

# **The contribution of sports sponsorship to consumer-based brand equity**

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## **Abstract**

Sponsorship has become a multi-billion dollar industry, with sport accounting for over 70% of expenditure. Despite the growth in the use of sponsorship as a communications tool, the development of academic understanding has been slow and dominated by descriptive studies. Therefore, this study contributes to the growing body of knowledge concerning how sponsorship works, through the application of the theoretical framework of consumer-based brand equity to the domain of sports sponsorship.

Following a comprehensive review of the varying conceptualisations put forward in the literature, a four-factor model of consumer-based brand equity was adopted, with the corresponding measurement tool modified, as a result of pilot studies, to fit the sponsorship context.

This study empirically tests the contribution of sports sponsorship to elements of consumer-based brand equity using six sponsored events across three sports. In line with much previous sponsorship research, a quantitative methodology was employed, using a self-administered questionnaire. Responses from spectators exposed to the sponsorship stimuli are contrasted with those from a comparison sample not present at the sporting events.

The results obtained indicate that sports sponsorship is a legitimate communications vehicle for building consumer-based brand equity. Differential results were found for the three sponsoring brands. The findings indicate that, in the case of newly launched brands, sponsorship alone is insufficient to go beyond brand awareness and build brand equity. Several reasons for the different levels of success between sponsors are explored in the thesis, however a dominant theme is the strength of association between the sponsor and the sponsored property.

This thesis has moved forward the level of knowledge concerning the ability of sponsorship to contribute to brand building objectives and, therefore, acts as a springboard for future studies, particularly examining the conditions under which the impact of sponsorship is optimised.

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# **List of Contents**

<b>List of Tables</b>	<b>I</b>
-----------------------	----------

<b>List of Figures</b>	<b>V</b>
------------------------	----------

<b><u>CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION</u></b>	<b>1</b>
---------------------------------------	----------

<b>1.1</b>	<b>Introduction</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>1.2</b>	<b>Research Context</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>1.3</b>	<b>Sponsored Events</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>1.4</b>	<b>Relevance of the Study</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>1.5</b>	<b>Research Aims and Objectives</b>	<b>9</b>
<b>1.6</b>	<b>Structure of the Thesis</b>	<b>11</b>

<b><u>CHAPTER 2: SPONSORSHIP CONTEXT</u></b>	<b>15</b>
--	-----------

<b>2.1</b>	<b>Introduction</b>	<b>15</b>
<b>2.2</b>	<b>History of Sponsorship</b>	<b>16</b>
	2.2.1 Sponsorship expenditure	21
	2.2.2 Olympic sponsorship	23
	2.2.3 Drivers of growth in sponsorship	26
	2.2.4 The future of sponsorship	28
<b>2.3</b>	<b>Defining Sponsorship</b>	<b>29</b>
	2.3.1 Sponsorship or philanthropy?	30
	2.3.2 Defining commercial sponsorship	32
	2.3.3 Distinguishing sponsorship from advertising	35
<b>2.4</b>	<b>Leveraging Sponsorship</b>	<b>37</b>
<b>2.5</b>	<b>Development of Sponsorship Knowledge</b>	<b>39</b>
	2.5.1 Early descriptive research	40
	2.5.2 An organisational perspective	40
	2.5.3 Sponsorship objectives	41
	2.5.4 Sponsorship evaluation	46

---

---

2.5.5	Current state of sponsorship research	50
2.6	Conclusion	51
<b><u>CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW</u></b>		<b>52</b>
3.1	Introduction	52
3.2	The Nature of a Brand	54
3.2.1	The history of brands	54
3.2.2	Products and brands	55
3.2.3	Products and services	58
3.2.4	What is a brand?	59
3.3	Brand Equity	65
3.3.1	Financial brand equity	67
3.3.2	Defining consumer-based brand equity	71
3.3.3	Brand awareness	77
3.3.4	Measuring brand awareness	79
3.3.5	Brand associations	82
3.3.6	Measuring brand associations	87
3.3.7	Perceived quality	89
3.3.8	Measuring perceived quality	92
3.3.9	Brand loyalty	95
3.3.10	Measuring brand loyalty	98
3.3.11	Other proprietary brand assets	100
3.4	Developing a Measure of Brand Equity	101
3.4.1	Proprietary brand equity measurement tools	102
3.4.2	Academic brand equity measurement tools	103
3.5	Creating Brand Equity	110
3.5.1	Historical perspectives on marketing communications effectiveness	111
3.5.2	The brand building role of marketing communications	113
3.6	Sponsorship and Brand Equity	117
3.6.1	Sponsorship and brand awareness	118
3.6.2	Sponsorship and brand associations	122

---

---

3.6.3	Sponsorship and perceived quality, purchase intention and brand loyalty	127
3.6.4	How sponsorship works	131
3.7	Contribution to Knowledge	135
3.8	Hypotheses	136
3.9	Conclusion	139

## **CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY** 142

4.1	Introduction	142
4.2	Philosophical Orientation	143
4.2.1	Epistemology	143
4.2.2	Ontology	145
4.2.3	Deductive research	146
4.3	Research Design	148
4.3.1	Survey methodology	149
4.3.2	Implications of theoretical framework for methodology	150
4.4	Research Quality	151
4.4.1	Reliability	152
4.4.2	Validity	153
4.4.3	Determining causation	154
4.5	Data Collection Instrument	156
4.5.1	Questionnaires as a research tool	156
4.5.2	Operationalisation of variables	159
4.5.3	Questionnaire design	163
4.6	Pilot Testing	165
4.6.1	Pilot studies	165
4.6.2	Pilot study results	166
4.6.3	Implications of pilot study on data collection instrument	168
4.6.4	Reliability of brand equity indicators in questionnaire	176
4.7	Sampling	177
4.7.1	Respondent sampling	178
4.7.2	Random sampling	179

---

---

4.7.3	Non-random sampling	181
4.7.4	Event selection	186
4.8	Triangulation	187
4.9	Data Analysis	189
4.8.1	Data preparation	189
4.8.2	Data analysis techniques	191
4.9	Conclusion	193

## **CHAPTER 5: RESULTS – WORLD BOWLS CHAMPIONSHIPS** 195

5.1	Introduction	195
5.2	Bowls Sponsorship	196
5.3	Event Information	197
5.4	The Potters Holidays Brand	197
5.5	The engage Brand	198
5.6	Demographic Data	199
5.7	Sponsorship Awareness	200
5.8	Brand Awareness	203
5.9	Brand Associations	206
5.10	Perceived Quality	216
5.11	Brand Loyalty	226
5.12	Impact of Sponsorship Awareness among Comparison Sample	238
5.13	Impact of Customer Status	239
5.14	Sponsorship and Brand Preference	240
5.15	Conclusion	243

## **CHAPTER 6: RESULTS – GRAND PRIX ATHLETICS** 245

6.1	Introduction	245
6.2	Athletics Sponsorship	246
6.3	Event information	246
6.4	The Norwich Union Brand	247
6.5	Demographic Data	248

---



---

<b>6.6</b>	<b>Sponsorship Awareness</b>	<b>249</b>
<b>6.7</b>	<b>Brand Awareness</b>	<b>251</b>
<b>6.8</b>	<b>Brand Associations</b>	<b>253</b>
<b>6.9</b>	<b>Perceived Quality</b>	<b>260</b>
<b>6.10</b>	<b>Brand Loyalty</b>	<b>267</b>
<b>6.11</b>	<b>Impact of Customer Status</b>	<b>274</b>
<b>6.12</b>	<b>Impact of Sponsorship Awareness among Comparison Sample</b>	<b>279</b>
<b>6.13</b>	<b>Sponsorship and Brand Preference</b>	<b>280</b>
<b>6.14</b>	<b>Conclusion</b>	<b>282</b>

---

<b><u>CHAPTER 7: RESULTS – PRO40 CRICKET</u></b>	<b>284</b>
--	------------

<b>7.1</b>	<b>Introduction</b>	<b>284</b>
<b>7.2</b>	<b>Cricket Sponsorship</b>	<b>285</b>
<b>7.3</b>	<b>Event Information</b>	<b>286</b>
<b>7.4</b>	<b>The Natwest Brand</b>	<b>286</b>
<b>7.5</b>	<b>Demographic Data</b>	<b>287</b>
<b>7.6</b>	<b>Sponsorship Awareness</b>	<b>288</b>
<b>7.7</b>	<b>Brand Awareness</b>	<b>290</b>
<b>7.8</b>	<b>Brand Associations</b>	<b>292</b>
<b>7.9</b>	<b>Perceived Quality</b>	<b>298</b>
<b>7.10</b>	<b>Brand Loyalty</b>	<b>305</b>
<b>7.11</b>	<b>Impact of Customer Status</b>	<b>312</b>
<b>7.12</b>	<b>Impact of Sponsorship Awareness among Comparison Sample</b>	<b>315</b>
<b>7.13</b>	<b>Sponsorship and Brand Preference</b>	<b>317</b>
<b>7.14</b>	<b>Conclusion</b>	<b>319</b>

---

<b><u>CHAPTER 8: DISCUSSION</u></b>	<b>321</b>
-------------------------------------	------------

<b>8.1</b>	<b>Introduction</b>	<b>321</b>
<b>8.2</b>	<b>Sponsorship Awareness</b>	<b>322</b>
	<b>8.2.1 Sponsorship TOMA</b>	<b>322</b>
	<b>8.2.2 Sponsorship recognition</b>	<b>323</b>

---



---

8.2.3	Sponsorship awareness among comparison samples	325
8.2.4	Event title sponsorship	327
<b>8.3</b>	<b>Brand Awareness</b>	<b>328</b>
8.3.1	Name awareness	329
8.3.2	Product class associations	331
8.3.3	Brand opinion	333
<b>8.4</b>	<b>Brand Associations</b>	<b>335</b>
8.4.1	Overall brand associations	336
8.4.2	Individual brand associations elements	338
8.4.3	Brand associations and perceived sponsorship fit	340
<b>8.5</b>	<b>Perceived Quality</b>	<b>344</b>
8.5.1	Overall perceived quality	345
8.5.2	Individual perceived quality dimensions	347
<b>8.6</b>	<b>Brand Loyalty</b>	<b>350</b>
8.6.1	Overall brand loyalty	350
8.6.2	Attitudinal and behavioural brand loyalty	352
<b>8.7</b>	<b>Differential Impact of Sponsorship on Brand Equity Elements</b>	<b>355</b>
<b>8.8</b>	<b>Impact of Product Trial on Sports Sponsorship Effectiveness</b>	<b>356</b>
<b>8.9</b>	<b>Differential Impact of Sponsorship for Customers and Non-customers</b>	<b>360</b>
<b>8.10</b>	<b>Conclusions</b>	<b>362</b>
 <b><u>CHAPTER 9: CONCLUSION</u></b>		<b>370</b>
<b>9.1</b>	<b>Introduction</b>	<b>370</b>
<b>9.2</b>	<b>Summary of Findings</b>	<b>370</b>
<b>9.3</b>	<b>Contribution to Knowledge</b>	<b>373</b>
<b>9.4</b>	<b>Limitations</b>	<b>375</b>
9.4.1	Theoretical limitations	375
9.4.2	Methodological limitations	378
9.4.3	Difficulties of conducting sponsorship research	381
<b>9.5</b>	<b>Areas for Future Research</b>	<b>384</b>
<b>9.6</b>	<b>Future Challenges in Sponsorship Research</b>	<b>387</b>

---

---

<b>9.7 Conclusion</b>	<b>390</b>
-----------------------	------------

<b>BIBLIOGRAPHY</b>	<b>392</b>
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## **APPENDICES**

<b>Appendix 1</b>	<b>Pilot study questionnaire</b>
<b>Appendix 2</b>	<b>Pilot study results</b>
<b>Appendix 3</b>	<b>World Indoor Bowls sponsorship questionnaire</b>
<b>Appendix 4</b>	<b>Ladies World Matchplay Bowls sponsorship questionnaire</b>
<b>Appendix 5</b>	<b>Brand equity questionnaire (engage)</b>
<b>Appendix 6</b>	<b>Grand Prix Athletics sponsorship questionnaire</b>
<b>Appendix 7</b>	<b>Brand equity questionnaire (Norwich Union)</b>
<b>Appendix 8</b>	<b>One-day cricket sponsorship questionnaire</b>
<b>Appendix 9</b>	<b>Brand equity questionnaire (Natwest)</b>
<b>Appendix 10</b>	<b>Letter to comparison sample respondents</b>
<b>Appendix 11</b>	<b>E-mail approach to sponsors</b>
<b>Appendix 12</b>	<b>Supplementary Tables: Potters World Indoor Bowls and engage Ladies World Matchplay Bowls</b>
<b>Appendix 13</b>	<b>Supplementary Tables: Norwich Union Grand Prix Athletics</b>
<b>Appendix 14</b>	<b>Supplementary Tables: Natwest Pro40 Cricket</b>

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---

## **List of Tables**

Table 4.1	Top-of-Mind Sponsorship Awareness	167
Table 4.2	Omitted brand equity measures	171
Table 4.3	Final brand associations measures	172
Table 4.4	Final perceived quality measures	173
Table 4.5	Final brand loyalty measures	174
Table 4.6	Brand Equity Scale Internal Reliability Scores	177
Table 5.1	Bowls sponsorship Top-of-mind awareness	201
Table 5.2	Aided bowls sponsor recognition	202
Table 5.3	Potters Brand Associations (Event)	207
Table 5.4	engage Brand Associations (Event)	208
Table 5.5	engage Brand Associations (Comparison)	208
Table 5.6	Potters v engage Brand Associations (Event) t-test	212
Table 5.7	engage Brand Associations t-test Event-based v comparison Sample)	213
Table 5.8	Individual Brand Associations Dimensions t-tests (Potters v engage event samples)	214
Table 5.9	Individual Brand Associations Dimensions t-test (engage event-based v comparison)	215
Table 5.10	Potters Perceived Quality Dimensions (Event-based sample)	217
Table 5.11	Potters comparison with other leisure resorts (Event-based sample)	217
Table 5.12	engage Perceived Quality Dimensions (Event-based sample)	218
Table 5.13	engage comparison with other financial services providers (Event-based sample)	218
Table 5.14	engage Perceived Quality Dimensions (Comparison sample)	219
Table 5.15	engage comparison with other financial services providers (Comparison sample)	219

Table 5.16	Potters v engage (Event) Perceived Quality t-test	222
Table 5.17	Individual Perceived Quality Dimensions t-tests (Potters v engage event samples)	224
Table 5.18	Individual Perceived Quality Dimensions t-tests (engage event-based v comparison samples)	225
Table 5.19	Reason for current stay at Potters leisure resort	227
Table 5.20	Potters future visit intentions	227
Table 5.21	Potters Brand Loyalty Dimensions	228
Table 5.22	engage Brand Loyalty Dimensions (Event-based sample)	229
Table 5.23	engage Brand Loyalty Dimensions (Comparison sample)	229
Table 5.24	Brand Loyalty t-test (Potters v engage event samples)	232
Table 5.25	Brand Loyalty t-test (engage event v comparison samples)	233
Table 5.26	Individual Brand Loyalty Dimensions t-tests (Potters v engage event samples)	234
Table 5.27	Individual Brand Loyalty Dimensions t-tests (engage event-based v comparison samples)	235
Table 5.28	Mean scores for Brand Equity Elements	237
Table 5.29	Sponsorship brand image change (Potters v engage event samples)	241
Table 5.30	Sponsorship brand image change (engage event-based v comparison samples)	242
Table 5.31	Would choose bowls sponsors over competitors	243
Table 6.1	Sponsorship Top-of-mind Awareness	249
Table 6.2	Aided Sponsor Recognition	250
Table 6.3	First Product Association * Sample Group Crosstabulation	252
Table 6.4	Brand Associations (Event-based Sample)	254
Table 6.5	Brand Associations (Comparison)	255
Table 6.6	Cumulative Brand Associations t-test (Event-based v comparison sample)	257
Table 6.7	Individual Brand Associations Dimensions t-tests (Event-based v comparison sample)	259



Table 6.8	Perceived Quality (Event-based Sample)	261
Table 6.9	Comparison with other financial services providers (Event-based sample)	261
Table 6.10	Perceived Quality (Comparison)	262
Table 6.11	Comparison with other financial services providers (Comparison)	262
Table 6.12	Perceived Quality t-test (Event-based v comparison sample)	265
Table 6.13	Individual Perceived Quality Dimensions t-tests (Event-based v comparison sample)	266
Table 6.14	Brand Loyalty (Event-based Sample)	268
Table 6.15	Brand Loyalty (Comparison)	269
Table 6.16	Cumulative Brand Loyalty t-test (Event-based v comparison sample)	271
Table 6.17	Individual Brand Loyalty Dimensions t-tests (Event-based v comparison sample)	272
Table 6.18	Customer status impact on brand equity scores t-test (Event-based sample: customers v non-customers)	275
Table 6.19	Customer status impact on brand equity scores t-test (Comparison sample: customers v non-customers)	276
Table 6.20	Impact of sponsorship on brand equity for customers (Event-based v comparison sample)	277
Table 6.21	Impact of sponsorship on brand equity for non-customers (Event-based v comparison sample)	277
Table 6.22	Sponsorship brand image change * Sponsorship exposure Crosstabulation	281
Table 6.23	Would choose athletics sponsor over competitors	282
Table 7.1	Cricket sponsors	285
Table 7.2	Sponsorship Top-of-mind Awareness	289
Table 7.3	Aided Sponsor Recognition	289
Table 7.4	First Product Association * Sample Group Crosstabulation	291
Table 7.5	Brand Associations (Event-based Sample)	293

---

Table 7.6	Brand Associations (Comparison Sample)	294
Table 7.7	Brand Associations t-test (Event-based v comparison sample)	296
Table 7.8	Individual Brand Associations Dimensions t-test (Event-based v comparison sample)	297
Table 7.9	Perceived Quality (Event-based Sample)	299
Table 7.10	Comparison with other financial services providers (Event-based Sample)	299
Table 7.11	Perceived Quality (Comparison Sample)	300
Table 7.12	Comparison with other financial services providers (Comparison Sample)	300
Table 7.13	Perceived Quality t-test (Event-based v comparison sample)	303
Table 7.14	Individual Perceived Quality Dimensions t-tests (Event-based v comparison sample)	304
Table 7.15	Brand Loyalty (Event-based Sample)	306
Table 7.16	Brand Loyalty (Comparison Sample)	306
Table 7.17	Brand Loyalty t-test (Event-based v comparison sample)	309
Table 7.18	Individual Brand Loyalty Dimensions t-tests (Event-based v comparison sample)	310
Table 7.19	Customer status impact on brand equity scores t-test (Event-based Sample: customers v non-customers)	313
Table 7.20	Customer status impact on brand equity scores t-test (Comparison Sample: customers v non-customers)	314
Table 7.21	Impact of Sponsorship Awareness on Brand Equity Elements (Comparison sample: aware v not aware)	316
Table 7.22	Sponsorship brand image change * Sample Group Crosstabulation	318
Table 7.23	Would choose cricket sponsor over competitors	319
Table 8.1	Impact of Product Trial on Brand Equity (Potters v Norwich Union)	358
Table 8.2	Impact of Product Trial on Brand Equity (Potters v Natwest)	358
Table 8.3	Summary of hypotheses tested	363

