between these dimensions; again supporting the lack of discriminant validity found in the confirmatory factor analysis.

While all the models were found to be significant, the reduced model excluding benefit/usage (M_{Rb}) was shown to be the best. This model was found to have the least sum of squared error (SSE = 538.27) and high explained variance (R^2 = .80). Low collinearity was found between parameters with significant relationships for attribute (t = 13.24; p < .01) familiarity (t = 3.299; p < .01) and instantiation (t = 5.383; p < .01). However, contrary to current theory the image dimension was shown to be insignificant (p > .05).

Table 4.11: Event-Sponsor Nested Regressions.

		Co-efficient statistics				Model Statistics			
Model	Variable	B	t statistic	Sig	VIF	SSE	R^2	F Statistic	Sig.
Complete (M_C)	Attributes	.811	8.714	.000**	6.766[a]	511.507	.812	278.208	.000**
	Benefit/usage	.302	4.105	.000**	9.034[a]				
	Image	-.079	-1.330	.184	6.254[a]				
	Familiarity	.077	2.913	.004**	1.102				
	Instantiation	.173	4.857	.000**	2.003				
Less Attributes (M_{Ra})	Benefit/usage	.672	10.072	.000**	6.027[a]	632.127	.768	266.868	.000**
	Image	.058	.903	.367	5.820[a]				
	Familiarity	.088	3.012	.003**	1.100				
	Instantiation	.186	4.698	.000**	1.999				
Less Benefit/usage (M_{Rb})	Attributes	1.031	13.246	.000**	4.541	538.271	.802	327.480	.000**
	Image	.042	.802	.423	4.706				
	Familiarity	.089	3.299	.001**	1.089				
	Instantiation	.194	5.383	.000**	1.960				
Less Image (M_{Ri})	Attributes	.856	9.616	.000**	6.002[a]	541.691	.805	336.980	.000**
	Benefit/usage	.206	3.252	.001**	6.572[a]				
	Familiarity	.078	2.906	.004**	1.088				
	Instantiation	.156	4.375	.000**	1.957				

Dependent variable: Holistic Fit.
**: Significant at the .01 level
[a]: VIF greater than 5
N = 320

Significance of prediction for each dimension was conducted next. Calculation of the F test for comparison of the nested models (F_t) is shown in table 4.12. Using the critical value of $F_{.05, 1, 320}$ (i.e. 1 beta being tested and 320 observations) all reduced models were shown to be significant, suggesting all dimensions to be important predictors of fit. This discrepancy shown in the significance of the image dimension between tables 4.11 and 4.12 would suggest potential for error.

Table 4.12: Event-Sponsor F test Comparisons

Model	F_t	Sig
Less Attributes (M_{Ra})	73.55	Yes
Less Benefit/usage (M_{Rb})	16.32	Yes
Less Image (M_{Ri})	18.07	Yes

Critical $F_{.05, 1, 320} = 3.84$

One technique to further evaluate the effect of each dimension and reduce error is based upon the *degree* of prediction (Mendenhall and Sincich, 1996). That is, using the principle of parsimony, where a predictor can only explain a small amount of variance it may be best left out of the model (Mendenhall and Sincich, 1996; Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black, 1998). From table 4.13 it can be seen that both the benefit/usage and image accounted for only a small percentage of variance. The addition of the benefit/usage dimension achieved only a 1% increase in prediction ($R^2_{Mc} - R^2_{MRb} = .010$) while the image dimension made only a .7% change ($R^2_{Mc} - R^2_{MRi} = .007$).

Table 4.13: Event-Sponsor Dimensions Prediction of Fit

Model	R^2	Difference ($R^2_{Mc} - R^2_{MR}$)
Less Attributes (M_{Ra})	.768	.044
Less Benefit/usage (M_{Rb})	.802	.010
Less Image (M_{Ri})	.805	.007

$R^2_{Mc} = .812$

The principle of parsimony would suggest that a benefit/usage *and* image reduced model be accepted (Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black, 1998). As stated by Mendenhall and Sincich (1996) "In situations were competing models are found to have essentially the same predictive power, the model with the lower number of β's is selected" (p 237). That is, where contending models have effectively the same degree of estimation the model with the fewer number of variables (more parsimonious) is chosen (Mendenhall and Sincich, 1996; Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black, 1998).

To test this the complete model was tested against a model with both the benefit/usage and image dimensions removed. Results from table 4.14 indicate the removal of these dimensions only marginally decreases the variance explained ($R^2_{Mc} - R^2_{Mp} = .021$).

Table 4.14: Event-Sponsor Parsimonious Model (M_P)

	Co-efficient statistics				Model Statistics		
Variable	β	t-statistic	Sig	VIF	R^2	F-Statistic	Sig.
Attributes	1.099	22.325	.000**	1.738	.798	433.149	.000**
Familiarity	.083	3.071	.002**	1.083			
Instantiation	.190	5.485	.000**	1.790			

Dependent variable: Holistic Fit.
**: Significant at the .01 level
$R^2_{Mc} = .812$
N = 320

Given the findings from the validity tests, the multicollinearity diagnostics and the nested regressions event-sponsor associations are primarily determined by attributes and consumer knowledge (familiarity and instantiation).

4.5: Summary

In summary, hypothesis 1a is supported but 1b and 1c are only partially supported. While image on its own was shown to have a significant effect on fit, results suggest lack of predictive power for this dimension. In every regression no significant relationship was found even though the M_{Ri} model was found to be significantly different from the M_C model. However, further comparisons with the complete model show this dimension to account for only .7% of the variance in fit. These findings offer only partial support for hypothesis 1b.

Nested regressions indicate benefit/usage to be a significant predictor of event-sponsor fit but only explained 1% of the variance beyond attributes. Combined with the results of the factor analysis suggestion is made that benefit/usage is captured in the attributes and image dimensions. Both high standardized residuals and the high collinearity point to this conclusion. Only when the benefit/usage dimension was removed from the nested regressions did the statistics meet the multicollinearity criteria. These findings indicate lack of support for hypothesis 1c, at least beyond variance accounted for by attributes.

So in conclusion, while each dimension may significantly predict fit individually, when jointly combined, the best dimension of the three is attributes. Given the use of a non-experimental design where inferences based upon weightings may be problematical, the use of the same measures in the experimental design of study two should help to confirm/refute these findings (Campbell, 1982; Cooper and Richardson, 1986). Table 4.15 shows the hypotheses tests from study one.

Table 4.15: Results Study One Hypothesis Tests

Hypotheses No.		*Hypotheses*	
Hypothesis 1	**a**	Greater perceived attribute overlap between the event and the sponsor will increase the perceived fit between the event and the brand sponsor.	Supported
	b	Greater perceived image similarity between the event and the sponsor will increase the perceived fit between the event and the brand sponsor.	Partially supported
	c	Greater perceived benefit/usage between the event and the sponsor will increase the perceived fit between the event and the brand sponsor.	Partially supported

Chapter 5: Results Study Two

5.1: Introduction

Study one tested event-sponsor fit. Study two extends this research by adding associations between sponsors into the model. After including both an acknowledged sponsor (AS) and a likely sponsor (LS) into the same event investigations were conducted to:

1. retest the findings from study 1,
2. test for each dimension within AS-LS fit and
3. test the inclusion of AS-LS fit on brand judgments.

Following the method performed in study 1, reliability and validity tests using confirmatory factor analysis were conducted to assess the psychometric properties of each measured item. Again, nested regressions were performed to test the all the hypotheses. However, given hypothesis 2a contains a dichotomous dependent variable (did the subject recall the likely sponsor: Yes/No) logistic regression was applied to test recall.

5.2: Reliability tests

All constructs were found to be reliable. Table 5.1 shows all multi-item measures to be high ($\alpha > .7$).

Table 5.1: Reliability Tests

Measure	Construct	Cronbach's Alpha
Event-LS fit	Holistic	.96
	Attribute	.98
	Benefit/usage	.93
	Image	.93
AS-LS fit	Holistic	.94
	Attribute	.92
	Benefit/usage	.91
	Image	.89
Consumer Knowledge	Familiarity	.87
	Instantiation	.95
Attitudes	Attitudes	.85

5.3: Validity Tests

Confirmatory factor analysis was again conducted to test convergent and discriminant validity. Chi-square, RMSEA and AGFI were employed to test for model fit with inter-item diagnostics used to test individual items.

5.3.1: Event-Sponsor (E-LS) Validity Tests

Table 5.2 displays the model fit indices on the Event-LS associations. While 79% of the variance can be accounted for (AGFI = .79), a significant chi-square (χ^2 = 171.45; $p < .01$) combined with the high RMSEA (.14) again suggest lack of model fit (Joreskog and Sorbom, 1989).

Table 5.2: Event-Likely Sponsor Fit Indices.

Measure		p
Chi-square	90.97	< .05
RMSEA	0.14	
AGFI	0.79	

High convergent validity was shown. High item loadings accounts for the high variance explained in the model (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). This is shown in table 5.3.

Table 5.3: Event-Likely Sponsor Item Loadings

	Attributes			Benefit			Image		
Dimension	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3
Attribute	.97	.98	.97						
Benefit/usage				.82	.95	.93			
Image							.92	.94	.85

High correlations found between individual item measures indicate lack of discriminant validity. Table 5.4 shows inter-item correlations to range from .58 to .95.

Table 5.4: Event-Likely Sponsor Inter-item Correlations

		Attributes			Benefit			Image		
Dimension	Measure	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3
Attributes	Item 1	1								
	Item 2	.95	1							
	Item 3	.94	.95	1						
Benefit	Item 1	.76	.76	.78	1					
	Item 2	.82	.84	.86	.80	1				
	Item 3	.84	.84	.83	.74	.88	1			
Image	Item 1	.83	.85	.87	.75	.84	.82	1		
	Item 2	.83	.84	.85	.66	.83	.84	.86	1	
	Item 3	.73	.74	.75	.58	.75	.76	.73	.84	1

Analysis of the error terms (table 5.5) shows high standardized residuals. Problems were again shown for the benefit/usage dimension. The measurement items possessed high standardized residuals with the attribute and image items (standardized residuals range from -4.17 to 2.51). High standardized residuals were again also found between attributes and image (4.53).

Table 5.5: Event-Likely Sponsor Standardized Residuals

		Attributes			Benefit			Image		
Dimension	Measure	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3
Attributes	Item 1	--								
	Item 2	**2.45**	--							
	Item 3	-1.19	-1.28	--						
Benefit	Item 1	1.50	1.16	**2.51**	--					
	Item 2	**-2.97**	**-1.99**	1.05	**2.23**	--				
	Item 3	0.74	1.07	-0.81	**-2.01**	-0.41	--			
Image	Item 1	1.07	0.40	**4.53**	**2.02**	**2.10**	1.29	--		
	Item 2	-1.43	-1.49	0.24	**-4.17**	-1.70	1.13	-1.35	--	
	Item 3	-1.53	-1.49	-0.59	**-2.89**	-0.31	1.04	**-3.58**	**4.17**	--

Items ≥ +/- 1.96 are identified in bold.

These results mirror the findings from study one. High standardized residuals found between items point to lack of discriminant validity. Benefit/usage was again found to possess the greater number of high standardized residuals, pointing to multicollinearity and lack of predictive power for this dimension, as found in study 1. Hypothesis testing using nested regression will further examine this finding.

5.3.2: Sponsor-Sponsor (AS-LS) Validity Tests

Within this section the analyses in section 5.3.1 are replicated, but this time the focus is on the sponsor-sponsor relationship. Table 5.6 shows a high level of explained variance in the AS-LS model (AGFI = .79); however, a significant chi-square (χ^2 = 94.90; $p < .05$) combined with a high RMSEA (.13) points to lack of model fit (Joreskog and Sorbom, 1989).

Table 5.6: Acknowledged Sponsor-Likely Sponsor Fit Indices.

Measure		p
Chi-square	94.91	< .05
RMSEA	0.13	
AGFI	.79	

High convergent validity was found with table 5.7 showing each item to have a high loading on its respective dimension (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994).

Table 5.7: Acknowledged Sponsor-Likely Sponsor Item Loadings

	Attributes			Benefit			Image		
Dimension	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3
Attribute	.84	90	91						
Benefit/usage				87	90	87			
Image							88	.91	76

Results of the inter-item correlations analysis show high correlations between items. While low correlations can be found, the range from .48 to .79 suggests lack of discriminant validity as shown in table 5.8.

Table 5.8: Acknowledged Sponsor-Likely Sponsor Inter-item Correlations

		Attributes			Benefit			Image		
Dimension	Measure	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3
Attributes	Item 1	1								
	Item 2	.78	1							
	Item 3	.73	.83	1						
Benefit	Item 1	.65	.69	.72	1					
	Item 2	.75	.68	.68	.81	1				
	Item 3	.68	.70	.73	.73	.78	1			
Image	Item 1	.64	.74	.75	.67	.64	.66	1		
	Item 2	.75	.73	.78	.61	.67	.74	.79	1	
	Item 3	.54	.63	.64	.49	.48	.62	.69	.70	1

Table 5.9 shows the correlations between some items to be significant. Items for the attribute dimension possessed high standardized residuals with the benefit/usage and image items (standardized residuals range from -3.01 to 3.41). Benefit/usage was also found to have high standardized residuals with the image dimension (standardized residuals range from –3.07 to 3.86).