---



---

## **List of Figures**

Figure 1.1	Structure of the thesis	11
Figure 2.1	Top 5 Industries by Number of Worldwide Sponsorship Deals (2002)	19
Figure 2.2	Top 5 Industries by Number of Worldwide Sponsorship Deals (2004)	19
Figure 2.3	UK sponsorship spending (£m)	21
Figure 2.4	Worldwide sponsorship spending (\$bn)	22
Figure 2.5	TOP Olympic sponsorship (\$m)	24
Figure 3.1	Aaker's conceptualisation of a product and a brand	62
Figure 3.2	Product – Brand hierarchy	63
Figure 3.3	Aaker's conceptualisation of Brand Equity	75
Figure 3.4	Aaker's Brand Equity Measurement Tool	104
Figure 4.1	The process of deduction	146
Figure 4.2	Brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty measures	161
Figure 5.1	Potters Cumulative Brand Associations Scores	210
Figure 5.2	engage Cumulative Brand Associations Scores (Event)	210
Figure 5.3	engage Cumulative Brand Associations Scores (Comparison)	211
Figure 5.4	Potters Cumulative Perceived Quality Scores	220
Figure 5.5	engage Cumulative Perceived Quality Scores (Event)	220
Figure 5.6	engage Cumulative Perceived Quality Scores (Comparison)	221
Figure 5.7	Potters Cumulative Brand Loyalty Scores	230
Figure 5.8	engage Cumulative Brand Loyalty Scores (Event)	231
Figure 5.9	engage Cumulative Brand Loyalty Scores (Comparison)	231

---

Figure 6.1	Cumulative Brand Associations Scores (Event)	256
Figure 6.2	Cumulative Brand Associations Scores (Comparison)	256
Figure 6.3	Cumulative Perceived Quality Scores (Event)	263
Figure 6.4	Cumulative Perceived Quality Scores (Comparison)	264
Figure 6.5	Cumulative Brand Loyalty Scores (Event)	269
Figure 6.6	Cumulative Brand Loyalty Scores (Comparison)	270
Figure 7.1	Cumulative Brand Associations Scores (Event)	295
Figure 7.2	Cumulative Brand Associations Scores (Comparison)	295
Figure 7.3	Cumulative Perceived Quality Scores (Event)	301
Figure 7.4	Cumulative Perceived Quality Scores (Comparison)	302
Figure 7.5	Cumulative Brand Loyalty Scores (Event)	307
Figure 7.6	Cumulative Brand Loyalty Scores (Comparison)	308

## **Chapter 1: Introduction**

### **1.1 Introduction**

This thesis will respond to the question, ‘what contribution, if any, does sports event sponsorship make to consumer-based brand equity?’ This chapter will begin by presenting the context in which the research took place, including definitions of key terms. The relevance and importance of the study will then be discussed, before a brief overview of the sponsored events at which data was collected. The aims and objectives of this study will then be presented. The chapter will close with a description of the structure of the thesis, providing a roadmap through the subsequent chapters.

### **1.2 Research Context**

Sports sponsorship represents a growing field of interest to both practitioners and academics, with sponsorship expenditures growing exponentially over the past 20 years, both in the United Kingdom and worldwide. The sponsorship marketplace in 2007 is characterised by a greater focus on gaining a measurable return on the marketing investment, thus there has been an increased interest in exploring the dynamics of how sponsorship works. It is within this broader context that this piece of research took place.

One of the major hurdles facing the development of sponsorship understanding is the lack of a single, widely accepted definition. Sponsorship is differentially seen as, amongst other things, placing a brand name/logo on team shirts or pitch-side hoardings, providing goods in kind, or, most promisingly, as a guiding theme for the integration of a brand's marketing communications activities. A broad, comprehensive definition is provided by Meenaghan (1991a, p. 36), who claims that:

"Commercial sponsorship is an investment, in cash or in kind, in an activity, in return for access to the exploitable commercial potential associated with that activity."

The above definition captures the complex nature of sponsorship and the two-way relationship that exists between the sponsor and the sponsored property. While this definition refers simply to "commercial sponsorship", there are several types of sponsorship, such as event, team, individual, venue and broadcast sponsorship, each of which can be considered as a valid area for study. The focus of this study is event sponsorship, that is title sponsorship of a particular sporting event or competition. An overview of the events studied is presented below in section 1.3.

Event sponsorship is perhaps the most prevalent type of sponsorship and as such is one of the most widely recognised by consumers. Equally, events facilitate access to spectators exposed to the sponsorship, for primary research purposes, which is why this study specifically investigated event sponsorship. A glance at any sporting event reveals a plethora of brands involved in sponsorship, however there is a particular

concentration of telecommunications, financial services and car manufacturer brands who make extensive use of the medium of communication (Fenton, 2005).

While sponsorship represents the context for this study in terms of the marketing communications tool adopted, the theoretical framework applied is that of consumer-based brand equity. As will be discussed at length in Chapter 3, consumer-based brand equity is one branch of wider brand equity, which is viewed as the value inherent in a brand. Financial brand equity, as its name suggests, is primarily connected with placing a valuation on a brand for accounting purposes and is, as such, largely an internal concern of brand owners. In contrast, consumer-based brand equity lies in the minds of consumers. This thesis adopts a consumer-focussed approach to the study of brand equity, thus implying the adoption of the theoretical framework of consumer-based brand equity.

As with sponsorship, there is a lack of one single accepted definition of consumer-based brand equity, with many authors proposing different conceptualisations. Equally, the terminology used within the field of brand equity is not universal. The debate concerning the nature of consumer-based brand equity is examined in detail in the review of extant literature, thus this chapter will present a definition which will be expanded upon and justified in Chapter 3.

“Brand equity is a set of brand assets and liabilities linked to a brand, its name and symbol, that add to or subtract from the value provided by a product or service to a firm and/or that firm’s customer.” (Aaker, 1991, p. 15)



Within his wider model, Aaker (1991) claims that brand equity comprises brand awareness, brand associations, perceived quality, brand loyalty and other proprietary brand assets. The first four elements are considered to reside with the consumer, while other proprietary brand assets refer to resources held by the brand owner. While, as mentioned above, there is not one globally accepted definition of consumer-based brand equity, studies validating the Aaker (1991) model have converged on a 3 or 4 factor conceptualisation, thus supporting this particular definition.

In the strongly competitive global marketplace, building brand equity is increasingly important to brand owners and many tools are employed in order to achieve such objectives. The use of sponsorship to build consumer-based brand equity is thus the focus of this study.

### **1.3 Sponsored Events**

In order to achieve the research aims and objectives presented below in section 1.5, this thesis studies three sports event sponsorships representing a mix of sports and sponsors. The rationale for the selection of sponsored events is discussed in detail in Chapter 4 and specific information about the events and the sponsors is included in the relevant results chapters, therefore this section will offer only a brief overview of the events.

The first event studied is the World Indoor Bowls Championships, held in Norfolk in January 2007. This event comprised two separate sponsored events, the Potters World Indoor Bowls and the engage Ladies World Matchplay. As such, this particular event represented an example of a multi-sponsor environment; however, for the purposes of



the research, the individual events were considered separately. The World Indoor Bowls Championships is one of the premier events on the bowls calendar, attracting players from across the world. Potters Leisure Resort is a 5\* holiday village offering a range of leisure breaks, with particular emphasis on entertainment and bowls. Thus, the Potters sponsorship took the form of providing the venue for this event. As such, this sponsorship presented the opportunity to explore the use of sponsorship to offer product sampling opportunities as, by attending the event, spectators were experiencing Potters Leisure Resort and its associated facilities. The other sponsor, engage, is a financial services organisation, offering insurance, savings and investments products. The engage brand was launched in 2005, therefore this sponsorship was selected in order to examine the brand building impact of sponsorship for new brands.

The second sponsorship studied in this thesis is the Norwich Union Grand Prix athletics. Research was conducted at the Norwich Union Indoor Grand Prix in Birmingham in February 2007 and at the Norwich Union (outdoor) Grand Prix in Sheffield in July 2007. The Norwich Union Grand Prix athletics meetings are both high-profile international track and field events, attracting a world-class field of athletes. The events are also televised live on national terrestrial television. Norwich Union, the main sponsor of UK athletics, is the leading insurance provider in the United Kingdom. The Norwich Union brand is well established within the marketplace, thus this sponsorship offered the opportunity to examine the impact of sponsorship for a well-known brand. As Norwich Union is the primary sponsor of UK athletics, this sponsorship also facilitated research into the effect of sponsorship for one dominant sponsor of a sport.

Finally, the third event studied was the Natwest Pro40 one-day domestic cricket tournament. Research was conducted at two matches: Nottinghamshire .v. Northamptonshire at Trent Bridge, Nottingham in August 2007 and Lancashire .v. Nottinghamshire at Old Trafford, Manchester in September 2007. These events formed part of the wider league format of the competition. Certain matches within the tournament are televised live on satellite television, however neither match at which research was undertaken was televised. Natwest is a well-known high street bank offering a full range of financial services and has been involved in cricket sponsorship for over 20 years. The Natwest Pro40 competition is one of many cricket events, both international and domestic, all with different sponsors. Therefore the Natwest Pro40 sponsorship represents not only the opportunity to explore the impact of event sponsorship on brand equity for an established brand, but also to examine the effect of being a sponsor in a cluttered sponsorship environment.

With the exception of Potters, all of the sponsors are from the financial services sector, which facilitates comparison between the different events. The predominance of financial services providers is also representative of the modern UK sponsorship marketplace. The thesis makes use of multiple events in order to examine the hypotheses proposed in Chapter 3. Equally, the use of multiple events provides a broader empirical base for the research findings, thus aiding the reliability and validity of the study as a contribution to sponsorship knowledge.

### **1.4 Relevance of the Study**

The pursuit of brand equity objectives is at the forefront of much marketing activity, particularly in increasingly homogenous markets where differentiation on product attributes has been made difficult by widespread adoption of new technologies. Once the staple of marketing communications activity, advertising has seen a recent downturn, frequently blamed on the difficulty of getting a message across in a heavily cluttered media marketplace. This is widely seen as a primary driver of the growth in sponsorship activity (Roy and Cornwell, 2004; Gardner and Shuman, 1987). However, the growth in the practice of commercial sponsorship has not yet been matched by detailed academic understanding. Numerous studies have explored the objectives achieved through sponsorship, with a particular focus on awareness (Easton and Mackie, 1998; Quester, 1997) and image benefits (Lardinoit and Quester, 2001; Javalgi *et al*, 1994), largely concluding that sponsorship can play a role in building both awareness and associations. In extension of this, Roy and Cornwell (2004; 2003) used brand equity as a conceptual framework in assessing sponsorship. However, these studies used brand equity as an independent variable, investigating its impact on sponsorship success. Thus, this study is predicated upon the weight of evidence from previous research (see for example, Cliffe and Motion, 2005; Cornwell, Roy and Steinard, 2001) indicating that sponsorship may be able to contribute to the elements of consumer-based brand equity.

Cornwell, Roy and Steinard (2001) examined the contribution of sponsorship to brand equity from a managerial perspective, finding a greater perceived contribution to

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general elements (brand awareness, brand image and corporate image) than to distinctive elements (communicating brand personality, differentiating from competitors, developing an image of quality and building brand loyalty). Therefore, the current study builds upon these findings to explore the impact of sponsorship on consumer-based brand equity when measured from the consumer, rather than the managerial, perspective. The need to explore the contribution of sponsorship from a consumer perspective has been identified by both Roy and Cornwell (1999) and Ashill, Davies and Joe (2001). Thus, building upon findings in a managerial context, this study responds to an identified research need to further the level of understanding of how sponsorship works.

As such, by contributing to the growing body of knowledge on how sponsorship works, this study has application in both academia and commercial practice. The transfer of knowledge and understanding between academic and commercial organisations should represent one of the growing areas of sponsorship-related activity in coming years. Therefore, this study took place partly in response to an identified need to further understand the nature of sponsorship, in order to legitimise it as an academic subject and to facilitate a more theoretical approach to its study.

The sponsorship arena worldwide is dominated by sport, representing over 50% of UK (Intel, 2006) and 66% of North American sponsorship expenditure (IEG, 2007a). Therefore, it is crucial to gain a stronger understanding of the role of this communications vehicle in achieving brand-related objectives. Sponsorship is also beginning to play a wider role in the societal and political context in the United

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Kingdom in 2007 with the forthcoming London 2012 Olympic Games, which will represent one of the greatest arenas for sponsorship on a worldwide scale. Mintel (2006) predicts that the London 2012 Olympic Games will add £700 million to the UK sponsorship market between 2006 and 2012.

As sponsorship enters the mainstream arena of debate it is important for the medium to be able to offer proof of its value to both sponsors and event organisers. Consequently, by contributing to the level of understanding and providing tangible evidence of the benefits of sponsorship, this thesis will assist in placing sponsorship on a better footing in comparison with more established marketing communications tools such as advertising, which have been the focus of extensive academic and commercial research activity.

### **1.5 Research Aims and Objectives**

As stated above, the primary research question to be answered in this thesis is ‘what contribution, if any, does sports event sponsorship make to consumer-based brand equity?’ In line with the above research question, the main aim of this research is:

- to examine the impact of sports event sponsorship on consumer-based brand equity.

In order to achieve this aim, it is necessary to devise several more specific objectives, which will combine to provide empirical results to answer the research question.

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Detailed hypotheses are presented at the end of the review of the extant literature in Chapter 3, therefore these objectives provide an indicator of the specific areas of investigation to be pursued in this thesis. The objectives of this thesis are:

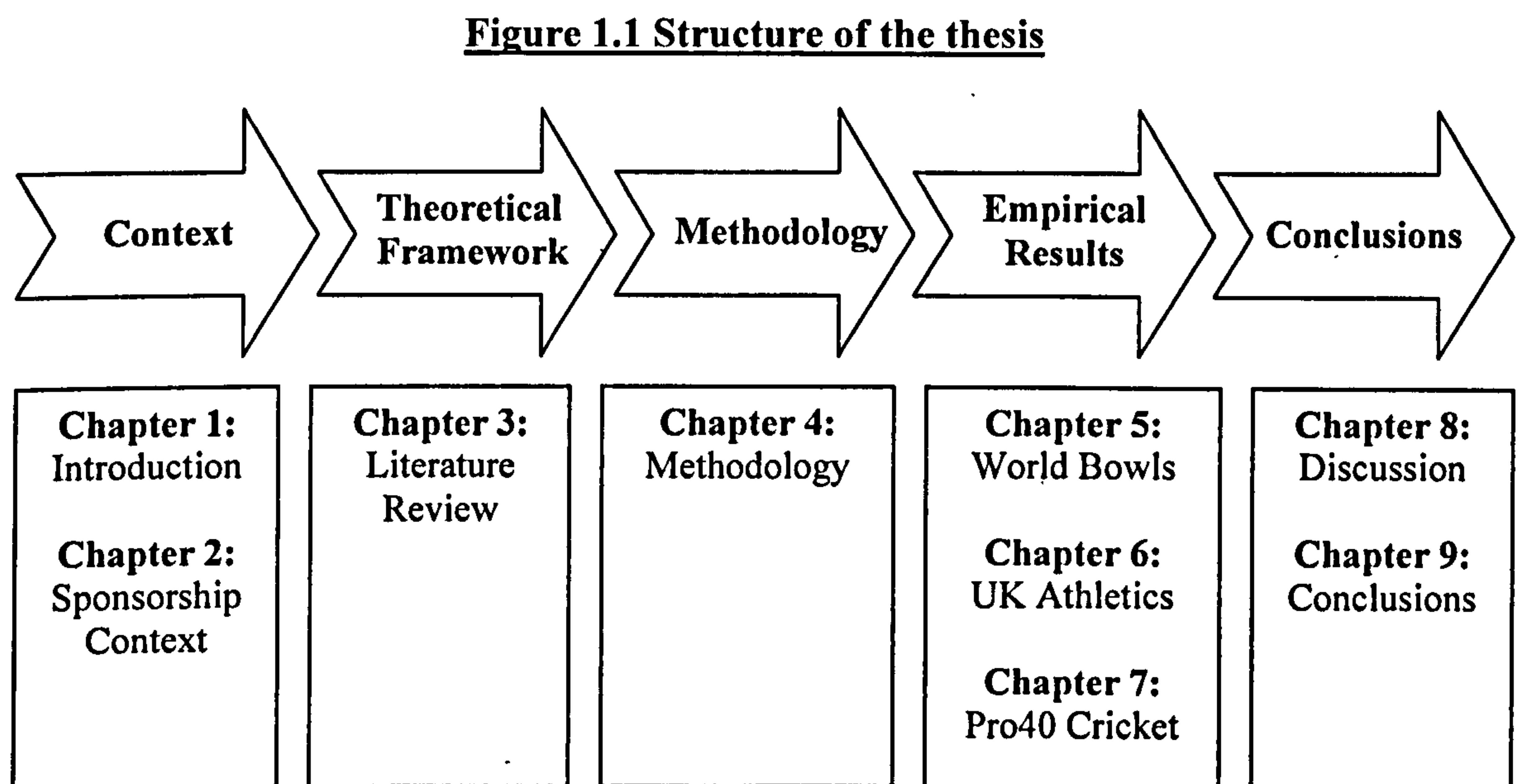
- to chart the evolution of the sponsorship environment and to explore the development of knowledge of sponsorship;
- to examine the extant literature on brand equity and select an appropriate theoretical framework for this study;
- to select an appropriate methodology in order to apply the theoretical framework of brand equity to the sponsorship context;
- to empirically test the impact of sports sponsorship on the elements of consumer-based brand equity in line with the chosen theoretical framework;
- to apply existing theory to the empirical results in order to identify conditions under which sponsorship is most effective.