Table 5.9: Acknowledged Sponsor-Likely Sponsor Standardized Residuals

		Attributes			Benefit			Image		
Dimension	Measure	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3
Attributes	Item 1	--								
	Item 2	1.41	--							
	Item 3	**-3.01**	1.58	--						
Benefit	Item 1	-0.15	-0.47	0.99	--					
	Item 2	**3.41**	**-2.57**	**-2.77**	**2.87**	--				
	Item 3	1.17	0.17	1.62	**-2.46**	-0.41	--			
Image	Item 1	**-2.10**	0.55	1.05	1.42	-0.82	1.08	--		
	Item 2	**2.21**	**-2.20**	1.43	**-2.37**	-0.67	**3.86**	-1.42	--	
	Item 3	-1.93	-0.29	0.05	**-1.96**	**-3.07**	**2.08**	1.11	-.34	--

Items ≥ +/- 1.96 are identified in bold.

In summary, discriminant validity for the attribute dimension was low. High correlations and high standardized residuals would point to a significant relationship between this dimension and benefit/usage and image. This would support the theory that attribute similarity is less likely to be found between sponsors. High standardized residuals between benefit/usage and image would also indicate potential high collinearity and lack of predictive power either of these dimension. Hypothesis tests using nested regression was performed to further test these findings.

5.4: Hypothesis Testing

Firstly, the dimensions were regressed to retest the findings from study 1. This was followed by testing for each dimension within AS-LS fit. Using the findings from these tests the most parsimonious model was then tested on brand judgments. The moderating effect of consumer knowledge was incorporated in all the analyses.

5.4.1: Event-Likely Sponsor (Event-LS) Fit

Table 5.10 shows the complete model (M_C) to be significant ($F = 52.71$; $R^2 = .62$; $SSE = 469.62$; $p < .01$). Attributes was again found to have a significant relationship in

all models ($p < .01$) with the sum of squared error found to increase with its removal (M_{Ra} SSE = 521.40). However, high multicollinearity was found in the complete model (VIF $M_C > 5$) and was only just under the threshold level for the model containing no image variable (VIF $M_{Ri} = 4.9$); supporting the validity tests.

Beta weightings for the benefit/usage dimension were shown to possess high variance between regression models. While high for the attribute reduced model (M_{Ra}: $\beta = .75$; $t = 6.36$; $p < .01$) this was shown to drop with the inclusion of attributes in the complete model (M_C: $\beta = .44$; $t = 3.31$; $p < .01$) and image reduced model (M_{Ri}: $\beta = .38$; $t = 3.10$; $p < .01$). This drop in beta weighting supports the low discriminant validity found in the confirmatory factor analysis.

Image was found to have no significant relationship for all models ($p > .05$). This is supported by the only a minor increase in the sum of squared errors following the removal of this dimension (M_{Ri}: SSE = 473.42).

Consumer knowledge was shown to be significant though only in one of the variables. Instantiation was found to be significant for all models ($p < .01$) while in contrast familiarity was shown to have no affect on the Event LS fit for all models ($p > .05$).

Table 5.10: Event-Likely Sponsor Nested Regressions.

		Co-efficient statistics				Model Statistics			
Model	Variable	β	t statistic	Sig	VIF	SSE	R^2	F Statistic	Sig.
Complete	Attributes	0.542	4.265	.000**	6.346 [a]	469.619	.615	52.713	.000**
(M_C)	Benefit/usage	0.442	3.313	.001**	5.791 [a]				
	Image	-0.142	-1.156	.249	5.310 [a]				
	Familiarity	0.084	1.324	.187	1.112				
	Instantiation	0.145	2.766	.006**	1.109				
Less	Benefit/usage	0.750	6.360	.000**	4.097	521.399	.573	55.586	.000**
Attributes	Image	0.106	0.938	.350	4.115				
(M_{Ra})	Familiarity	0.071	1.055	.292	1.109				
	Instantiation	0.160	2.914	.004**	1.104				
Less	Attributes	0.769	6.994	.000**	4.490	500.858	.589	59.567	.000**
Benefit/usage	Image	0.016	0.134	.894	4.514				
(M_{Rb})	Familiarity	0.109	1.671	.097	1.097				
	Instantiation	0.146	2.704	.008**	1.109				
Less Image	Attributes	0.472	4.218	.000**	4.919	473.421	.612	65.425	.000**
(M_{Ri})	Benefit/usage	0.383	3.104	.002**	4.923				
	Familiarity	0.089	1.403	.162	1.107				
	Instantiation	0.151	2.889	.004**	1.098				

Dependent variable: Holistic Fit.
**: Significant at the .01 level
[a]: VIF greater than 5
N = 171

Comparison of the F-tests supported the nested regressions with both attributes and benefit/usage significantly effecting fit. Using an alpha of .05 with a beta change of 1 and a sample of 171, both attributes and benefit/usage were found to have a significant influence on fit ($F_t > F_{.05, 1, 171}$). Image was found to have no significant influence ($F_t < F_{.05, 1, 171}$). Table 5.11 shows the test comparisons.

Table 5.11: Event-Likely Sponsor F test Comparisons

Model	F_t	Sig
Less Attributes (M_{Ra})	15.07	Yes
Less Benefit/usage (M_{Rb})	11.02	Yes
Less Image (M_{Ri})	1.23	No

Critical $F_{.05, 1, 171} = 3.84$

Table 5.12 reports the F-test comparisons. However, attributes were shown to have a greater influence on variance explained ($R^2_{Mc} - R^2_{MRa} = .042$) than benefit/usage ($R^2_{Mc} - R^2_{MRb} = .026$) with only a 1.6% increase in variance explained ($R^2_{MRb} - R^2_{MRa} = .016$). Image was found to explain only a minor amount of variance ($R^2_{Mc} - R^2_{MRi} = .003$). The principle of parsimony would indicate the removal of both benefit/usage and image.

Table 5.12: Event-Likely Sponsor Dimensions Fit Prediction

Model	R^2	Difference ($R^2_{Mc} - R^2_{MR}$)
Less Attributes (M_{Ra})	.573	.042
Less Benefit/usage (M_{Rb})	.589	.026
Less Image (M_{Ri})	.612	.003

$R^2_{Mc} = .615$

To test this philosophy, the complete model was tested against a model with both the benefit/usage and image dimensions removed. Removal of these dimensions only marginally decreased the variance explained as shown in table 5.13 ($R^2_{Mc} - R^2_{Mp} = .026$).

Table 5.13: Event-Likely Sponsor Parsimonious Model (M_P)

	Co-efficient statistics				Model Statistics		
Variable	β	t-statistic	Sig	VIF	R^2	F-Statistic	Sig.
Attributes	.782	15.109	.000**	1.001	589	79.887	.000**
Familiarity	.109	1.673	.096	1.097			
Instantiation	.146	2.713	.007**	1.097			

Dependent variable: Holistic Fit.
**: Significant at the .01 level
$R^2_{Mc} = .615$
N = 171

These results offer support for the findings from study 1. Following the outcome from the validity tests, the multicollinearity diagnostics and the nested regressions, Event-LS associations are primarily determined by attributes and consumer knowledge. As a result of the findings from study 1 and study 2, and in the interests of parsimony, both image and benefit/usage were removed from the model and further testing.

5.4.2: Acknowledged Sponsor-Likely Sponsor (AS-LS) Fit

Table 5.14 shows the complete model (M_C) to be significant ($F = 76.23$; $p < .01$). Attributes were found to have no significance in this model though they were found to have a significant relationship in the image reduced model (M_{Ra}: $t = 2.76$; $p < .01$). The small increase in the sum of squared residuals with the removal of the attribute dimension would also suggest lack of significance (M_{Ra} SSE = 412.304). Low collinearity was found in all models (VIF < 5).

In a change from Event-LS fit, benefit/usage was shown to have a significant relationship with all relevant models. High coefficient statistics were found in the complete model (M_C: $\beta = .64$; $t = 8.86$; $p < .01$), the attribute reduced model (M_{Ra}: $\beta = .63$; $t = 8.66$; $p < .01$) and the image reduced model (M_{Ri}: $\beta = .80$; $t = 16.27$; $p < .01$). The high increase in the SSE in the benefit/usage reduced model also assist this finding (M_{Rb} SSE = 596.70) and the significance of this dimension.

Results show image to have a significant relationship in all regressions ($p < .01$). This was reinforced by the high increase of the sum of squared error with the removal of this dimension from the model (M_{Ri} SSE = 426.05).

Consumer knowledge was shown to be significant in only one nested regression. Instantiation was found to be significant when benefit/usage was removed from the

model (M_{Rb}: β = .20; t = 3.54; p < .01). Familiarity was found to have no significant influence on AS-LS fit.

Table 5.14: Acknowledged Sponsor-Likely Sponsor Nested Regressions.

		Co-efficient statistics				Model Statistics			
Model	Variable	β	t statistic	Sig	VIF	SSE	R^2	F Statistic	Sig.
Complete (M_C)	Attributes	0.087	1.685	.094	1.206	405.332	.698	76.232	.000**
	Benefit/usage	0.649	8.826	.000**	2.686				
	Image	0.226	2.904	.004**	2.789				
	Familiarity	0.066	1.108	.269	1.140				
	Instantiation	0.052	1.018	.313	1.246				
Less Attributes (M_{Ra})	Benefit/usage	0.637	8.660	.000**	2.663	412.304	.692	93.545	.000**
	Image	0.270	3.662	.000**	2.475				
	Familiarity	0.060	0.991	.323	1.135				
	Instantiation	0.056	1.075	.284	1.244				
Less Benefit/usage (M_{Rb})	Attributes	0.045	0.722	.471	1.196	596.700	.555	51.813	.000**
	Image	0.740	11.901	.000**	1.220				
	Familiarity	0.125	1.732	.085	1.126				
	Instantiation	0.208	3.542	.000**	1.101				
Less Image (M_{Ri})	Attributes	0.136	2.761	.006**	1.070	426.053	.682	89.187	.000**
	Benefit/usage	0.809	16.274	.000**	1.175				
	Familiarity	0.070	1.152	.251	1.140				
	Instantiation	0.008	0.163	.871	1.139				

Dependent variable: Global Fit.
**: Significant at the .01 level
N = 171

F-test comparisons supported the nested regressions. Both benefit/usage and image were found to have a significant influence on fit ($F_t > F_{.05, 1, 171}$). Attributes were found to have no significant influence ($F_t < F_{.05, 1, 171}$). Table 5.15 shows the test comparisons.

Table 5.15: Acknowledged Sponsor-Likely Sponsor F test Comparisons

Model	F_t	Sig
Less Attributes (M_{Ra})	2.85	No
Less Benefit/usage (M_{Rb})	78.43	Yes
Less Image (M_{Ri})	8.49	Yes

Critical $F_{.05, 1, 171}$ = 3.84

Benefit/usage was found to be the major dimension contributing to AS-LS fit. Possessing 14% of the variance accounted for ($R^2_{MC} - R^2_{MRb} = .143$) this dimension was substantially higher than image which accounted for only 1.6% of the variance ($R^2_{MC} - R^2_{MRa} = .016$). Attributes were found to explain the least amount of variance ($R^2_{MC} - R^2_{MRa} = .006$). Table 5.16 reports the prediction findings.

Table 5.16: Acknowledged Sponsor-Likely Sponsor Fit Prediction

	R^2	Difference ($R^2_{MC} - R^2_{MR}$)
Less Attributes (M_{Ra})	.692	.006
Less Benefit/usage (M_{Rb})	.555	.143
Less Image (M_{Ri})	.682	.016

$R^2_{MC} = .698$

To test for parsimony, the complete model was tested against a model with both the attributes and image dimensions removed. Results from table 5.17 indicate the removal of these dimensions only marginally decreases the variance explained ($R^2_{Mc} - R^2_{Mp} = .030$).

Table 5.17: Acknowledged Sponsor – Likely Sponsor Parsimonious Model (M_P)

	Co-efficient statistics				Model Statistics		
Variable	β	t-statistic	Sig	VIF	R^2	F-Statistic	Sig.
Benefit/usage	.884	17.219	.000**	1.099	.668	111.889	.000**
Familiarity	.060	.958	.340	1.135			
Instantiation	-.001	-.012	.991	1.134			

Dependent variable: Holistic Fit.
**: Significant at the .01 level
$R^2_{Mc} = .698$
N = 171

The results from the validity tests, the multicollinearity diagnostics and the nested regressions suggest AS-LS associations are primarily determined by benefit/usage. In the interests of parsimony, both attributes and image were removed from the model and

further analysis (Mendenhall and Sincich, 1996; Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black, 1998).

Of interest is the lack of significance for consumer knowledge. Only one of the nested regressions found consumer knowledge to be significant with instantiation shown to be significant only with the removal of benefit/usage. While these findings would suggest the removal consumer knowledge from the model, this knowledge may still influence response to a brand despite of its lack of predictability of AS-LS fit. That is, familiarity contains well established and stable attitudes and behaviors irrespective of its ability to predict fit (Fazio, 1986; Alba and Hutchinson, 1987; Bettman and Sujan, 1987; Fazio, 1989).