The event sponsorships studied in this thesis will provide data to explore the above aims and objectives, allowing conclusions to be drawn as to the effectiveness of sports sponsorship at building consumer-based brand equity. Equally, reference will be made to existing sponsorship-related literature in order to analyse reasons behind the empirical results, for example, to identify whether an effect is generalised across the range of sponsorships or whether there are specific conditions which must be met in order for sponsorship to build consumer-based brand equity.



**1.6 Structure of the Thesis**

Figure 1.1 below summarises the structure and contents of this thesis.



The thesis commences with a comprehensive contextual discussion of the history and development of sponsorship (Chapter 2), including an in-depth examination of perhaps the most valuable sports sponsorship commodity worldwide, the Olympic Games. The chapter then proceeds to discuss the varying definitions of sponsorship postulated in the literature, before selecting and justifying the definition to be used in this thesis. The final section of the chapter explores the current understanding of sponsorship, tracing the development of knowledge from early descriptive studies to the present day research priorities. Therefore, the chapter goes beyond simple contextual detail to examine the theoretical approaches previously taken to the study of sponsorship.

Chapter 3 presents the theoretical framework for this thesis, firstly examining the concept of 'what is a brand?' before exploring the theoretical construct of brand equity. The distinction is drawn between financial and consumer-based brand equity, and a comprehensive review of the concept of consumer-based brand equity is undertaken, including the selection of a defined theoretical framework for this thesis. The chapter then explores the individual dimensions of consumer-based brand equity. A discussion of the measurement of brand equity follows, concluding with the selection of a brand equity measurement tool for this study. The final two literature-based sections of the chapter cover the role of marketing communications in building brand equity and a review of the extant literature concerning sponsorship and consumer-based brand equity. Thus, the thesis begins to merge the contextual and theoretical detail of sponsorship from Chapter 2 with the wider brand equity conceptual framework. From this, the contribution to knowledge of the thesis is proposed and research hypotheses are postulated.

Following on from the discussion of the theoretical framework, Chapter 4 presents the methodology for this thesis, commencing with an overview of the philosophical underpinnings of the study, followed by a discussion of the research design adopted. Issues of reliability and validity are addressed, along with a detailed presentation of the data collection instrument employed. The chapter continues with a discussion of the pilot test conducted and the implications of this for the main data collection phase of the research. The sampling strategies adopted are also presented in Chapter 4, along with a review of the data analysis techniques employed.

Chapters 5, 6 and 7 present the empirical results for the bowls, athletics and cricket events respectively, each beginning with an overview of the events and sponsors. Results are presented in each chapter on a variable by variable basis, with, where applicable, event-based and comparison sample groups being compared on the individual dimensions of consumer-based brand equity. Descriptive and inferential statistics are employed in order to test the hypotheses postulated in Chapter 3. Data on sponsorship awareness for the event-based samples are also presented, along with indicators of brand preference as a result of sponsorship exposure.

Chapter 8 provides a comprehensive discussion of the primary data presented in Chapters 5, 6 and 7, developing a link between the theoretical framework and the empirical results. The chapter begins with a discussion of sponsorship awareness, before moving to the dimensions of consumer-based brand equity: brand awareness, brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty, and finally to the impact of product trial on the effectiveness of sponsorship. The chapter is structured around the research objectives, thus each sporting event is discussed within the theoretical context of the hypotheses proposed. Chapter 8 concludes with a summary diagram of the hypotheses postulated, indicating whether or not they were supported in the case of each individual sponsored event.

The final chapter of the thesis (Chapter 9) provides a summary of the findings of this study in relation to the research aims and objectives outlined above in section 1.5.

Chapter 9 also addresses the limitations of the study and outlines the contribution to knowledge made by this thesis. The chapter concludes with a discussion of areas for

future research arising as a result of this study. This completes the circle from the adoption of a theoretical framework through a discussion of the results and implications to the proposal of additional projects which will build upon this thesis and contribute to the wider body of sponsorship knowledge.

## **Chapter 2: Sponsorship Context**

### **2.1 Introduction**

Sponsorship, and particularly sports sponsorship, is a form of communication which has transcended the marketing literature and entered the domain of public debate concerning the commercialisation of sport. It is rare that a week passes without a new sponsorship deal being announced and as such, sponsorship has gained a certain prominence in modern society. This chapter will begin by charting the development of sponsorship as a tool of marketing communications, in terms of crude expenditure, and the reasons behind the spectacular growth which has occurred.

Following on from the growth of sponsorship, the chapter will then address the thorny issue of defining sponsorship. Despite its status as a major component of the marketing communications mix, there is a general lack of consensus on exactly what constitutes sponsorship. Therefore, a critique of proposed definitions will follow, with the aim of adopting a working definition for the current study. The chapter will conclude by charting the development of academic understanding of sponsorship, critically evaluating the approaches taken and identifying current research priorities.

While this chapter should not be seen in isolation, it represents a general introduction to the field of sponsorship before the theoretical discussion of conceptual frameworks of brand equity in Chapter 3. However, given the multi-dimensional nature of research in



sponsorship and marketing in general, there are elements of cross-over between this and subsequent chapters. Every attempt has been made to adopt a logical structure based upon the development of knowledge into sponsorship and brand equity. Consequently, some arguments briefly touched upon in this chapter are more thoroughly tackled in Chapter 3 and this is acknowledged in the text as appropriate. The aim of this chapter, therefore, is to provide a thorough overview of sponsorship as a marketing tool and to detail the development of understanding up to the present day.

### **2.2 History of Sponsorship**

Sponsorship has its roots in Ancient Rome where patriarchs used to sponsor chariot races and gladiatorial contests (Head, 1981; Ferkins and Garland, 2006). However, in its modern sense, the first recorded sponsorship deal was the sponsorship of an English cricket tour of Australia by catering firm Spiers & Pond in 1861/62 (Central Council of Physical Recreation, 1983). Other early sponsorship deals included Kodak's involvement with the Olympic Games in 1896, an association which still continues today (Howard and Crompton, 2004), and the first football sponsorship in 1898 when Bovril was endorsed by Nottingham Forest (Marshall and Cook, 1992).

Despite these very early examples, commercial sponsorship of the nature of which predominates today can be traced back to the 1960s (Meenaghan, 1991b). Since this time, sponsorship has grown immensely (Meenaghan, 1998), both in terms of volume of sponsorship deals and expenditure, as will be outlined below. In the early days of

commercial sponsorship, sports events were reportedly reluctant to allow sponsor's names to be incorporated into the event title (Sports Council, 1971), however naming rights now exist not only for events but also for leagues (e.g. Barclays Premiership), sporting competitions (e.g. the FA Cup sponsored by E.on) and even for stadia (e.g. Bolton's Reebok Stadium). The 1984 summer Olympic Games in Los Angeles are cited as a landmark event in the history of commercial sponsorship as the first major sporting event to fully exploit its commercial potential and thrust sponsorship into the public eye (Wilber, 1988). A fuller discussion of Olympic sponsorship is presented below in section 2.2.2.

Given the examples above, it is unsurprising to note that sport dominates the sponsorship arena. However, as with many elements of marketing expenditure, estimates vary as to the proportion of sponsorship spend accounted for by sport. Ukman (2004) claims that, in 2003, sport accounted for 69% of North American sponsorship expenditure and IEG (2007a) predicted that North American sports sponsorship would account for 66% of total spend. Figures from Mintel (2006) indicate that sport accounted for 51% of total UK sponsorship expenditure, down slightly from 54% in 2001. While either regional circumstances or measurement differences may account for the variation in estimates of sports sponsorship expenditure, it is clear from these figures that sport dominates the sponsorship arena worldwide, thus supporting the rationale of this study to further understand how sponsorship works in a sport setting.

In the digital age, sport offers global media exposure (Meenaghan, 1998) with the additional benefit of being able to target a broad range of demographically and

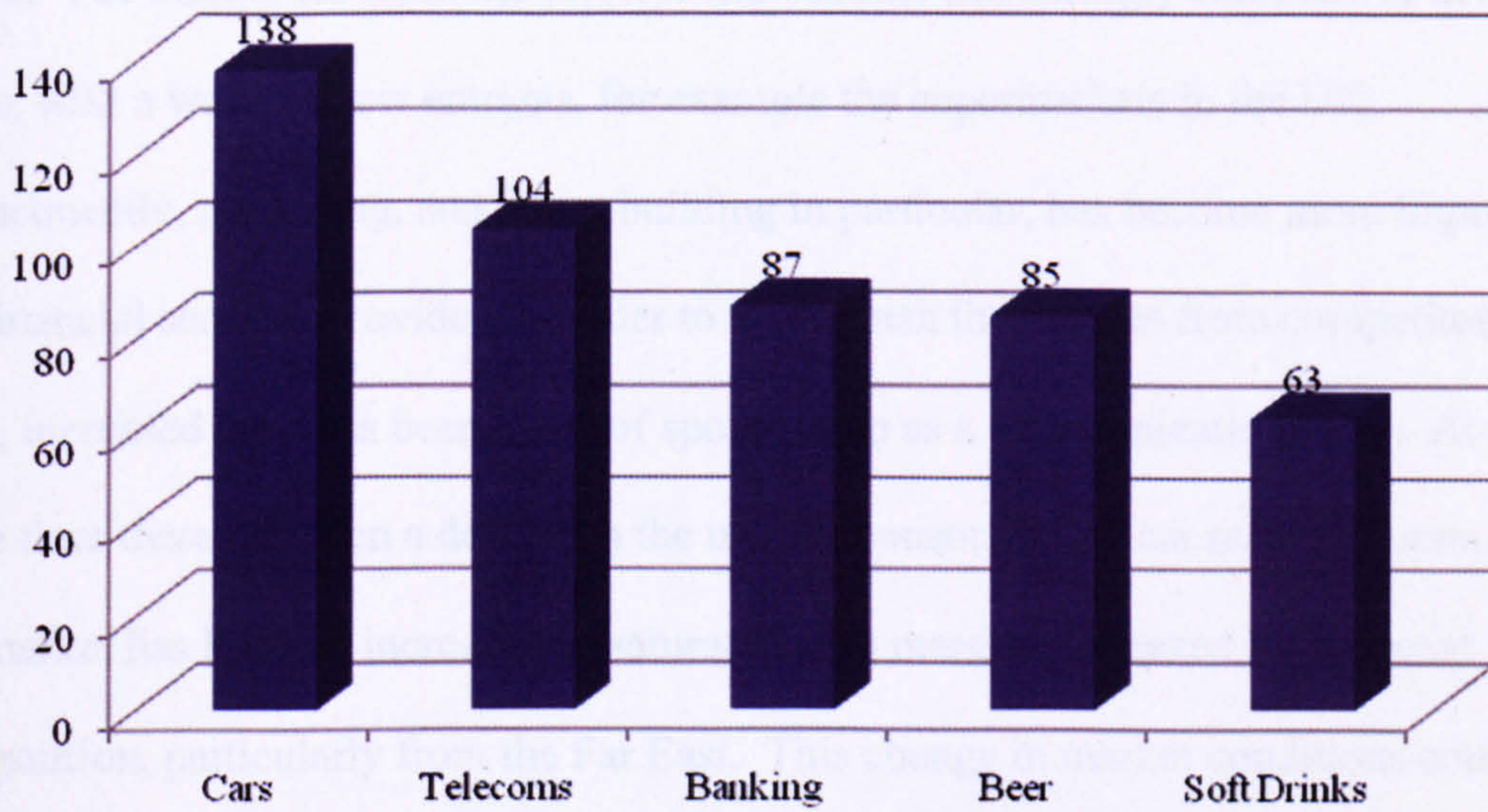
psychographically defined market segments (Thwaites, 1993). Within the broad umbrella of sports sponsorship, distinctions exist not only between elite and grassroots levels but also in terms of individual sports. In the UK, early sponsorship was dominated by motor sport, which took almost 40% of UK sponsorship expenditure (Head, 1981), while a survey conducted a decade later indicated that the most sponsored sports were football, motor sports and golf (Marshall and Cook, 1992).

For reasons that will be explained below in section 2.2.3, early sponsorship of sport was dominated by tobacco and alcohol producers, who were shortly joined by motor manufacturers and then financial services providers (Meenaghan, 1991b). More recently, companies from the telecommunications and soft drinks industries have entered the sponsorship arena (Ukman, 2004; Currie, 2006). Such trends are still largely in evidence today, as illustrated below in Figures 2.1 and 2.2, showing that sports sponsorship continues to be dominated by motor manufacturers and financial services organisations along with telecommunications providers.

Historically within the UK, the financial services industry has been a prominent sports sponsor (Thwaites, 1993), with a particularly strong record of support for cricket by insurance providers such as Cornhill, AXA and Britannic Assurance (Shaw and Amis, 2001). In line with this, Mintel (2006) reported the finance (insurance) industry as the largest sponsors of sport in the UK in 2005. As will become evident by the empirical data presented in subsequent chapters, this trend continues to the present day.

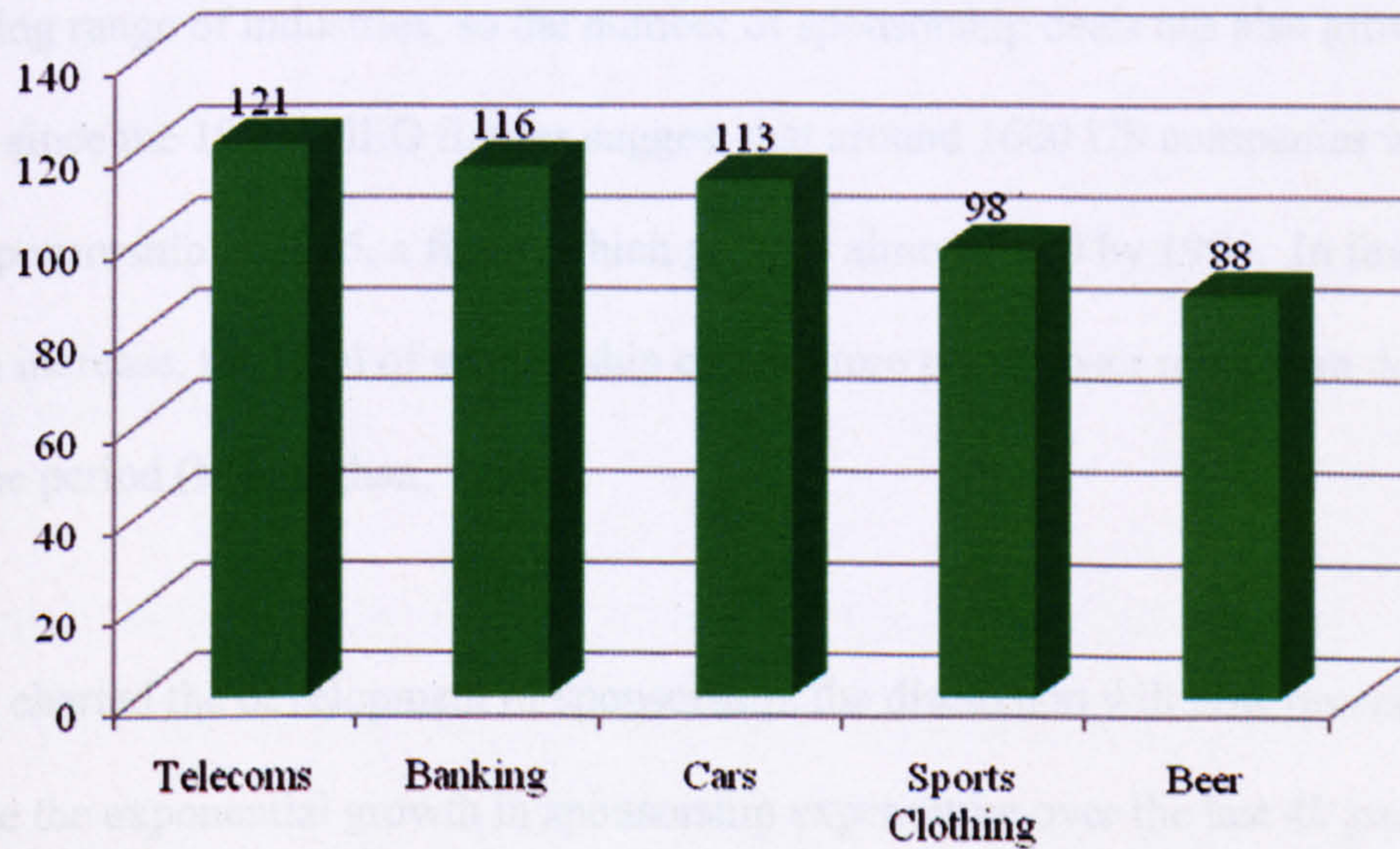


**Figure 2.1: Top 5 Industries by number of Worldwide Sponsorship Deals (2002)**



Source: Fenton (2005)

**Figure 2.2: Top 5 Industries by number of Worldwide Sponsorship Deals (2004)**



Source: Fenton (2005)



Figures 2.1 and 2.2 indicate that there has been an increase in the number of sponsorship deals carried out by financial services providers, notably in the banking sector. The market for financial services has become increasingly competitive in recent years, with a wave of new entrants, for example the supermarkets in the UK.

Consequently, marketing, and brand building in particular, has become more important for financial services providers in order to distinguish themselves from competitors. As such, increased use has been made of sponsorship as a communications tool. At the same time there has been a decline in the use of sponsorship by car manufacturers. The car market has become increasingly saturated with margins squeezed by low-cost competition, particularly from the Far East. This change in market conditions could account for the reduction in the number of sponsorship deals carried out by car manufacturers.

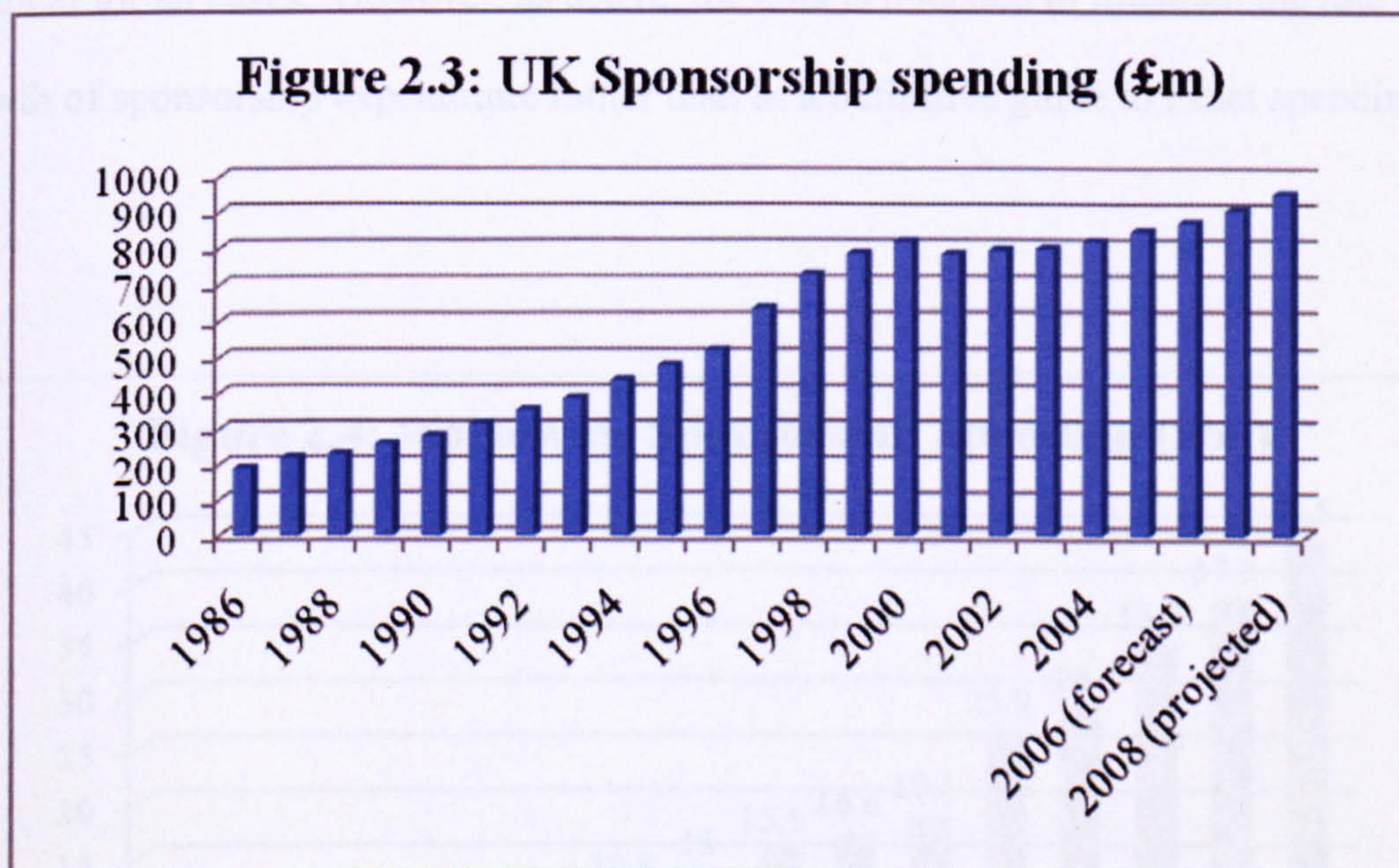
As sponsorship becomes a valid marketing communications tool for companies from an increasing range of industries, so the number of sponsorship deals has also grown rapidly since the 1980s. IEG figures suggest that around 1600 US companies were using sponsorship in 1985, a figure which grew to almost 5000 by 1996. In line with such an increase, the level of sponsorship expenditure per sponsor more than doubled in the same period (Meenaghan, 1998).

Having charted the development of sponsorship, the discussion will now proceed to examine the exponential growth in sponsorship expenditure over the last 40 years.



### 2.2.1 Sponsorship expenditure

Expenditure on sponsorship, both in the UK and worldwide has experienced phenomenal growth since the early 1970s and shows no signs of abating, even in an increasingly saturated marketplace. Figure 2.3 highlights the growth in UK sponsorship expenditure from only £190 million in 1986 to a projected £952 million in 2008 (Mintel, 2006).



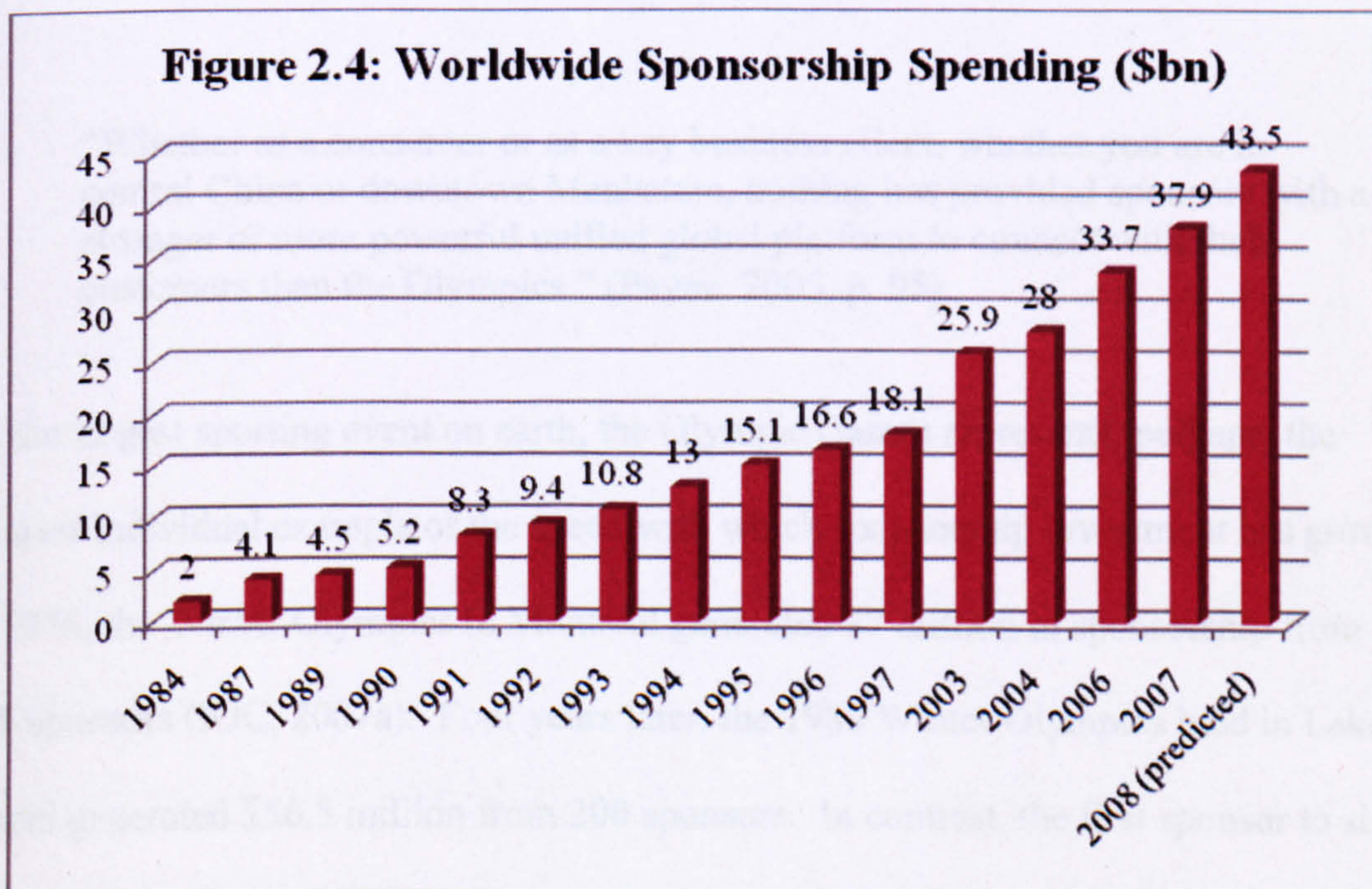
Source: Mintel (2006)

The measurement of sponsorship expenditure is fraught with pitfalls and estimates vary depending on both the scope of the investigation and the breadth of definition of sponsorship used. Similarly, some sponsors may be reluctant to divulge sensitive



information regarding sponsorship budgets (Meenaghan, 1983). The data presented above represents the measurement approach taken by one organisation, Mintel, and therefore is intended as a guide to the rate of growth rather than a definitive source of exact expenditure figures.

In the same vein as UK spending, the worldwide sponsorship marketplace (Figure 2.4 below) has demonstrated exponential growth from \$2 billion in 1984 (Meenaghan, 1998) to \$37.9 billion in 2007 (IEG, 2008). Inevitably, as a consequence of collating data from diverse sources, the representation of sponsorship expenditure will not be identical for all cases. However, as above, the data is intended to illustrate the rate of growth of sponsorship expenditure rather than as a definitive guide to exact spending.



Source: Meenaghan (1998, 1999); IEG (2003); SportBusiness (2007a); IEG (2008)



The global sponsorship marketplace is dominated by North America, where sponsorship was the fastest growing form of marketing communications in 1988 (Ukman, 2004) and which accounted for 40% (\$13.37 billion) of worldwide sponsorship by 2006 (IEG, 2007b). In fact, 70% of global sponsorship expenditure in 1997 was accounted for by just six countries (Germany, Italy, UK, US, Japan and Australia), indicating that, whilst being a global phenomenon, sponsorship is concentrated in mature, developed economies (Meenaghan, 1998). Sponsorship spending grew in every market in 2006-07 and IEG (2008) predicts a rise of 10.4% in Europe and a 25% rise in Asia in 2007-08. Given the scale of sponsorship within such markets, it appears logical to predict that any future large increases in sponsorship expenditure are likely to come from emerging economies.

### ***2.2.2 Olympic sponsorship***

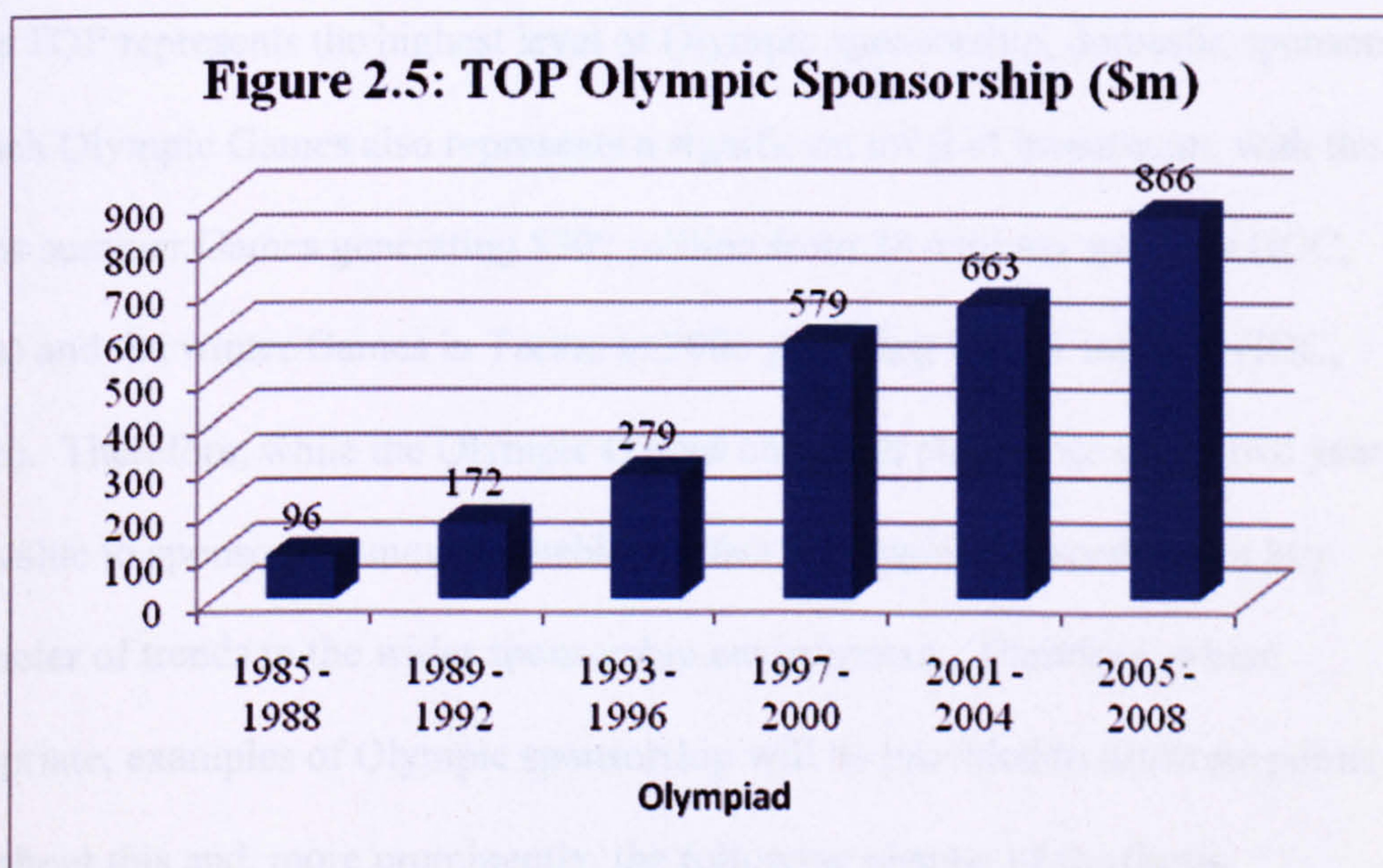
“Whether as a consumer or as a key business client, whether you are in central China or downtown Manhattan, nothing has provided sponsors with a stronger or more powerful unified global platform to connect with their customers than the Olympics.” (Payne, 2005, p. 95)

As the largest sporting event on earth, the Olympic Games represents, perhaps, the clearest individual example of the speed with which sponsorship investment has grown. In 1976, the Winter Olympics in Montreal generated \$7 million in sponsorship from 628 sponsors (IOC, 2007a). Four years later, the 1980 Winter Olympics held in Lake Placid generated \$56.5 million from 200 sponsors. In contrast, the first sponsor to sign up for Vancouver 2010 paid \$150 million, almost three times the amount generated by the 200 sponsors 30 years previously (Payne, 2005).

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The introduction of the TOP (The Olympic Partner) programme following the 1984 Los Angeles Games, cut the number of Olympic sponsors but gave category exclusivity and exclusive worldwide Olympic marketing rights (IOC, 2007b). Since its inception, TOP has generated consistently increasing sponsorship funds (Figure 2.5 below), with the 2001-2004 Salt Lake City/Athens Olympiad delivering \$663 million in revenue (IOC, 2006a). Sponsorship now accounts for 40% of Olympic marketing revenue (IOC, 2007c).



Source: IOC (2006a)

The TOP programme represents the highest level of Olympic sponsorship and there are currently 11 global partners (Coca-Cola, Atos Origin, GE, Johnson & Johnson, Kodak, Lenovo, Manulife, McDonalds, Omega, Panasonic, Samsung and VISA), many of which have long established commercial connections with the Olympic Games (IOC, 2007b). By reducing the number of sponsorships, the International Olympic Committee



believes that the value of each individual sponsorship is increased (IOC, 2007a). Such is the value of Olympic sponsorship, the TOP programme has a renewal rate in excess of 90% (Payne, 2005). VISA is committed to TOP until 2012 (VISA, 2007), while Panasonic (IOC, 2007d) and Samsung (SportBusiness, 2007b) have signed contracts until 2016 and Coca-Cola has extended its association with the Olympic Games up to 2020 (Coca-Cola, 2007). By 2005, five out of an expected ten TOP partners had already signed up for the 2009 – 2012 Olympiad (SportBusiness, 2005).

While TOP represents the highest level of Olympic sponsorship, domestic sponsorship for each Olympic Games also represents a significant level of investment, with the 2004 Athens summer Games generating \$302 million from 38 national sponsors (IOC, 2006a) and the winter Games in Torino in 2006 garnering \$397.1 million<sup>1</sup> (IOC, 2006b). Therefore, while the Olympic Games only take place once every two years, their value to sponsors is unquestionable. In fact, Olympic sponsorship is a key barometer of trends in the wider sponsorship environment. Therefore, where appropriate, examples of Olympic sponsorship will be provided to illustrate points made throughout this and, more prominently, the following chapter of the thesis.

In a UK context, football currently dominates the headlines in terms of sponsorship deals with AIG paying a reported £14 million per year as shirt sponsor of Manchester United (Business in Sports, 2006). However, with the Games of the XXX Olympiad to be held in London in 2012, sponsorship funds from elsewhere could be diverted to the Olympic Games over the coming years (Sports Management, 2007). As such,

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<sup>1</sup> €269.8 million (calculated at €1 = \$1.472, 05/12/2007)

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sponsorship will be to the fore of the UK marketing communications agenda in the next decade, further emphasising the importance of studies such as the one presented in this thesis that aim to improve understanding of the medium.

The marketing communications field has long been dominated by advertising, however as sponsorship has developed, so investment as a proportion of total communications spend has increased. Sleight (1989) reported UK sponsorship spending to be 5% of advertising expenditure and by 2000, sponsorship reportedly accounted for 7% of total worldwide advertising spending (Meenaghan, 2001a). The latter figure refers only to sponsorship rights fees, however an important feature of sponsorship, to be discussed fully in section 2.4, is the need to leverage the association between the sponsor and the sponsored property. Estimates of levels of expenditure on exploiting a sponsorship vary, however there is general agreement that it is in the region of two to three times that spent on rights fees (Otker, 1988; Verity, 2002), which further inflates the total value of the sponsorship market.

Having considered the increase in sponsorship expenditure, the discussion will now proceed to examine the reasons behind this growth before moving on to speculate on the future of modern sports sponsorship.

### ***2.2.3 Drivers of growth in sponsorship***

There is widespread agreement that the first major driver of growth in sponsorship investment was the banning of TV advertising for tobacco both in the USA and the UK

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(Meenaghan, 1999; Howard and Crompton, 2004). This forced the cigarette manufacturers to find alternative means of promoting their products and as such they turned to sponsorship, particularly of motor sport.

Recently, the most cited reason for greater focus on sponsorship has been the increasing amounts of clutter in the advertising market (Gardner and Shuman, 1987; Roy and Cornwell, 2004). As the volume of advertising escalates, so it is increasingly difficult for individual advertisements to make an impact. Equally, the media is becoming increasingly fragmented (Joachimsthaler and Aaker, 1997; Aaker and Joachimsthaler, 2002), with a growing number of specialist publications and television channels. Thus it is harder to reach a large audience through traditional mass-media advertising, so marketers are turning to alternatives, such as sponsorship as a means of promoting their products and services.