In summary, both event-sponsor and sponsor-sponsor tests suggest prediction to be best achieved using reduced models. For the Event-LS fit evidence suggests the primary driver is attributes: for AS-LS fit it is benefit/usage. Results of the F-test comparisons show image to have no significant and/or substantial effect on either Event-LS or AS-LS fit. While benefit/usage was found to have a significant influence on event-sponsor fit high collinearity diagnostics and low predictability would suggest removal of this item from further studies. Attributes were also found to possess low predictability and lack of significance on AS-LS fit. These results would suggest the removal of AS-LS attribute fit from further analysis.

For the reasons above a more prudent model was used to test consumer judgments. Using this principle of parsimony the test model may now be written as:

$$B_o = f[e(A) + s(B) + (Fam + Inst)]$$

- Where:
  - B_o = Brand outcomes.
  - e(A) = Event-LS Attributes
  - s(B) = AS-LS Benefit/usage
  - Fam = Familiarity
  - Inst = Instantiation

5.4.3: Consumer Judgments

Both Logit and nested regressions were carried out to test the significance and predictability of each dimension using this model.

5.4.3.1: Recall

Results show over 80% of the respondents recalled the likely sponsor correctly. Table 5.18 shows 148 of the respondents to correctly recall the sponsor with only 23 found to be incorrect.

Table 5.18: Likely Sponsor Recall.

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	148	86%
No	23	14%
Total	171	100%

Tests were conducted to examine the influence of the above dimensions and consumer knowledge on recall of the likely sponsor. However, as information processing in sponsorship is a constructive process (Johar and Pham, 1999) and subjects were first

asked to recall the primed event followed by a sponsor, this might then influence likely sponsor recall. To accommodate this both event and acknowledged sponsor recall was included in this test.

As recall is a dichotomous variable Logistic regression was applied. The advantage of Logistic regression is that it provides the ability to test both categorical and continuous independent variables against a dichotomous dependent variable (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1996; Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black, 1998). Based upon the parsimonious model above, the logistic model may thus be written as:

$$LS_{rc} = e(A) + s(B) + Fam + Inst + E_{rc} + AS_{rc}$$

- Where:
  - LS_{rc} = Likely Sponsor recall (1 if correct; 0 if otherwise).
  - e(A) = Event-LS Attributes
  - s(B) = AS-LS Benefit/usage
  - Fam = Familiarity
  - Inst = Instantiation
  - E_{rc} = Event recall (1 if correct; 0 if otherwise).
  - AS_{rc} = Acknowledge Sponsor recall (1 if correct; 0 if otherwise).

Table 5.19 shows good fit was found for the Logistic regression model. Using the log likelihood value (LLV) as a measure of error in model estimation, estimation was found to significantly increase (χ^2 [6 df] = 38.99, sig = .000) with the inclusion of the independent variables (LLV = 71.90) against the base assumption that they do not estimate recall (LLV = 110.89). Good fit was also found between the actual model and predicted model with the Hosmer and Lemeshow value shown to have an insignificant

Chi-square (χ^2 [8 df] = 3.15, sig. = .92) (Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black, 1998). Over 44% of the variance in the model may be explained by the variables used (Nagelkerke R^2 = .445).

Table 5.19: Logit Goodness of Fit Indices.

Measure	Results
Log Likelihood Value (base model)	110.897*
Log Likelihood Value (estimated value)	71.902*
Nagelkerke R^2 test	.445
Hosmer and Lemeshow value	χ^2 = 3.159; sig. = .924

* χ^2 [6 df] = 38.99, sig = .000

From table 5.20 it can be seen that only recall of the event and the acknowledged sponsor had a significant influence on recall of the likely sponsor. Of interest is the fact that both these variables had a negative influence on likely sponsor recall. This would then imply that where the event and the acknowledged are recalled correctly there is less likelihood of the likely sponsor being recalled. Both Event-LS and AS-LS fit were shown to have no significant effect on recall. Hypothesis 2a is not supported.

Table 5.20: Logistic Regression

Variables	B	S.E.	Sig.
Event-LS attributes	-.106	.143	.462
AS-LS Benefit/usage	-.031	.141	.826
Familiarity	.212	.166	.201
Instantiation	-.063	.143	.660
Event recalled correctly	-2.155	.740	.004*
AS recalled correctly	-3.033	.963	.002*
Constant	1.260	1.527	.409

* Sig. < .01

5.4.3.2: Attitudes

Results of the regression shown in table 5.21 supports hypothesis 2b. Benefit/usage fit between sponsors was shown to have a significant positive effect on attitudes in all models. This was supported with the increase in SSE and the decrease in variance explained in the benefit/usage reduced model.

Event-LS attribute fit was shown to be significant in the complete model (Mc: $t = 2.10$; $p = .045$). Significance was found for all the reduced models except for one reduced model. Attribute fit was found to be non-significant with the removal of familiarity from the equation (M_{Rfam}: $\beta = 0.103$; $t = 1.624$; $p > .05$). The substantial reduction in variance explained with the removal of familiarity would indicate the importance of this construct in predicting attitudes (M_{Rfam}: $R^2 = .091$).

While all regression models were significant results reveal instantiation to be non-significant ($p > .05$). The small change in SSE combined with the small reduction in variance explained in the reduced model ($R^2 = .219$) point to a lack of predictive power for this variable.

Table 5.21: Attitudes Nested Regressions.

		Co-efficient statistics				Model Statistics			
Model	Variable	β	t statistic	Sig	VIF	SSE	R^2	F Statistic	Sig.
Complete (M_C)	Event-LS Attribute	.119	2.018	.045*	1.055	618.545	.220	11.721	.000**
	AS-LS Benefit/usage	.132	2.196	.030*	1.168				
	Familiarity	.387	5.249	.000**	1.135				
	Instantiation	-.035	-.579	.563	1.148				
Less Event-LS Attribute dimension (M_{Rea})	AS-LS Benefit/usage	.160	2.703	.008**	1.107	633.713	.201	14.013	.000**
	Familiarity	.379	5.105	.000**	1.132				
	Instantiation	-.043	-.697	.487	1.144				
Less AS-LS Benefit/usage dimension (M_{Rsb})	Event-LS Attributes	.149	2.558	.011*	1.000	636.506	.198	13.707	.000**
	Familiarity	.416	5.684	.000**	1.097				
	Instantiation	-.007	-.115	.909	1.097				
Less Familiarity (M_{Rfam})	Event-LS Attributes	.103	1.624	.106	1.053	721.216	.091	5.559	.001**
	AS-LS Benefit/usage	.190	2.983	.003**	1.129				
	Instantiation	.044	.682	.496	1.079				
Less Instantiation (M_{Rinst})	Event-LS Attributes	.121	2.061	.041*	1.051	619.793	.219	15.578	.000**
	AS-LS Benefit/usage	.125	2.125	.035*	1.115				
	Familiarity	.376	5.279	.000**	1.066				

Dependent variable: Attitudes.
*: Significant at the .05 level
**: Significant at the .01 level
N = 171

F-test comparisons confirm these findings. Table 5.22 shows only instantiation to be non-significant ($F_t < 3.94$). While both attributes ($F_t = 4.09$) and the benefit/usage ($F_t = 4.91$) were found to be significant predictors of attitudes ($F_t > 3.84$), results would indicate familiarity to have the greater effect ($F_t = 25.32$).

Table 5.22: Attitudes F test Comparisons

Model	F_t	Sig
Less Event-LS Attributes dimension (M_{Rea})	4.09	Yes
Less AS-LS Benefit/usage dimension (M_{Rsb})	4.91	Yes
Less Familiarity (M_{Rfam})	25.32	Yes
Less Instantiation (M_{Rinst})	.03	No

Critical $F_{.05, 1, 171} = 3.84$

Table 5.23 shows the predictive strength of each dimension/construct. Results indicate familiarity to have the greatest predictive ability (variance explained in the model = 58.6%) with both attributes and benefit/usage combined accounting for 18.6% of the variance (8.6% and 10.0% respectively). Instantiation accounted for only .04% of the variance corroborating the F-test comparisons.

Table 5.23: Attitudes Prediction

	R^2	Difference ($R^2_{MC} - R^2_{MR}$)	Sig	% variance explained R^2_{MC} (diff/ R^2_{MC})
Less Event-LS Attributes dimension (M_{Rea})	.201	.019	Yes	8.6%
Less AS-LS Benefit/usage dimension (M_{Rsb})	.198	.022	Yes	10.0%
Less Familiarity (M_{Rfam})	.091	.129	Yes	58.6%
Less Instantiation (M_{Rinst})	.219	.001	No	.4%

$R^2_{MC} = .220$

In summary, results show both Event-LS and AS-LS fit to have a significant effect on attitudes. Both Event-LS attributes and AS-LS benefit/usage were found to explain approximately 19% of the variance in the model with benefit/usage shown to have the larger effect (10%). This supports hypothesis 2b. However, consumer knowledge was found to be the greatest effect on attitudes accounting for almost 59% of the variance in the model. Familiarity was the major influence with instantiation found to

have no significant effect on attitudes. The important conclusion from this analysis is that though possessing lesser predictive power than consumer knowledge, AS-LS fit does have an effect on brand attitudes.

5.4.3.3: Intentions

Hypothesis 2c was not supported. Table 5.24 shows consumer knowledge to be the greatest influence on intentions. Familiarity was shown to have a significant influence in all models ($p < .05$) with instantiation have a significant influence for the familiarity reduced model (M_{Rfam}: $\beta = 0.215$; $t = 2.430$; $p < .05$). Both the attribute and the benefit/usage dimensions were found to have no significant influence on intentions for all regressions models tested ($p > .05$).

Table 5.24: Intentions Nested Regressions.

		Co-efficient statistics				Model Statistics			
Model	Variable	β	t statistic	Sig	VIF	SSE	R^2	F Statistic	Sig.
Complete (M_C)	Event-LS Attribute	.093	1.074	.284	1.055	1303.59	.098	4.492	.002**
	AS-LS benefit/usage	.014	.154	.878	1.168				
	Familiarity	.315	2.937	.004**	1.135				
	Instantiation	.150	1.681	.095	1.151				
Less Event-LS Attribute dimension (M_{Rea})	AS-LS Benefit/usage	.035	.409	.683	1.108	1312.70	.092	5.600	.001**
	Familiarity	.309	2.883	.004**	1.132				
	Instantiation	.144	1.618	.108	1.147				
Less AS-LS Benefit/usage dimension (M_{Rsb})	Event-LS Attributes	.096	1.142	.255	1.000	1303.78	.098	6.017	.001**
	Familiarity	.318	3.023	.003**	1.098				
	Instantiation	.153	1.760	.080	1.098				
Less Familiarity (M_{Rfam})	Event-LS Attributes	.079	.902	.368	1.052	1371.72	.051	2.978	.033*
	AS-LS Benefit/usage	.060	.682	.496	1.130.				
	Instantiation	.215	2.430	.016*	1.081				
Less Instantiation (M_{Rinst})	Event-LS Attributes	.084	.969	.334	1.051	1320.92	.083	4.993	.002**
	AS-LS Benefit/usage	.045	.525	.600	1.114				
	Familiarity	.360	3.442	.001**	1.066				

Dependent variable: Intentions
*: Significant at the .05 level
**: Significant at the .01 level
N = 171

F-test comparisons confirm the nested regressions. Consumer knowledge was shown to significantly predict intentions. Both familiarity and instantiation were found to be significant predictors, while both attributes and benefit/usage were found to be below the critical value of F ($F_{.05, 1, 171} = 3.84$). Table 5.25 shows the F-test comparisons.

Table 5.25: Intentions F test Comparisons

Model	F_t	Sig
Less Event-LS Attributes dimension (M_{Rea})	2.46	No
Less AS-LS Benefit/usage dimension (M_{Rsb})	.05	No
Less Familiarity (M_{Rfam})	18.43	Yes
Less Instantiation (M_{Rinst})	4.59	Yes

Critical $F_{.05, 1, 171} = 3.84$

Consumer knowledge was shown to be the greatest predictor of intentions. Familiarity was found to have the highest predictive ability (variance explained = 48%) with instantiation accounting for 15% of the variance. While event-sponsor attributes was shown to account for 6% of the variance explained, the lack of significance for this dimension would indicate lack of importance for this variable. Table 5.26 shows the predictive ability for each model.

Table 5.26: Intentions Prediction

Model	R^2	Difference ($R^2_{MC} - R^2M_R$)	Sig	% variance explained R^2_{MC} (Diff / R^2_{MC})
Less Event-LS Attributes dimension (M_{Rea})	.092	.006	No	6.1%
Less AS-LS Benefit/usage dimension (M_{Rsb})	.098	.000	No	0.0%
Less Familiarity (M_{Rfam})	.051	.047	Yes	47.9%
Less Instantiation (M_{Rinst})	.083	.015	Yes	15.3%

$R^2_{MC} = .098$

5.8: Summary

In summary, for Event-LS associations the findings from the experimental research strengthen the findings from study one. Hypothesis 1a is supported with attributes shown to be the major contributor to the prediction of event-sponsor fit. However, both study 1 and study 2 offer a contradiction to the current theory of image as a major dimension of fit. Study 1 suggested this dimension to have a significant influence on fit but lack of predictive power. Study 2 however, shows this dimension to have no significant effect on fit confirming its lack of predictive power. Given these findings hypothesis 1b is only partially supported. While benefit/usage was also shown to be a significant influence on Event-LS fit, the confirmatory factor analysis, the collinearity diagnostics and the principle of parsimony would suggest benefit/usage be removed from the model (Mendenhall and Sincich, 1994). As such, hypothesis 1c is given partial support.