In an era where organisations are embracing the concept of relationship marketing, sponsorship offers the ability to reach consumers in an environment which is compatible with their lifestyle, rather than intruding into their lives as advertising does (e.g. interrupting TV programmes), and thus enables two-way communication (Ukman, 2004). Other associated social factors stimulating growth in sponsorship are increased amounts of leisure time (Verity, 2002) and a greater acceptance of sponsorship as a legitimate communications tool by consumers (Howard and Crompton, 2004). Finally, there is now much greater media coverage of sporting events (Meenaghan, 1991a). For example, it is estimated that the Olympic Games have a global television audience of

four billion people (Payne, 2005) and the Olympic Broadcasting Organisation broadcast over 4000 hours of live coverage from the Athens 2004 summer Games (IOC, 2007e).

#### ***2.2.4 The future of sponsorship***

Following the spectacular growth of sponsorship, it is apposite to consider whether such escalation in both volume and expenditure can be sustained. There is evidence that the sponsorship market is starting to polarise with the bulk of investment going to top-level, high-profile events (Clarke, 2003), to the detriment of grassroots sponsorship finance. The resultant shortage of prestige events is driving up sponsorship rights fees (Meenaghan, 1998), further fuelling the growth in expenditure. This is evidenced by figures from IEG, which indicated that 7 companies in the US (including Anheuser-Busch, Nike and Coca-Cola) were spending over \$100 million each on sponsorship in 2003 (Stotlar, 2004).

As indicated above, while North America continues to dominate the sponsorship market, growth is predicted in all major markets, including Asia Pacific and Central/South America (SportBusiness, 2007a), with Europe also showing an increase and edging ever closer to North America in terms of percentage of worldwide sponsorship investment (Clarke, 2003). Nevertheless, as occurred with advertising, the sponsorship marketplace itself is now becoming cluttered, making it harder for sponsors to stand out, meaning they are having to spend ever more on exploiting sponsorships to ensure their effectiveness (Meenaghan, 1998).

The scale of investment, coupled with increased requirements for corporate accountability have placed sponsorship under greater scrutiny than ever before. Sponsors are therefore under pressure to justify expenditure and ensure sponsorship is contributing to overall marketing objectives (Tripodi, 2001). Consequently, it has become even more imperative that a greater understanding of sponsorship and how it works is achieved (Meenaghan, 1999). The aim of this thesis is to contribute to such understanding by examining the impact of sponsorship on consumer-based brand equity. This chapter will now continue with an exploration of the literature concerned with finding a comprehensive definition for sponsorship, before considering the development of existing knowledge of sponsorship.

### **2.3 Defining Sponsorship**

Since its emergence as a major marketing communications tool in the 1970s, sponsorship has become an accepted term both within the language of business and in wider society. However, despite increasing academic interest in the subject, there is still no universally accepted definition of sponsorship (Walliser, 2003) and many prominent writers believe that this lack of clarity is hindering the movement of sponsorship research from descriptive to more explanatory approaches (Cornwell and Maignan, 1998). The development of a definition of sponsorship is hampered by a confusing array of terminology abound, such as endorsement, sponsorship and event marketing, with the use of the latter two often being interchangeable (Cornwell, 1995; Rossiter and Percy, 1998). As such, with the term 'sponsorship', there is a lack of clear evidence that its meaning is the same between publications.

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A further element confusing the landscape in terms of meaning is the array of different types of sponsorship just within sport. Whilst event sponsorship is perhaps the most widespread, other forms include athlete, broadcast, team, venue and grassroots sponsorship (Clarke, 2003). Many studies have considered the relative merits of the different types of sponsorship (see for example Marshall and Cook, 1992; Thwaites, Aguilar-Manjarrez and Kidd, 1998), although it is not the intention to review these studies within the context of this thesis. Finally, the sponsorship landscape is complicated by the multiple audiences that sponsorship is perceived to be able to target, including current and potential consumers, both on-site and via television (Nicholls and Roslow, 1994; Cornwell, 2000), suppliers, employees, local communities (Parker, 1991), financial institutions, media, government and pressure groups (Thwaites, 1993). Therefore, given the diverse spread of foci and audiences for sponsorship it is unsurprising that it has proven impossible to find agreement on one definition.

### ***2.3.1 Sponsorship or philanthropy?***

One of the earliest major studies into sponsorship, the “Howell Report” in 1983, defined sponsorship as “support of a sport, sports event, sports organisation or competitor by an outside body or person for the mutual benefit of both parties” (Central Council of Physical Recreation, 1983, p. 7). Although dated, this definition picks up on an important facet of sponsorship, that of mutual benefit. It is this very concept which distinguishes sponsorship from philanthropy, charity and patronage (McCarville and Copeland, 1994), which do not imply an expected return for the donor. Early sponsorship activities were often confused with patronage (Howard and Crompton,



2004) and it could be argued that they were not entered into on the expectation of receiving a tangible return. Even today the line between sponsorship and patronage is blurred, with Shanklin and Kuzma (1992) claiming that they are in fact two ends of a spectrum with a large grey area in between.

Sponsorship may involve the provision of funds, services or resources (Busby, 1997) to the recipient, however the return obtained by the sponsor is not always specified, with many definitions proposing a vague notion of promotional benefits (Abratt, Clayton and Pitt, 1987). Lagae (2003) elaborates slightly when he suggests that sponsors receive an association with the sponsored property and its image and Wragg (1994) suggests that sponsors gain a tangible benefit. It is therefore appropriate to further specify the terms of sponsorship as deriving a commercial benefit for sponsors (Meenaghan, 1983).

The notion of commercial benefit derived from an association with a sponsored property is picked up by Tripodi (2001, p. 96-97), who defined sponsorship as:

“The provision of assistance by a commercial organisation (sponsor), in cash or kind, to a sports property (sponsee), in exchange for the rights to be associated with that sports property for the purpose of gaining commercial and economic advantage.”

Therefore, although everyday parlance may still conflate sponsorship and philanthropy and while all so-called sponsorship decisions may not necessarily be commercially motivated, academic definitions are agreed that sponsorship is a two-way, mutually beneficial relationship, with the sponsor seeking commercial return.

### ***2.3.2 Defining commercial sponsorship***

Now that it has been established that a commercial return for sponsors is a vital component of sponsorship, further clarity can be added to the definition available. An additional factor used to distinguish sponsorship from other forms of communication, in this case advertising, is that it involves support for an activity outside of the sphere of the sponsor's business (Kohl and Otker, 1985; Otker, 1988; Witcher *et al*, 1991). This distinction allows a line to be drawn between sponsorship and supplying services in the normal line of business; for example, an event management company who organises a tennis tournament is not considered a sponsor because such provision is the main purpose of the company. However, a tennis ball manufacturer who sponsors the tournament by providing the balls is considered a sponsor because making tennis balls, not organising tennis tournaments, is the primary activity of the company.

Extending the notion of a commercial return, many authors have incorporated the concept of achieving objectives into definitions of sponsorship. The focus on objectives is effectively captured in the following definition by Gardner and Shuman (1988, p. 44):

“Sponsorships may be defined as investments in causes or events to support overall corporate objectives (for example, by enhancing company image) or marketing objectives (such as increasing brand awareness).”

There has been much academic interest in the subject of sponsorship objectives and a fuller discussion will be pursued in section 2.4.3.

From the basic view of sponsorship as a two-way exchange, the definition has now been enhanced to take account of the external nature of the activity and the focus on commercial objectives. Otker (1988, original emphasis) extends the conceptualisation of sponsorship further by suggesting that it is not only *buying* an association with a sponsored property to achieve objectives but also *exploiting* that association through leverage activities. A final conception, proposed by Amis, Slack and Berrett (1999) refers to sponsorship as a resource which an organisation can use to create a competitive advantage. This definition views sponsorship purely from the sponsor's perspective and as such is narrower in focus than many of those previously cited. Nonetheless it offers further insight into how sponsorship is viewed in academia.

Many of the above definitions represent what is termed the transactional approach to sponsorship. This viewpoint has historically dominated sponsorship research, with a major focus on applying theories from advertising and consumer behaviour to the field of sponsorship, with the aim of contributing to knowledge on marketing mix management with sponsorship (Olkkonen, Tukkanen and Alajoutsijärvi, 2000). Recent studies of sponsorship have approached the domain within the relationship marketing paradigm, placing an emphasis on collaboration and the development of long-term, strategic relationships between sponsors and sponsored properties (Chadwick, 2002; Cousens, Babiak and Bradish, 2006). The relationship context is extended further by Olkkonen (2001), who presents a network view of sponsorship. This approach "goes beyond dyadic relationships to networks of relationships" (Olkkonen, 2001, p. 312). As such, the focus is on the many parties involved within sponsorship, such as sponsors,

sponsored properties, event management organisations, media production companies and hospitality agencies, and on how such complex markets operate.

This study adopts a transactional approach to sponsorship, with the focus on furthering the level of understanding of how sponsorship can contribute to brand-building objectives as a component of the sponsor's marketing mix. Even though much focus has recently turned to understanding sponsorship through the relationship paradigm, there still remains much to understand about how sponsorship works as a consumer-facing marketing communications tool. Little sponsorship research has, so far, adopted a consumer-focus, thus there remains a need to empirically test the range of objectives achievable through sponsorship. Therefore, while acknowledging the existence of other paradigms within the domain of sponsorship, the approach taken is justified on the basis of responding to an identified research need, as discussed in Chapter 1.

It is clear from the sheer number of conceptualisations considered that there is no one definition of sponsorship that incorporates all of the ideas presented above. Within such a context, it is necessary to identify a working definition for the purpose of this thesis. Whilst not acknowledging that sponsorship refers to an activity outside of the sponsor's domain, the following definition by Meenaghan (1991a, p. 36) is to be adopted for the reasons explained below:

"Commercial sponsorship is an investment, in cash or in kind, in an activity, in return for access to the exploitable commercial potential associated with that activity."



This definition captures the essential commercial nature of sponsorship and also emphasises that the sponsor is actually buying the potential to exploit the association with the sponsored property. In line with the views of Otker (1988), Meenaghan (1991b) acknowledges that simply buying the sponsorship rights is not the full story and it is only by exploiting (leveraging) these rights that sponsorship can achieve the commercial objectives intended. The concept of leverage is of central importance to the success of sponsorship, therefore this subject will be comprehensively addressed below in section 2.4.

It is clear from the above definitions that sponsorship is not just attaching a name to a sporting property, but is in fact only one element of an organisation's wider marketing communications mix. That mix, for the most part, is likely to be dominated by advertising as the most prominent communications medium. However, in the media-driven environment of modern sport, sponsorship is often perceived as just another form of advertising (McDonald, 1991). Therefore, the discussion will briefly examine the difference between sponsorship and advertising to conclude this section on defining sponsorship.

### ***2.3.3 Distinguishing sponsorship from advertising***

Advertising is "paid-for communication intended to inform and influence a public" (Sleight, 1989, p. 30). The key differentiating factor from sponsorship is that the marketer has control over the content of an advertisement, while a sponsor does not have as much control over the message (Fenton, 2005) as a result of the indirect nature

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of the communication via association with a sponsored property. Sponsorship exposure is often restricted to a logo on a team shirt or integration of the brand name into the event title, whereas advertising offers a sustained period of time entirely devoted to talking about the brand. As such, it has been suggested that sponsorship is less suitable than advertising for communicating the characteristics of a product or brand (Cristofani, 1985).

The body of research concerning how sponsorship works will be examined in detail in Chapter 3, therefore it is not the intention here to elaborate further on the relative merits of advertising and sponsorship. However, there is evidence to suggest that consumer perceptions of advertising and sponsorship differ, with sponsorship being seen as less overtly commercial (Meenaghan, 1991b), perhaps due to the connotations of goodwill associated with sponsors providing funds which enable sporting events such as the Olympic Games to take place (Stipp and Schiavone, 1996).

Despite the view expressed of sponsorship as merely placing a logo on a team shirt, as implied above by Otker (1988) and Meenaghan (1991b), sponsorship success is driven by the leverage activities (which may include advertising) used to exploit the association with the sponsored property. Therefore, before charting the development of knowledge of sponsorship, the next section of this chapter will offer a discussion of the role and importance of sponsorship leverage activities.

## **2.4 Leveraging Sponsorship**

The concept of sponsorship leverage is summarised succinctly by Sandler and Shani (1989, p. 13) when they say that “buying the rights to be an “official sponsor” may, in reality, only be buying a license to spend more money!” As will be explored elsewhere in the thesis, the aims of sponsorship and how sponsorship works are couched in vague ideas of creating a link between the sponsoring brand and the sponsored property.

Thus, the concept of leverage, or sponsorship-linked marketing, refers to orchestrating and implementing marketing activities to build and communicate the link between the sponsor and the property (Cornwell, 1995). In summary, leverage can be conceived of as those activities used to support and exploit the sponsorship to ensure that it meets the desired objectives. The tools used to leverage sponsorship may include advertising, PR, sales promotion or direct marketing activities (Lagae, 2003). For example, McDonalds ran Olympic themed packaging and had special menu items in all of its restaurants to promote its sponsorship of the 2004 Athens Olympic Games (IOC, 2005), whilst Kodak set up the Kodak Picture Planet in Salt Lake City to allow Olympic spectators to send digital images to friends and family (IOC, 2002). As such, rather than being viewed as a stand-alone marketing communications tool, sponsorship is seen as playing a role within the larger marketing communications mix.

The traditional view of sponsorship as simply having some perimeter boards at a sporting event is not sufficient for the achievement of marketing objectives (Otker, 1988). In fact, the Olympic Games, which is considered to be one of the world’s premier sponsorship opportunities (section 2.2.2 above) operates a clean venue policy,

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meaning that no commercial messages are allowed within the stadia (perimeter boards, athlete bibs etc) (Payne, 2005). Therefore, all visible elements of Olympic sponsorship can be considered as leverage activities. The most successful sponsorships are those which use a range of marketing communications tools to communicate their sponsorship beyond the mere sporting venue (Kohl and Otker, 1985; Koschler and Merz, 1995; Crimmins and Horn, 1996). An example of this is the VISA championships, an online virtual Olympic winter sports competition, run in conjunction with the Torino 2006 winter Olympic Games sponsorship (IOC, 2006b). This brought the Olympic sponsorship outside of the immediate event environment, thus communicating the association to a global audience.

Within the broad communications mix, sponsorship is often referred to as the “hook” (Sleight, 1989; Howard and Crompton, 2004) or unifying theme used to communicate to a target market. Such a view was adopted by Coca-Cola, which created an integrated marketing campaign, including advertising, free samples and experiential marketing (such as the Official Olympic Pin Trading Centre and winter sports simulators) around the theme of its 2006 Torino Olympic sponsorship (IOC, 2006b; Coca-Cola, 2007). Similarly, Johnson & Johnson used the Olympic theme across a range of product advertisements, including those for Acuvue contact lenses, adopting the slogan “Contact Lenses for Eyes that Thirst for Sport” (IOC, 2006b). In fact, Rines (2002) believes that those sponsors who view the sponsorship as the start rather than the end of their investment will be the ones to reap the rewards in terms of achieving their objectives.



The above examples illustrate that sponsorship leverage activities can take place around the venue (e.g. the Coca-Cola Pin Trading Centre) or through broader communications media such as advertising. Therefore, leverage is impacting not only on event-based spectators but also wider on target market segments. Exploiting the association among a wider target market is a strategy increasingly adopted by telecommunications companies, such as Vodafone, which offers video highlights and goal alerts to complement its sponsorship of the UEFA Champions League (Vodafone, 2007). The scope of such leverage activities is obviously constrained by the product/service offering of the sponsor but, whatever the area of business, exploitation of the association is key to creating and reinforcing a successful sponsorship.

Having comprehensively explored the nature of sports sponsorship, this chapter will close by examining the development of academic and commercial knowledge of sponsorship from the earliest descriptive studies to the current research priorities.

## **2.5 Development of Sponsorship Knowledge**

As mentioned above, one of the earliest comprehensive studies into sponsorship was the “Howell Report” which described the development and public perceptions of sponsorship (Central Council for Physical Recreation, 1983). This report was written from the perspective of sport, with very little focus on what sponsors achieve from the sponsorship partnership. The early contributions to understanding from the sponsor’s perspective came from practitioners rather than academics and so focused largely on describing the state of play rather than adopting a reflective approach (Meenaghan,

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1999). In reviewing over 150 articles on sponsorship, Walliser (2003) identified four strands of research: nature of sponsorship, managerial aspects (e.g. objectives and organisation), measurement of sponsorship effects and strategies/counter-strategies. Space does not allow for a full review of all such literature concerning sponsorship, however a brief overview of the main foci will now follow, with particular attention paid to those contributions felt to be particularly relevant to the context of this study.

### ***2.5.1 Early descriptive research***

Much of the early academic research into sponsorship was descriptive in nature, often examining particular incidences of the use of sponsorship across different industrial sectors, e.g. electronics (Armstrong, 1988), alcoholic drinks (Meerabeau *et al*, 1991) or financial services (Thwaites, 1993; 1994). As with much descriptive research, the above studies contribute little to the overall level of understanding about the use of sponsorship, however as an introduction to the topic they provide important contextual detail in considering the origins of commercial sponsorship.

### ***2.5.2 An organisational perspective***

Following the spate of descriptive studies, the focus of attention turned to the consideration of sponsorship from an organisational perspective, particularly focussing upon criteria for making sponsorship decisions. Both McCarville and Copeland (1994) and Amis, Pant and Slack (1997) applied theoretical frameworks from other areas of business (exchange theory and the resource-based view of the firm respectively) to the

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development of knowledge on selecting sponsorship opportunities. These studies represented a radical departure from previous research by attempting to apply theory to the practice of sponsorship, thus aiding the process of establishing sponsorship as a legitimate field of academic research. With the focus now firmly placed upon sponsorship in a business context, the next, and largest, wave of research turned its attention to an examination of the objectives of sponsorship.

### ***2.5.3 Sponsorship objectives***

Within the framework of the investigations into sponsorship from an organisational perspective, many studies examined the objectives set by sponsors (Witcher *et al*, 1991; Thwaites, 1995; Thwaites, Aguilar-Manjarrez and Kidd, 1998). Sponsorship can be used to achieve multiple objectives (Ukman, 2004), however one of the most prevalent goals cited is the achievement of media exposure (Nicholls and Roslow, 1994), thereby going beyond the target of the immediate event-based audience. The objective of media exposure has been cited for many years as a major priority of sponsors (Head, 1981; Sleight, 1989) and frequently appears near the top of a list of sponsorship objectives in surveys of corporate sponsors (Abratt and Grobler, 1989; Thwaites, 1993). Nevertheless, media exposure in itself is only an intermediate objective, with the end goal being brand awareness or sales (Meenaghan, 1983). Therefore, much focus has turned to examining more directly brand-related objectives.

Perhaps the most widely cited objective of sponsorship is brand/company or product awareness (Kohl and Otter, 1985; Gardner and Shuman, 1987; Copeland, Frisby and

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McCarville, 1996; Verity 2002). The highly visible nature of logos on players' shirts or around sports stadia makes awareness an obvious objective to pursue through sponsorship, however, as will be examined comprehensively in Chapter 3, brand awareness is only a first step towards consumer purchase. Therefore, pursuing sponsorship purely for awareness benefits has been questioned, particularly in the case of established brands which already have high awareness levels (Sleight, 1989). Equally, doubts have been raised as to the level of marketing return from sponsorship in an increasingly crowded marketplace if the only tool used is the placement of a logo in front of spectators (Skildum-Reid, 2003).

In addition to awareness, one of the most cited sponsorship objectives by both sponsors themselves and academic commentators is to maintain/enhance/change brand or company image (Parker, 1991; Witcher *et al*, 1991; Keller, 2003). The notion of image is rather nebulous and can be used to cover a range of rather broad concepts relating to associations and general impressions of a brand. A more comprehensive discussion of these concepts will take place in Chapter 3, therefore it is not the intention here to elaborate on the nature of brand image. Given its intangibility, it is unsurprising that the image dimensions sought through sponsorship have developed over the lifetime of sponsorship research. Early research identified sponsorship's ability to project an image of being a good corporate citizen (Watkins, 1986), which ties in with the view of sponsorship as indistinct from philanthropy. A further image dimension associated with sponsorship is the assumed prestige in the minds of consumers. For example if an organisation sponsors a high profile sport then, the reasoning goes, by implication they must be a large, stable company in order to have such resources to devote to the sport

(McDonald, 1991). In whatever guise, image-related benefits continue to be a much-sought objective of sponsorship. However, the literature contains many examples of other objectives, indicating that while awareness and image dominate, they are not the only goals pursued through sponsorship.

An objective obtainable through sponsorship, which represents an advantage of the medium over advertising, is the possibility of gaining product trial (Ukman, 2004) through sampling opportunities or on-site sales. Similarly, sponsorship can be used to showcase products (Howard and Crompton, 2004); for example TOP sponsor GE hosted a demonstration of its latest portable ultrasound technology using athletes at the 2006 Winter Olympics in Torino (IOC, 2006b). Despite the importance accorded to the objectives of awareness, image and trial, the ultimate objective, not just for sponsorship, but for any marketing communications tool is to increase sales. Almost all studies of sponsorship objectives cite sales as an objective (Witcher *et al*, 1991; Thwaites, 1993; Thwaites, Aguilar-Manjarrez and Kidd, 1998), albeit as a lower priority than previously mentioned goals. As discussed in Chapter 3, the link between exposure to marketing communications and purchase is far from direct or simple, therefore, while sales is seen as an objective of sponsorship it is not considered as the most important, probably because of the recognition that such a direct connection is very difficult to achieve, or at least to measure.

In acknowledgement of the indirect relationship between marketing communications and sales, an intermediate objective of sponsorship frequently cited is targeting particular market segments. For example Whirlpool is using its sponsorship of

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women's tennis to reach a defined target market (Barrand, 2006), while Anheuser-Busch hosted parties at Club Bud during the Torino 2006 Olympic Games as a means of reaching its target customers (IOC, 2006b). Describing the desired sponsorship orientation, in what is termed last-generation sponsorship, Skildum-Reid (2003) explains that the priority should be to build and nurture a relationship with and to connect with the target market. Thus, the contrast is made between using sponsorship simply to generate brand awareness and using it as a relationship-building tool. Both of these objectives are achievable through sponsorship, although the implication is that the latter represents a much stronger marketing proposition in terms of return on investment. However, as with all objectives it would be naïve to consider relationship-building as superior to awareness-building, as the appropriate choice will depend upon the particular sponsor and the environment in which the brand operates (for example, new versus established brands, monopolies versus monopolistic markets).

Within the context of relationship-building, the final major objective of sponsorship identified is corporate hospitality (Quester, 1997; Howard and Crompton, 2004). An estimated 52000 corporate guests of official sponsors attended the Salt Lake City 2002 winter Olympic Games (IOC, 2002), while Sports Illustrated invited over 850 guest to the Athens 2004 summer Olympics (IOC, 2005). Once again the use of hospitality is dependent upon the nature of the sponsor's business.

The above objectives have all considered sponsorship as a customer-facing marketing communications tool. However, as highlighted above in section 2.3, consumers are only one of the possible targets for sponsorship activities. Sponsorship can be used to

improve employee relations (Harrison, 2000), perhaps within a performance-related incentive scheme or as a tool to aid recruitment (Ukman, 2004; Ferrand and Torrigiani, 2005). Nonetheless, such motivations for sponsorship expenditure are relatively minor in comparison to those concerned with targeting current and future customers. Finally, sponsorship may, on occasion, have a defensive motivation (Amis, Slack and Berrett, 1999), with organisations sponsoring a particular sport or event in order to prevent competitors from doing so.

Despite the extensive empirical evidence concerning the vast array of objectives pursued by sponsors, the actual objectives cited are often quite vague (Fenton, 2005). Studies into the achievement of sponsorship objectives (particularly concerning the effect on consumers) have been numerous, however they have produced ambiguous results (Ashill, Davies and Joe, 2001). A more comprehensive discussion of how sponsorship achieves objectives of awareness and image benefits can be found in Chapter 3 with the assessment of the conceptual frameworks that have been used to explain how sponsorship works. However, it is widely acknowledged that sponsorship is unlikely to contribute greatly to marketing objectives if it is undertaken on a one-off basis (Kohl and Otter, 1985). It is important to invest in sponsorship as a long-term strategy with defined and measurable goals. Objective setting should therefore be considered alongside the methods of evaluating sponsorship outcomes (Abratt and Grobler, 1989), as objectives on their own are useless if there is no corresponding measurement tool to examine whether they are being achieved. Thus, following the specification of sponsorship objectives, the final strand of sponsorship-related literature to be reviewed here concerns the measurement of sponsorship effectiveness.



### ***2.5.4 Sponsorship evaluation***

For many years following the development of sponsorship as a mainstream marketing communications tool, there was a lack of research into its effectiveness (Javalgi *et al*, 1994), which may have hindered perceptions of its value in relation to other marketing communications tools (Meenaghan, 1991b). Particularly in times of economic downturn, the value of sponsorship has been questioned due to a lack of empirical research providing evidence of its ability to generate return on investment (Becker-Olsen and Hill, 2006). However, with rising levels of investment in sponsorship, there is now a much greater interest in measuring sponsorship effectiveness (Lardinoit and Derbaix, 2001). While there have been some attempts to develop frameworks for measuring sponsorship effectiveness, either in an academic (for example Abratt and Grobler, 1989) or commercial setting (for example the Nielsen Sponsorship Scorecard) (Roberts, 2006), the majority of measures are concerned with assessing media coverage (Verity, 2002). As proposed in section 2.5.3, the objective of media exposure is only an intermediate step to more brand-focussed goals for sponsorship. However, in measuring the outcomes of sponsorship, the most popular assessment tool is media equivalency – calculating the cost of equivalent advertising space for sponsorship exposure achieved (Crompton, 2004).

The measurement of sponsorship using media equivalency involves counting the media coverage generated by the sponsorship, e.g. photographs in newspapers showing the sponsor's logo or mentions of the sponsor's name in television broadcasts, and then calculating the equivalent value in terms of advertising space. As such, measuring

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sponsorship effectiveness in this way is relatively straightforward and offers quantitative data which gives the appearance that sponsorship decisions are being based upon objective information (Howard and Crompton, 2004). However, using media equivalency vastly inflates the value of sponsorship by equating sponsorship exposure with advertising space. For example, even though a sponsor's name may only be mentioned once, the media equivalency measure considers the space devoted to the entire article in a newspaper. In addition to this, the maximal advertising rate card value is used for calculating the media equivalency of sponsorship exposure, even though the majority of advertisers do not pay this much for advertising space (Howard and Crompton, 2004).

Perhaps a more fundamental criticism of media equivalency as a measure of sponsorship effectiveness is that it merely counts the number of exposures to sponsorship stimuli and does not consider the impact these are having on the audience. Exposure alone may be of little value to a brand which already has high brand name recall (Crompton, 2004), thus dramatically reducing the value of such measures of effectiveness. The question of impact is also raised when considering media equivalency as an effectiveness measure. By collating individual brand name mentions and background images and then relating these to a prescribed advertising slot in terms of time/space, the assumption is that two seconds here and three seconds there will add up to the equivalent of an advertisement where the brand is the sole focus of attention (Thwaites, 1995). The nature of sports sponsorship means that the sporting action is always to the fore, with sponsorship messages in the background. Therefore, it is unreasonable to expect that such exposure will be the equivalent of a television



commercial or newspaper advertisement in terms of direct impact (Meenaghan, 1983). Media equivalency measures assume that communication is a one-way process from sponsor to consumer, however it is in fact a two-way process where the consumer/spectator needs to be sufficiently interested to process the sponsorship message (Howard and Crompton, 2004). As evidenced by the vast array of objectives other than awareness, sponsorship is not simply about visibility but about impact (Crimmins and Horn, 1996) and mere exposure may not be sufficient to influence consumer perceptions of a brand (Quester and Farrelly, 1998). Therefore, alternative measures are now being proposed to measure the effectiveness of sponsorship.

Many authors propose measuring the effectiveness of sponsorship based on whether it achieves stated objectives (Stotlar, 2004), however there has been little research into the specifics of how this should be undertaken. A relatively widely used sponsorship evaluation technique has been to measure the impact on sales (Pope and Voges, 1994), however this approach has been criticised because it is very difficult to isolate the impact of sponsorship from other marketing communications (Horn and Baker, 1999), therefore it is hard to confidently ascribe any increase in sales purely to the sponsorship (Meenaghan, 1983; Crompton, 2004). Even if the effects of sponsorship could be effectively tapped, given the many variables that impact upon final consumer purchasing behaviour, it would be almost impossible to justify any claim of direct cause-and-effect between sponsorship and sales (Shalofsky and Di San Germano, 1985).

Isolating the effects of sponsorship is arguably the greatest hurdle to overcome in measuring the impact of sponsorship because not only do sponsors leverage the sponsorship through other communications vehicles (Lardinoit and Quester, 2001), there is also evidence that carry-over effects from previous communications can impact upon measures used to evaluate sponsorship (Crompton, 2004). Given the range of objectives that can be pursued through sponsorship, the problem of measurement is unsurprising, particularly considering that certain objectives, such as improving company image, are very difficult to quantify and thus to measure (Sleight, 1989). It is therefore important to develop a measure of sponsorship effectiveness which includes the use of a control group to eliminate the effect of other marketing activities (Sleight, 1989).

A final, major criticism of existing measures of sponsorship effectiveness is the short-term focus, failing to consider the longer-term effects of sponsorship on relationship-building (Cousens and Amis, 2003). As such, it has been proposed that longitudinal rather than one-off measures be used, although as yet no definitive methodology has been developed. As is evidenced in the measures reviewed above, little attention has so far been devoted to measuring sponsorship effectiveness from the perspective of the consumer (Ashill, Davies and Joe, 2001). There have, recently, been some preliminary investigations which have attempted to apply the conceptual frameworks used in advertising evaluation to the sponsorship context. These studies will be critiqued in Chapter 3, within the discussion of current understanding of how sponsorship works.



### ***2.5.5 Current state of sponsorship research***

The above sections have offered a comprehensive review of relevant literature in the field of sports sponsorship. While other studies have been conducted into areas of sponsorship untouched in this chapter, for example ambush marketing (Scherer and Sam, 2005) and the impact of sponsorship announcements on stock market valuations (Miyazaki and Morgan, 2001), the above research was selected based upon relevance to the context of this particular study. As briefly mentioned above, there is now an increasing focus on investigating how sponsorship works, which Meenaghan (1999) has described as the “holy grail” of sponsorship research. So far, sponsorship research has concentrated on individual elements rather than attempting to generate an overall model (Meenaghan, 2001b) of how sponsorship works. There has also been a considerable number of replication studies across countries and markets, which, while initially contributing to a wider appreciation of the nature of sponsorship, are now showing diminishing returns in terms of developing understanding (Meenaghan, 1999). Looking to the future, therefore, the focus should be placed firmly upon the development of sponsorship knowledge within a more theoretical framework, which will not only contribute to the growing academic body of understanding but also have direct commercial application. As such, this study aims to examine the effectiveness of sponsorship from a consumer perspective, within the framework of brand equity, which is an area that has not yet been investigated in the academic literature.

## **2.6 Conclusion**

This chapter has charted the development of sponsorship from the early days of philanthropy to its current status as a recognised commercial marketing communications tool. Since the 1970s, sponsorship investment has grown exponentially and consequently, albeit somewhat lagging behind, so academic interest in the phenomenon of sponsorship has increased. Understanding of sponsorship has undoubtedly been hampered by the lack of a widely accepted definition. Therefore, following consideration of the different perspectives, a working definition for this study was adopted and justified in terms of conceptual relevance to the context of the investigation.

Early sponsorship research was primarily descriptive and concerned with organisational decision-making. However, more recent studies have considered the objectives of sponsorship and how to evaluate its effectiveness. The current focus of attention is on developing a model of how sponsorship works, primarily through the application of advertising-based models, which apply more general marketing theories to the field of sponsorship. It is in this vein that the current study will proceed, firstly by examining the marketing literature on branding and proposing a conceptual framework of consumer-based brand equity which will form the basis of the empirical investigation.



## **Chapter 3: Literature Review**

### **3.1 Introduction**

This thesis examines the contribution of sports sponsorship to consumer-based brand equity. The previous chapter described the sponsorship context within which this research took place. This chapter will address the concept of brand equity within the broader field of brand management. While sponsorship is the context for this research, the theoretical framework underpinning the study comes from the branding literature. Therefore, this chapter will build a complete picture of current theoretical understanding of brand equity, thus forming the basis upon which empirical data will be collected.

The concept of brand equity, which will be defined in this chapter, sits within the broader field of brand management as a distinct discipline within the domain of marketing. Marketing itself has received considerable academic scrutiny within the past 50 years, however much early research borrowed heavily from the fields of psychology (e.g. consumer behaviour) and economics. More recently, specific theoretical models and frameworks developed within the marketing arena have emerged, thus cementing marketing's position as a legitimate and independent area of academic study. While theories from other disciplines are mentioned where appropriate, this chapter concentrates primarily on reviewing the dedicated marketing literature, largely due to its relevance to the study and also in demonstration of the author's commitment to the development of marketing theory.

This chapter will begin with a discussion of the distinction between products and brands, leading to a definition of a brand to be used within the study. Following this general introduction, the chapter will proceed to critically examine the various conceptualisations of brand equity and provide a rationale for the selection of an appropriate theoretical framework for the thesis. A thorough review of the selected theoretical framework will follow, including a discussion of the elements of brand equity and the development of appropriate measurement models.

The final sections of the chapter will focus upon the role of marketing communications in building consumer-based brand equity, starting with a general overview before narrowing to consider the relevant literature on sponsorship's contribution to brand equity. As such, a link will exist between the current and previous chapter, where the development of sponsorship knowledge was discussed. This chapter builds upon Chapter 2 by critiquing the sponsorship-related literature within the context of building brands, thus presenting a comprehensive overview of the current state of play concerning understanding and knowledge of sponsorship. Finally, the chapter, having discussed all of the relevant literature, will identify gaps in current understanding and thus propose the contribution to knowledge of this thesis. Based upon the extant literature, hypotheses to be subjected to empirical testing will be postulated.



## **3.2 The Nature of a Brand**

Consumers are bombarded every day by thousands of brands, either through direct experience, marketing communications or even in conversation. However, despite the proliferation of brands within modern society, the debate continues to rage about what exactly a brand is and the extent to which a particular entity is a “brand”. As the brand concept has become more widespread, so an increasing number of product and service offerings are seen as brands, while the scope of what can be branded is ever increasing. For example, once the preserve of fast moving consumer goods (FMCG), branding is now creeping into all areas of modern society, from sports teams (Gladden, Irwin and Sutton, 2001) to celebrities such as David Beckham (Maidment, 2005) and even political parties (Sunday Times, 2005). Therefore, this section will start by tracing the history of brands and from this will move on to discuss the distinction between products and brands.

### ***3.2.1 The history of brands***

The word 'brand' derives from the Old Norse *brandr*, meaning to burn (Blackett, 2003) and suggests the process of marking property with an identifying sign. This definition is echoed in the Oxford English Dictionary (OED) (1998). However, the primary definition given by the OED is “a type of product manufactured by a particular company under a particular name” (p. 218). Therefore, the use of the noun ‘brand’ in a commercial sense has taken over in the public consciousness as the principal meaning of the term.

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The use of brands in a commercial setting can be traced back to Greek and Roman times, when signs for ‘shops’ were carved out in stone and markings were applied to pieces of silver (Riezebos, 2003). The development of commercial branding in an organised sense has a long history, with whisky distillers in the sixteenth century burning their names into the top of barrels to identify the producer to consumers, so as to prevent substitution for cheaper variants by tavern owners (Farquhar, 1989). A more recent progression towards the domination of brands which exists today soon developed, with brands such as Twinings, Douwe Egberts and Coca-Cola being introduced to the market in 1706, 1753 and 1886 respectively (Riezebos, 2003).

The widespread adoption of brands took place largely within the FMCG sector (Jones, 1999a), however, recent years have seen the proliferation of brands into markets previously considered as commodities, such as bottled water (Biel, 1992). There are now very few aspects of life that do not contain branding, with countries, political parties and even individuals being considered as brands in their own right.

### ***3.2.2 Products and brands***

“A product is something that is made, in a factory; a brand is something that is bought, by a customer. A product can be copied by a competitor; a brand is unique. A product can be quickly outdated; a successful brand is timeless.”  
(King, 1973, p. v)

One of the fundamental distinctions that can be drawn within the sphere of marketing and within the broader commercial spectrum is that between a product and a brand. The

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development of brands, traced above, is of course a result of the introduction of products for sale, as producers gradually found that they needed a way of identifying their products and differentiating them from competitors. Despite the long history of brands, the need to distinguish between products and brands was first identified by Gardner and Levy (1955) in their article “The Product and the Brand”.