Logistic regression found both Event-LS and AS-LS associations to have no significant effect on brand recall. As such, hypothesis 2a is not supported. What is of interest is the negative effect of event and acknowledged sponsor recall. The more the subjects recalled both these entities, the lesser they are likely to recall the likely sponsor. This would suggest that given the limited processing capacity of the human mind, the recall of the event and the acknowledged sponsor taxes the respondent causing a greater degree of incorrect recall of the likely sponsor (Simon, 1978).

Results show AS-LS associations to affect attitudes. As such, hypothesis 2b is supported. It is interesting to note that AS-LS benefit/usage associations have a higher percentage of variance explained than Event-LS attribute associations. Though only a

small difference in predictive power was found, the importance of this result being that AS-LS associations have at least as much predictive power as Event-LS associations.

Consumer knowledge was shown to play a major part in brand intentions. Both familiarity and instantiation were found to account for over 50% of the variance in intentions to purchase, while Event-LS and AS-LS fit were found to have an insignificant effect on intentions to purchase. Hypothesis 2c is not supported.

The results of the AS-LS nested regressions offer some support for hypothesis 3. It is interesting to note the high variance explained by the benefit/usage dimension. Thus, within sponsorship, the perceived benefit offered through the usage of both sponsors' products influences consumer evaluations. Hypothesis 3a is supported. However, this was not so for the AS-LS image dimension. Though found to be a significant measure of fit the principle of parsimony would again suggest removing the image dimension from the model. Given these findings hypothesis 3b is only given partial support. Attributes were found to possess an insignificant relationships with AS-LS fit, supporting hypothesis 3c. Table 5.27 shows the results of the hypothesis tests.

Table 5.27: Study 2 Hypotheses Results.

Hypotheses No.		*Hypotheses*	*Finding*
Hypothesis 1	**a**	Greater perceived attribute overlap between the event and the sponsor will increase the perceived fit between the event and the brand sponsor.	Supported
	b	Greater perceived image similarity between the event and the sponsor will increase the perceived fit between the event and the brand sponsor.	Partially supported
	c	Greater perceived benefit/usage between the event and the sponsor will increase the perceived fit between the event and the brand sponsor.	Partially supported
Hypothesis 2	**a**	Brand recall will be positively influenced by the fit between brand sponsors.	Not supported
	b	Brand attitudes will be positively influenced by a perceived positive fit between brand sponsors.	Supported
	c	Brand intentions will be positively influenced by a perceived positive fit between brand sponsors.	Not supported
Hypothesis 3	**a**	Positive perceived benefit/usage will have a positive effect on perceived fit between brand sponsors.	Supported
	b	Positive perceived image similarity will have a positive effect on perceived fit between brand sponsors.	Partially supported
	c	Attributes will have no significant effect on perceived fit between brand sponsors.	Supported

Chapter 6: Conclusions, Implications and Limitations

6.1: Conclusions

Research on fit in sponsorship has established that associations between the event and the sponsor assist in information transference (Gwinner, 1997; Gwinner and Eaton, 1999; Cornwell, Pruitt and Von Ness, 2001). A primary question from this research was what dimensions underlie these associations? Prior research on fit in the sponsorship literature has identified two dimensions: image and functionality. This research further examined fit by: 1) separating functionality into two dimensions (attributes and benefit/usage); and, 2) including sponsor-sponsor fit into the model. Outcomes from the two studies support the theory of three dimensions of fit and the importance of understanding the effect of other sponsors on brand equity. The findings shed light on the significance of these dimensions and provide evidence regarding how these dimensions may assist brand managers.

The three dimensions of fit were found to be distributed over both event-sponsor and sponsor-sponsor associations. Consistent with Tversky's (1977) features of similarity model, results from the field research in study 1 indicate a clear advantage for those brands having some features similar to the event. Using nested regressions to test the significance and predictive power of each dimension, event-sponsor fit was found to be primarily determined by the attribute dimension. While both benefit/usage and image were individually found to significantly predict fit, high collinearity and lack of prediction when combined with the attributes dimension suggest attributes to be the principal determinant of event-sponsor fit. This was further confirmed in study 2.

Using an experimental design, study 2 reexamined event-sponsor associations and further extended current research by incorporating sponsor-sponsor associations into the model. Using an acknowledged sponsor (AS) and a likely sponsor (LS) in the second study attributes were again found to be the primary determinant of Event-LS fit, mirroring study 1. However, this was not so for AS-LS fit. Subsequent investigations into AS-LS fit point to a significant advantage for sponsors where fit can be determined by both benefit/usage and/or image. Again, the principle of parsimony would suggest leaving out image as a major determinant of AS-LS fit because of its lack of predictive power. This then leaves benefit/usage as the primary determinant of these between sponsor associations. Hence, while each individual dimension of fit was found to exist within sponsorship, they are not replicated for both Event-LS and AS-LS associations. Specific dimensions are relative to specific relationships.

A key question in this research was whether sponsor-sponsor associations affected brand judgments. Results from study 2 partially support this theory. Examination of the effect of Event-LS and AS-LS fit found fit between sponsors to have greater predictive power on attitudes than Event-LS fit. These AS-LS associations and their effect on brand attitudes are consistent with the brand alliance literature whereby a brand can be influenced by its associations with other brands (Rao and Ruekert, 1994; Simonin and Ruth, 1998; Rao, Qu and Ruekert, 1999). However, while Event-LS *and* AS-LS fit influenced brand attitudes they did not increase recall and purchase intentions.

Recall of the likely sponsor was found to be negatively related to recall of the event and/or the acknowledged sponsor. That is, better recall of the Event and/or the AS reduced recall of the LS. One reason for this may be in the limited capacity of people to

process information (Simon, 1978; Taylor, 1981; Johar and Pham, 1998). To reduce effort consumers are likely to trade-off accuracy and rely more on their values and beliefs (Payne, Bettman and Johnson, 1993). Given this trade-off, there is a strong likelihood that the sponsor recalled is the best alternative based upon the most dominant feature associated with the values and beliefs held for the event. This use of the lexicographic rule (Payne, Bettman and Johnson, 1993) would then imply when the event is recalled first, as in this research, there is an increase in the likelihood of the LS being recalled incorrectly, especially if the LS has low feature similar with the event. Unfortunately, this research has addressed only the ability to recall, not the process rules underlying this recall. Further research on consumer decision making in sponsorship could test for the decision strategies employed in this marketplace.