As demonstrated by the above quote by King (1973), the basis of definition for a product lies in the physicality of the object, that is, a product is the physical item which rolls off a production line. Kim defined a product as “a physical thing that is made in the factory, or a service that is made available” (1990, p. 65) and at the core of a product offering to consumers is the *functional* purpose it serves (Farquhar, 1989; Meenaghan, 1995; Jones and Slater, 2003). Such definitions emphasise the chasm between production and marketing as they imply that the development of products lies in the domain of production, with no mention of the associated marketing function or the role of the consumer.

A more consumer-focused definition comes from de Chernatony and McDonald (2003) who view a product as a consumer problem solver, while King (1973, cited in Riezebos, 2003, p. 233) acknowledges that “what makes companies succeed is not products, but brands.” With such a claim, the author is recognising the power of a brand over and above that of the basic product offering. In today’s crowded marketplace, there are very few genuinely unique products, but a multitude of brands offering essentially very similar goods and services. It is very simple to produce goods which are almost

identical, yet it is impossible to replicate a brand (Murphy, 1990), which is the reason for the importance of brands today.

The distinction between products and brands is not, however, clear-cut in terms of the range of definitions proposed. In contrast to the view of a product as a tangible item, Levitt (1986, p. 77) refers to a product as a “complex cluster of value satisfactions”. It is thus not simply the tangible item that defines a product, but a cluster of attributes grouped together that represent the object of interest to the consumer. Levitt (1986) proposes a product as comprising four levels: generic, expected, augmented and potential product, with the actual physical item (generic product) compared to a stake in poker – it is merely the necessary minimum to be able to enter the game of selling.

The model of a product is extended to the expected product level, which comprises the basic expectations of the consumer, through the augmented product level, which represents offerings over and above consumer expectations, to the potential product level, characterised as what is possible with the product in terms of future developments. This multi-dimensional view of a product is more helpful when considering the product as an offering to consumers; however it could be argued that such a conceptualisation fails to capture the distinction between a product and the associated brand. What Levitt (1986) refers to as the expected, and particularly, the augmented product will undoubtedly contain components defined by other authors as elements of a brand.



### ***3.2.3 Products and services***

In addition to the distinction between products and brands, there are also perceptible differences between products and services, as distinct from brands. The single element most widely accepted as a distinguishing factor between products and services is intangibility (Shostack, 1977; Zeithaml, Parasuraman and Berry, 1985), however, this is a very simplistic definition and as pointed out by Shostack (1977), one cannot simply say that services are intangible, while products are tangible. The level of intangibility undoubtedly varies, with services at the higher extreme and products at the lower end, for example a holiday is much less tangible than a car. Nonetheless, there are tangible elements of a holiday, such as the facilities in a hotel bedroom or the in-flight meal. Conversely, the tangible product of a car is complemented by intangible elements such as the thrill of driving a powerful vehicle or the after-sales service. Intangibility, as one characteristic of services, can thus be represented as a continuum, with services clustering at one end and products at the other. However, the distinction becomes blurred around the middle. For example, is a credit card viewed as a tangible piece of plastic or a service enabling credit on consumer purchases?

Despite the ubiquity of intangibility as the differentiator between products and services, three other characteristics of services are proposed that distinguish them from products: inseparability of production and consumption, heterogeneity and perishability.

Inseparability refers to the fact that services are produced and consumed simultaneously, for example a consultation is produced by a financial advisor at the same time as it is consumed by the client seeking the advice. This has implications for

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demand as services are perishable, that is, they cannot be stockpiled. Therefore, services represent a unique challenge to the seller in terms of managing fluctuations in demand that producers can solve through stockpiling.

The final characteristic of services, which makes them distinct from products is their heterogeneity. A service is an interaction between service providers and customers (Gronroos, 2005) and as such each encounter is different, making it difficult to achieve standardization of quality. In fact, Levitt (1986, p. 105) goes as far as suggesting that with services, the customer “doesn’t know what he’s getting until he doesn’t.” By this, he means that satisfaction is the assumed requirement and only when a customer is dissatisfied do the actual criteria of assessment become apparent. The implications of intangibility, heterogeneity, inseparability and perishability on service quality will be examined below in section 3.3.7.

Thus a distinction is drawn between products and services, largely on the criterion of intangibility. However, while there exists relative consensus on the issue of what constitutes a product and a service, academics and practitioners alike are far from having a definitive answer to the question ‘what is a brand?’

### ***3.2.4 What is a brand?***

An attempt was made by de Chernatony and Dall’Olmo-Riley (1998) to examine the literature concerned with defining brands and the authors identified 12 themes into which the published definitions of the term ‘brand’ could be placed. The themes were

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both internal, e.g. brand as logo, identity system and company, and external, e.g. brand as image or relationship. Acknowledgement was also made of a time dimension to brands, with some definitions identifying brands as evolving entities (see for example, Goodyear, 1996, cited in de Chernatony and Dall'Olmo-Riley, 1998). This comprehensive study also extended the investigation into definitions of a brand to take account of opinions from industry 'experts', yet still failed to discover a consensus on an operational definition of the term so widely used in both academic and commercial studies.

Arguably, one of the simplest conceptualisations of a brand is as a logo or identifier. Such a definition was developed by the American Marketing Association (AMA) in 1960, which defined a brand as:

“A name, term sign, symbol or design, or a combination of them, intended to identify the goods or services of one seller or group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of competitors.” (de Chernatony, 2001, p. 21)

Although developed over 40 years ago, the AMA definition captures two very important points in that a brand acts as both an identifier and a differentiator, which is still true today. Such a view was echoed over 20 years after the AMA definition, by Watkins (1986, p. 3), who defined a brand as “an identifiable version of a product which a consumer could perceive as being distinctive in some way from other versions of the product.” Slater (1999) suggests that differentiation was a motivation for the early growth of brands; as new brands entered the marketplace, they obtained a short-term

monopoly. This attracted competition and led to the creation of many oligopolistic markets, for example supermarkets in the UK. As a result, brands are used to differentiate a company from its competitors and allow brand owners to thrive in competitive oligopolistic markets.

However, authors have since gone further in their definitions of a brand to suggest that a brand acts as a “badge of origin” (Feldwick, 1996, p. 21), offering a promise to consumers (Kotler, 2003). The concept of assurance given by a brand is captured in several definitions, notably that by Blackett (2003, p. 18), who claims that “brands allow the consumer to shop with confidence.” Through the mention of promises and confidence, the role of a brand is evolving from that of purely an identifier to a broader definition, which begins to suggest that consumers play a part in the concept of a brand. Keeble (1996, p. 170) goes as far as to suggest that “a brand becomes a brand as soon [as] it comes into contact with a consumer.”

Aaker (1991, p. 7) draws on the AMA perspective of a brand as an identifier and extends the definition to focus on differentiation and giving consumers information:

“A brand is a distinguishing name and/or symbol (such as a logo, trademark, or package design) intended to identify the goods or services of either one seller or a group of sellers, and to differentiate those goods or services from those of competitors. A brand thus signals to the customer the source of the product, and protects both the customer and the producer from competitors who would attempt to provide products that appear to be identical.”

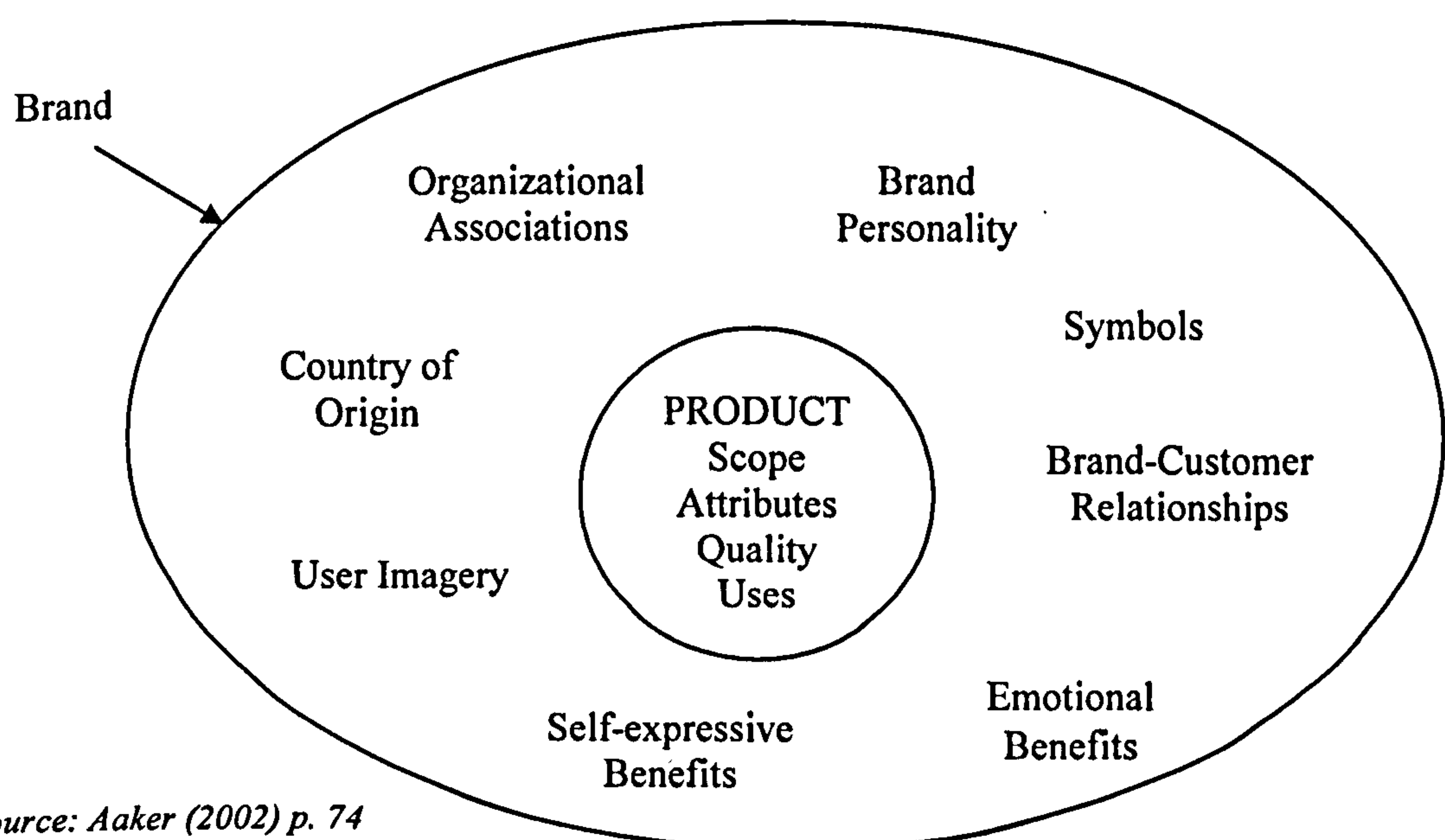


Aaker (1991) then proceeds to extend this definition further by suggesting that a brand offers benefits over and above those of a product (see Figure 3.1 below). These benefits are intangible associations, which augment the tangible product-related benefits.

Thus, the definition of a brand has moved from a narrow conceptualisation as an identity badge, through the acknowledgement of a brand's role in differentiating the offerings of competing providers, to the holistic view of a brand as a collection of associations over and above the intrinsic product benefits. In the words of Gardner and Levy (1955, p. 35):

“A brand name is more than the label employed to differentiate among the manufacturers of a product. It is a complex symbol that represents a variety of ideas and attributes.”

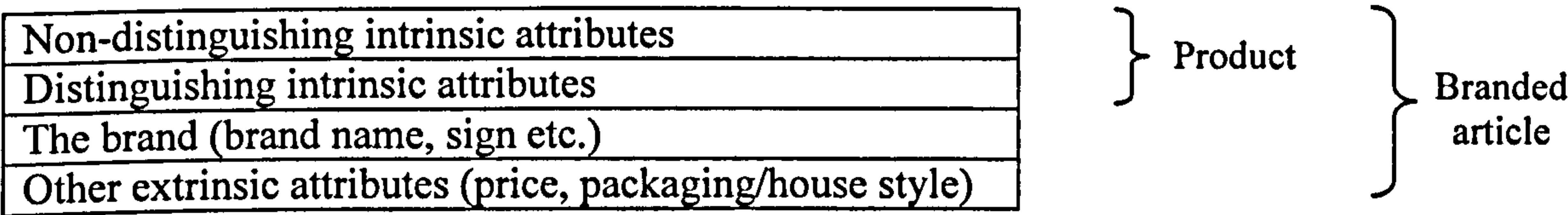
**Figure 3.1 Aaker's conceptualisation of a product and a brand**



Source: Aaker (2002) p. 74

The complexity of a brand lies in the numerous associations and meanings with which it can become endowed in the minds of consumers. Riezebos (2003) believes that brands have both material and immaterial meanings for consumers, which are derived from the numerous brand associations. Riezebos (2003) articulates these associations as a hierarchy from product to brand (see Figure 3.2 below), with a brand building upon the intrinsic product characteristics.

**Figure 3.2 Product – Brand hierarchy**



*Source: Riezebos, (2003) p.74*

However, the extrinsic attributes referred to by Riezebos (2003) are largely tangible, e.g. price and packaging. The key to distinguishing a brand from a product lies in the intangible elements and associations as suggested by Aaker (1991) above. Thus, a more thorough definition that conveys brands as constructs inside the mind of consumers comes from Kotler (2003), who suggests that a brand can convey up to six levels of meaning: attributes, benefits, values, culture, personality and user. Such a conceptualisation extends the views of de Chernatony (2001) and Aaker (1991) and places the definition of a brand firmly in the realm of the consumer. Feldwick (1996, p. 21) claims that “a brand is simply a collection of perceptions in the mind of the consumer.” This definition adopts the polar opposite position from that of a brand as a



logo, but fails to consider the tangible elements of a brand, such as the brand name and symbol.

All of the definitions presented so far have described a brand in terms of either the physical attributes or the intangible associations; however no mention has been made of the benefit of brands over identical unbranded products. A brand can influence consumers to purchase a product, thus becoming a valid choice criterion in the purchase decision (Kapferer, 2004). The key to a successful brand is therefore to add value to a product (Murphy, 1992, cited in de Chernatony and Dall'Olmo-Riley, 1998). de Chernatony and McDonald (2003) add that a successful brand is able to sustain these added values when faced with competitive threats.

Thus, the purpose of a brand appears to be to add value over and above that offered by a generic product, which is succinctly summarised by Miller and Muir (2004, p. 4) when they propose that “a brand is a name and/or symbol that is used by an organization to create value for its stakeholders.” This completes the circle of definitions of a brand, starting with the brand as a logo and ending with the creation of value for the brand owner. This value is produced through the benefits and associations that the brand generates over and above the functional product-related benefits.

The definition which represents the brand construct most comprehensively comes from Riezebos (2003, p. 63, emphasis added), who claims that:

“A brand is every sign that is capable of *distinguishing* the goods or services of a company and that can have a certain *meaning* for customers both in material and immaterial terms.”

This definition captures the vital concept of a brand as an identifier and distinguisher, whilst also acknowledging the meaning that brands have for consumers. It is these meanings which add value to a brand when compared to a generic product and thus which create value for the brand owner. Many intrinsic and extrinsic elements therefore make up a brand, however the value inherent in a brand is much more than the sum of the individual parts (Blackston, 1995). Having defined both a product and a brand, it is to the thorny issue of the value of brands that this discussion will now move.

### **3.3 Brand Equity**

The term brand equity is one of the most frequently used concepts within both academic and commercial marketing literature, yet almost every author writing on the subject proposes a different definition. This has led to a confusing arena of debate where it is impossible to know if two individuals discussing brand equity are in fact talking of the same construct. The Marketing Science Institute made brand equity its top research priority in 1988 (Barwise, 1993) as the concept became more widespread. However, Baldinger (1990) commented that within a meeting of the Brand Equity Committee, the number of definitions was equivalent to the number of attendees, while Feldwick (2002) has gone as far as to suggest that the term ‘brand equity’ be abolished, with individual variants named separately to avoid the current confusion. Nevertheless, while ‘brand equity’ remains in common academic and commercial parlance it is the intention of this

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section to critically review the varying conceptualisations, with a view to adopting the strongest as the basis for investigation within this thesis.

John Stuart, former Chairman of Quaker Oats Ltd (cited in de Chernatony, 2001, p. 3) famously declared:

“If this business were to be split up, I would be glad to take the brands, trademarks and goodwill and you could have all the bricks and mortar – and I would fare better than you.”

The assertion by John Stuart that brands make up the most valuable component of a business implies that there are advantages to adopting a brand strategy. The idea of brand value was first conceptualised in financial terms, which provided the impetus for the adoption of the term ‘brand equity’. In one of the earlier articles on brand equity, Farquhar (1989, p.24) refers to brand equity as "the 'added value' with which a given brand endows a product."

This view is echoed by Riezebos (2003), who goes on further to claim that the value implicit in the term brand equity can be financial, strategic or managerial:

- Financial (e.g. higher sales and profit margins)
- Strategic (e.g. resistance to competition and trade leverage)
- Managerial (e.g. ease of introduction of new products through brand extensions)

Thus a distinction begins to develop between financial brand equity definitions and so-called customer-based brand equity.

### ***3.3.1 Financial brand equity***

The idea of placing a financial value on brands took off in 1988, when Rank Hovis McDougall placed a valuation of its brands at £678 million on its balance sheet (Murphy, 1990). Since this time, many proprietary models of financial brand value (equity) have been developed and with them countless definitions of brand equity have emerged.

One of the earliest definitions of financial brand equity came from Simon and Sullivan (1993, p.29), who outlined it as “the incremental cash flows which accrue to branded products over and above the cash flows which would result from the sale of unbranded products”. However, the calculation of such cash flows is problematic and has led to a number of brand equity calculation techniques being introduced.

Keller (2003) talks of three financial brand equity measures: the cost, market and income approaches. The simplest of these, the cost approach, views brand equity as the cost of reproducing or replacing a given brand, including all previous investment in the brand, such as research & development and marketing. Despite its simplicity, this approach is problematic because, while estimating the replacement cost for a new brand may be relatively straightforward, it is almost impossible to contemplate recreating an



established brand such as Nike, given all of the previous investment and the intangible assets associated with the brand.

The market approach to brand valuation comprises the present value of future economic benefits accruing to the brand. As an abstract concept this definition of brand equity has an appeal in that it represents the value of the brand to the producer (Blackett, 1991), yet it is problematic from a measurement perspective as it is potentially impossible to predict with any certainty the future benefits that can be derived from a brand, particularly in modern, turbulent marketplaces.