Literature on priming and context effects has found prior knowledge to play a significant part in consumer evaluations (Chaffin, 1981; Herr, 1989; Peracchio and Tybout, 1996). It is this knowledge that affects such evaluations as brand recognition, brand recall, and consideration set formation (Samu, Krishnan and Smith, 1999). Consumer knowledge therefore influences consumers' judgments. Results from the purchases intentions analysis would support this theory. Neither Event-LS nor AS-LS fit were shown to have any significant effect on intentions, yet both instantiation and familiarity were found otherwise. This would imply that where brands possess high consumer knowledge, consumer evaluations are less likely to be affected by the degree of fit but rather by the strength of the current knowledge contained in the brand schema. This is consistent with Bettman and Sujan (1987) who found that consumer knowledge in the form of familiarity provides stability in brand preference.

6.2: Managerial Implications

For a marketing manager sponsorship provides a media vehicle to help improve consumer perceptions and increase favourability in brand choice (Cornwell Weeks and Roy, 2005). Using perceived associations between entities this improvement helps increase brand equity (Cornwell and Maignan, 1998; Cornwell, Pruitt and Von Ness, 2001; Keller, 2003). Reflecting this importance, and moving from being just an addition to a marketing campaign to become a keystone of a marketing strategy, sponsorship decision-making is shifting from product or band managers to senior managers (Burton, Quester and Farrelly, 1996; Meenaghan, 1998). For those managers using this media vehicle, the use of sponsorship as a resource must entail an understanding of the consumer and their cognitive processes (Cornwell, Weeks and Roy, 2005).

From a branding perspective, the overriding finding from this research is that consumers are influenced by more than event-sponsor associations; there are associations between sponsors that also influence brand attitudes. The results of this research imply that while product exclusivity and fit between the event and the sponsor may be a major advantage (Hall, 1992; Fahy, Farrelly and Quester, 2004; Cornwell, Weeks and Roy, 2005), an added advantage can be obtained if some degree of fit can be established between sponsors. As such, other sponsors cannot be ignored when undertaking sponsorship. Drawing upon these findings, the primary implication of this research is that brand managers need to think about not only their fit with the event but also with other sponsor's brands.

For managers using sponsorship to promote their brand one of the key ingredients to leverage this promotion is to establish associations with the event (Javalgi, Traylor, Gross and Lampman, 1994, Gwinner, 1997; Gwinner and Eaton, 1999; Madrigal, 2001).

Despite its preliminary character, the research reported here would seem to indicate that this leverage may be increased more by promoting event attribute associations. While image and benefit/usage may individually create fit with the event, managers focusing on the attributes are more likely to create greater leverage in their campaigns. The establishment of these attribute associations through the use of other sponsorship linked marketing is thus likely to create greater sponsorship value (Cornwell, 1995; Cornwell and Maignan, 1998; Cornwell, Pruitt and Von Ness, 2001).

For organizations possessing or undertaking long-term contracts to provide a long-term competitive advantage, other sponsors need to be considered. Additional leverage off the event can occur when the associations between sponsors possess some form of perceived benefit/usage to the customer. This would then imply that sponsors need to have a degree of influence on selection of other potential sponsors. This may be by requesting not only product exclusivity but also what other product categories and sponsors may be contracted to the event. This is surely an important consideration for major naming rights sponsors. By possessing come control over this selection process these major sponsors can then create additional value from their campaigns.

However, this is likely to be viewed negatively by the event organisation. Their primary objective is to attain as much finance as possible by adding other product categories and exclusivity of that category irrespective of how the sponsor fits with the event. While this may seem to be in contradiction with the preceding paragraph this need not be so. Given the results from this research event managers could focus on creating a family of product categories that share not only attributes with the event but also provide a benefit when used together either within the event or external to the event. By using the

event itself as the nucleus of the associations and focusing on these dimensions specifically, event managers an offer a potential increase in event leveraging. This then provides a strategic direction for event managers.

6.3: Limitations and Further Research

While consumer knowledge may have a significant influence on brand judgments, when viewed in relation to the current research which used brands from the top 100 in the world, the results are more striking. Despite this degree of familiarity attitudes were still found to be influenced by sponsor-sponsor associations. However, this is also a limitation to this research. Consistent with previous research, consumer knowledge was a major influence on information processing and brand judgments. This would then imply that fit may have a greater influence on brand judgments when less familiar brands are incorporated into the studies. Further research is required using a combination of both well known and lesser known brands to test for a change in brand judgments (i.e. recall and intentions) relative to the degree of familiarity.

Brands were developed in the pretests using those perceived to have a relationship with the events. To increase variability between brands a best/worst scaling technique could have been applied. A list of brands is thus developed not only on their fit with the event but also on their unlikely fit with the event. This is likely to increase the effect size and increase variability in the research design allowing for greater analysis of fit. Incorporating high, middle and low levels of fit into the model using this technique would help to further extend this research.

No specific dimension of fit was communicated in the media release. Subjects had to construct the associations themselves. This has high practical implications for brand

managers. The use of sponsorship is to create and communicate associations between the event and the brand. Other sponsorship linked marketing is then used to help convey these associations (Cornwell, 1995). This research would suggest that identifying the dimension of fit between the event and the sponsor and also between sponsors should increase favourability in brand judgments. Further research could test the effect of conveying the specific dimension in the promotional campaign. That is, does the importance of the dimension increase when the dimension is expressed to the consumer?

Of concern is the lack of support for image fit. Research gave only partial support for this dimension on both Event-LS and AS-LS fit. Though individually found to have a significant effect, this dimension had a lack of predictive power in both study 1 and study 2. This then provides a contradiction to current theory (e.g. McDaniel, 1999; Gwinner and Eaton, 1999; Speed and Thompson, 2000; Ruth and Simonin, 2003; Rifon, Choi, Trimble and Li, 2004). One reason for this may lie in the aforementioned lack of enunciation of a link between the event and the sponsor. Respondents were just given the name of the event and sponsors and had to infer a fit dimension. This would imply that psychologically the natural tendency for consumers is to deduce event-sponsor attribute fit and sponsor-sponsor benefit/usage fit. A second reason may be methodological. Results show high collinearity between dimensions whereby one dimension may be captured by another dimension. This may suggest more definitive items are required when measuring each dimension simultaneously. Further research is required to confirm/refute these theories.