The final technique, the income approach is the most widely supported as it ties in with definitions of brand equity as representing the additional cash flows for a brand over and above those that could be expected from an unbranded product or service (see for example, Shocker and Weitz, 1988; Biel, 1992; Riezebos, 2003). The income technique values a brand as “the discounted future cash flow from the future earnings stream for the brand” (Keller, 2003, p.495). Interbrand, one of the world’s leading brand consultancies has developed a brand valuation technique which adopts this approach by taking a three year weighted average of historical profits (Birkin, 1996) as a projection of future profits, then applying a brand strength multiplier to produce a brand value figure. It is such an approach which lies behind the headline grabbing stories naming Coca-Cola as the world’s most valuable brand, worth \$67.5 billion (Berner and Kiley, 2005).

The Interbrand valuation method makes use of a brand strength multiplier, which considers the less tangible, non-financial elements of market leadership, market stability, nature of market sector, internationality of the brand, the brand's long-term trend, support received by the brand and brand protection (e.g. trademarks) (Birkin, 1996). In considering these additional components of brand strength, the Interbrand methodology moves away from a purely financial valuation of brand equity, towards a composite measure, taking both financial and customer-based elements into consideration.

Feldwick (2002) proposes that there are three senses of brand equity: brand value, brand strength and brand description. He considers brand value to be the total value of a brand as a separable asset on a balance sheet. Since the inclusion of brands on the balance sheet at Rank Hovis McDougall, many organisations have taken the decision to place financial asset valuations on brands, often for the purposes of acquisition (Blackett, 1991). However, in 1997 the UK Accounting Standards Board ruled that acquired brands must be placed on the balance sheet at the price paid, but internally created brands must not be listed (Feldwick, 2002).

Moving away from the pure financial valuation, Feldwick describes brand strength as "a measure of the strength of consumers' attachment to a brand" (2002, p.37) and brand description as "a description of the associations and beliefs the consumer has about the brand" (2002, p.37). Thus there is an acknowledgement of brands as having value not simply to producers, but also to consumers. In the words of McCracken, "brands *have*



value...because they *add* value” (1993, p.125, original emphasis). This added value to consumers is what has now become known as consumer-based brand equity.

Franzen (1999a) conceptualises two levels of brand equity: consumer equity and financial/economic brand equity, explaining that financial brand equity is:

“The influence of consumer equity on the brand’s financial/economic performance in the marketplace, expressed in the level of distribution, sales, market share, price premium and profit it achieves” (p. 99)

Logically, consumer equity is prior to financial equity (Crimmins, 1992) because a brand only adds value to a manufacturer or retailer because it adds sufficient value to the consumer to drive brand preference and sales. Franzen (1999a) captures this hierarchy when he classifies consumer equity into mental brand equity, that is consumer preference, and behavioural equity, the actual and repeated purchase of a brand.

Adopting the consumer perspective, a commonly expressed viewpoint is that of Winters (1991), who suggests that brand equity is the price a customer is willing to pay for a brand over and above that for the same unbranded product. However, as can be seen from the work of Franzen, consumer-based brand equity refers to a lot more than a simple price premium.

Therefore, it can be seen that the term ‘brand equity’ has widened in its usage from a pure financial valuation technique to include a more customer-centred approach, based on associations, preferences and purchase behaviour. It is with this in mind that the next section turns to an appraisal of the consumer-based brand equity definitions in

order to complete the picture of brand equity and derive a conceptual framework for this thesis.

### ***3.3.2 Defining consumer-based brand equity***

The line between financial and consumer-based brand equity is far from defined and many authors offer definitions which could sit on either side of the debate. For example, Aaker and Biel (1993) suggest that brand equity, as perceived by the consumer, is the value added to a product by the addition of the brand name. While acknowledging the role of the consumer in the creation of brand equity, this definition offers little insight into what constitutes consumer-based brand equity. Kapferer (2004, p.10 original emphasis), notes that “customer equity is the preamble of financial equity. Brands have financial value *because* they have created assets in the minds and hearts of customers...” It is these assets which lie at the centre of consumer-based brand equity, however there is still no universal agreement on the constituent parts of consumer-based brand equity.

Brand equity can be viewed as the effect of knowing a brand name on the response of the consumer to the brand, measured as the extent to which consumers are willing to pay more for a certain brand (Kotler, 2003). This perspective on brand equity has inherent appeal in that it is centred on the consumer yet still maintains some sense of measurable financial value in terms of the price premium that a brand commands. Such a view is largely echoed by Biel (1999), who, while asserting that brand equity relates to future cash flow resulting from placing a brand name on a product or service,

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acknowledges that this cash flow is predicated on a buyer response to a brand, which exceeds the response that would be obtained by an identical, unbranded product or service.

Despite the simple attractiveness of Kotler's definition of brand equity, it is one-dimensional in that it considers brand equity to be wholly represented by brand knowledge, implying that a brand will increase its equity by increasing the number of consumers who know the brand name. Biel's (1999) definition is not limited to brand knowledge but is not explicit in terms of quantifying the phrase 'consumer response'. In an extension to the above viewpoint, one of the most widely accepted definitions of consumer-based brand equity comes from Keller (1993, p.2 original emphasis) who claims that:

*"Customer-based brand equity is defined as the differential effect of brand knowledge on consumer response to the marketing of the brand...Customer-based brand equity occurs when the consumer is familiar with the brand and holds some favorable, strong, and unique brand associations in memory."*

Keller suggests that consumer-based brand equity resides in brand knowledge, which he separates into brand awareness and brand image. Therefore, consumer-based brand equity is beginning to take on a multidimensional form. It is thus acknowledged that consumer-based brand equity constitutes more than simple awareness of a brand, as the conceptualisation also encompasses the associations held in memory about the brand. As such the consumer has gone from the periphery of brand equity in terms of merely purchasing a brand to being at the centre of consumer-based brand equity as the keeper

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of knowledge of and about a brand, which influences attitudes and behaviour towards that brand.

Following this theme, one of the most prominent definitions of brand equity was proposed by Srivastava and Shocker (1991, cited in de Chernatony and McDonald, 2003, p.437) and endorsed by the Marketing Science Institute. Brand equity is:

“a set of associations and behaviours on the part of a brand’s consumers, channel members and parent corporation that enables a brand to earn greater volume or greater margins than it could without the brand name and, in addition, provides a strong, sustainable and differential advantage.”

In including reference to both associations and behaviours, this definition begins to capture the complexity of consumer-based brand equity as not only referring to the knowledge that consumers have about a brand but also their resultant behaviour towards a brand, which is the ultimate driver of sales.

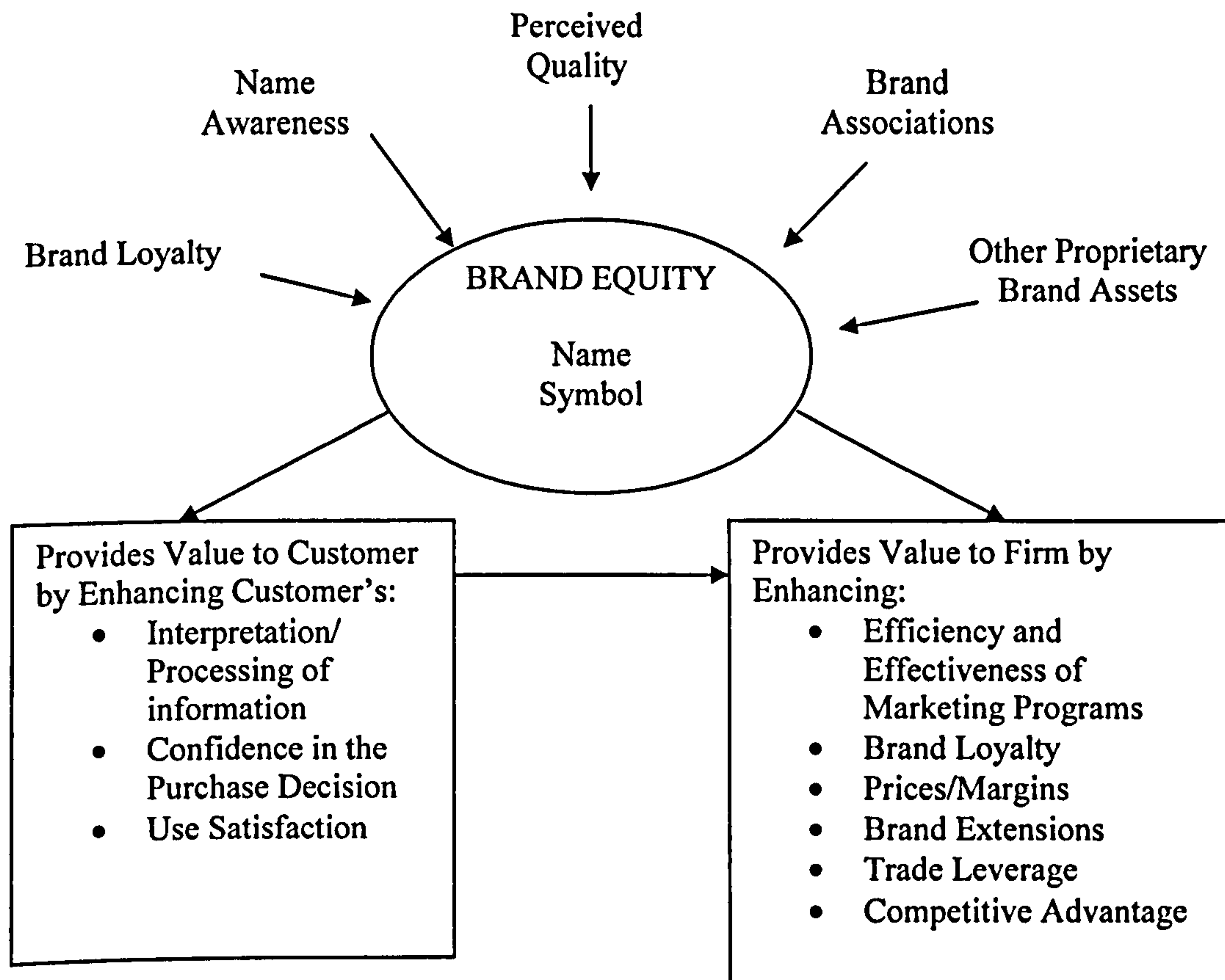
The definition of brand equity has now been extended to include not only awareness and associations but also a behavioural component, which implies that the consumer has an active role to play in the achievement of high levels of brand equity. Franzen (1999b) refers to brand equity as the meaning that a brand has for consumers, in terms of both attitudes and behaviours towards the brand. Nevertheless, this definition of consumer-based brand equity lacks specificity regarding the exact components of brand equity such that the concept could be operationalised and measured.

In light of the need for a conceptualisation of consumer-based brand equity which is both multidimensional and detailed, the best definition put forward in the literature so far comes from Aaker (1991, p.15), who proposes that:

“Brand equity is a set of brand assets and liabilities linked to a brand, its name and symbol, that add to or subtract from the value provided by a product or service to a firm and/or that firm’s customer.”

Within his conceptualisation of brand equity, Aaker claims that the brand assets (or liabilities) are: brand awareness, brand associations, perceived quality, brand loyalty and other proprietary brand assets, such as trademarks and channel relationships. These brand assets combine to provide value to the customer, which in turn generates value for the firm (see Figure 3.3 below).

This perspective on brand equity brings together elements from many other definitions, including the centrality of the consumer, the brand associations held in memory and the value to the brand owner. Equally, the inclusion of brand loyalty reinforces the behavioural aspect by emphasising the importance of consumer behaviour in the development of brand equity. Importantly, Aaker states that brand equity can comprise both assets and liabilities, so introducing the important idea that a brand can have either positive or negative brand equity.

**Figure 3.3 Aaker's conceptualisation of Brand Equity**

Source: Aaker (1991) p.17

The strength of Aaker's definition lies in the detail offered, which facilitates the development of a tool with which to measure consumer-based brand equity. As will be outlined further in section 3.4, Aaker's conceptualisation has been widely used and validated in subsequent brand equity studies. It is therefore the intention to adopt the conceptualisation of brand equity put forward by Aaker as the theoretical framework for this study. This conceptualisation brings together the ideas of many authors within the brand equity literature and offers the most comprehensive view of the nature and



components of consumer-based brand equity. Equally, Aaker presents brand equity as a measurable concept by distinguishing between the constituent brand assets.

Aaker (1991) proposes that there are interrelationships between the elements of brand equity, which will be explored below, for example an association with a well known brand spokesperson may enhance perceived quality, which may in turn lead to increased brand loyalty amongst consumers. However, Keller (2003) goes further than implying links between elements by proposing a hierarchy, which he labels the consumer-based brand equity pyramid. While not using the same terminology as Aaker, Keller's brand equity pyramid begins with brand salience, a broad indicator of awareness and moves through brand performance and image, which could be likened to brand associations (see section 3.3.5 below for a discussion of brand image and brand associations). From there, the pyramid moves to consumer judgements and feelings, with consumer-brand resonance, which approximates to brand loyalty, at the pinnacle.

There are undoubtedly links between the components of brand equity, however these relationships can be two-way. For example, brand associations may lead to a perception of quality, as outlined above; however a perception of quality may in itself develop other brand associations such as innovation or leadership. Therefore, the concept of a brand equity pyramid is questionable in that it suggests a distinct hierarchy. While it is widely acknowledged that brand awareness is a necessary, but not sufficient, condition for brand equity (Keller, 2003), this does not necessarily imply that all other elements of brand equity are sequentially dependent. Therefore, Aaker's conceptualisation retains

its strength as a measurement aid by acknowledging the interrelationships between components of brand equity without imposing conditions upon their use.

However, in its bare format, Aaker's conceptualisation itself does not represent a valid measurement tool. It is therefore necessary to examine further the individual components in order to develop a measure of consumer-based brand equity.

### ***3.3.3 Brand awareness***

“Brand awareness is the ability of a potential target to recognize or recall that a brand is a member of a certain product category” (Aaker, 1991, p.61). The concept of brand awareness is perhaps the most widely known of the components of brand equity, as it is frequently used as a measure of both marketing communications effectiveness and brand equity in general. However, as Aaker points out above, awareness is not simply knowing the name of a brand, there must also be a link to the product class. This is logical in terms of awareness' ability to contribute to brand equity, as a consumer who knows the name of a brand but has no knowledge of the product category within which the brand operates is unable to form other associations or develop loyalty to that brand.

Within the literature on brand awareness, a distinction is commonly made between recognition and recall, which are both techniques used to measure awareness among target consumers. Recognition is the simple act of responding positively to the question ‘have you seen brand x before?’ Therefore, recognition implies no knowledge of the product category (Aaker, 2002). Consequently, the higher order measure of awareness

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is recall, which involves actively linking the brand to the product class, often with the product class as a stimulus such as 'what brands come to mind when thinking of running shoes?'

Given the prevalence of advertising and other marketing communications abound in the world today, simple measures of recognition and recall often indicate very high levels of awareness. This has led several authors to claim that there is a strength component to awareness which develops through repeated exposure to a brand name and strong product category associations (Keller, 2003). Aaker (2002) offers the analogy of brands as mental billboards, with the size of the billboard representing the strength of the presence of the brand in the mind of the consumer. The idea of an awareness hierarchy has also been put forward, with measures ordered from unawareness, through recognition, then recall up to top of mind awareness (Aaker, 1991). As such it is possible to examine the effectiveness of a marketing campaign in building brand awareness by measuring not only the number of target consumers at each level but also their progression towards the top of the hierarchy.

As critiqued above, Keller proposes a pyramid of brand equity components, with brand awareness forming the base. While the logic of a hierarchy for the other elements of brand equity was questioned, it is reasonable to assume that awareness is a prerequisite to brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty. Keller (1993) explains this using an associative network memory model, where brand knowledge consists of a network of interconnected nodes of brand information. He claims that a prerequisite for brand image is that a node has been created in memory for that particular brand, thus



placing brand awareness before any possible brand associations. Keller (1993) concludes that brand awareness can influence the formation and strength of brand associations and Aaker (2002) emphasises the link to brand equity by suggesting that strong brands are managed not just for awareness, but for strategic awareness, that is, not simply being remembered, but being remembered for the right reasons, which is where the role of brand associations begins.

### ***3.3.4 Measuring brand awareness***

Assuming Keller's (1993) view of brand awareness as the base of a hierarchy of brand equity elements, it is unsurprising that measurement of brand awareness has long been of interest to both academics and practitioners. Within the broad domain of brand awareness, three distinct concepts emerge: top-of-mind awareness (TOMA), recall and recognition.

TOMA refers to the first brand recalled by a consumer when given a particular stimulus, often the product category. Brand recall, often termed unaided awareness, measures the brands that a consumer brings to mind when given a prompt such as product category or a particular need to satisfy, e.g. "which brands come to mind when you need to buy fuel for your vehicle?" TOMA and brand recall in general are so-called higher order measures of brand awareness because they refer to the brands that are actively recalled from memory without being given a list of brands as a prompt. In contrast, brand recognition, often termed aided awareness, measures a consumer's ability to recognise a given brand from a list, e.g. "which of the following brands of fuel have you heard of?"

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The distinction between and the relative merits of recall and recognition techniques has sparked debate for many years, originating in the field of advertising effectiveness measurement (Du Plessis, 1994); a definitive solution to the recall or recognition debate still remains to be found.

The usefulness of brand awareness and, more specifically, recall and recognition varies with the consumer decision making process within the product category and also the level of involvement the customer has with the purchase (Kapferer, 2004). In line with Keller's (1993) view of awareness as a prerequisite to associations, perceived quality and loyalty, it is widely believed that brand awareness is of great importance to new brands (Farr, 1999; Franzen and Bouwman, 2001), but its usefulness as a measure of brand equity for established brands has been questioned (Gordon, 1996). Similarly, studies have shown that brand awareness can play a large role in the purchase decision for inexperienced consumers, selecting between brands of a particular product for the first time (Hoyer and Brown, 1990), while it may not be such a powerful factor for more experienced consumers.

Farr (1999) argues that brand presence (awareness) is a key factor for new brands as consumers are unlikely to buy a brand that they know nothing about. A correlation has been found between brand awareness and product trial for newly launched brands and while there is no guarantee, awareness appears a logical prerequisite of product trial. However, in more mature markets where almost all brands have close to 100 per cent awareness, e.g. banks and oil companies (Gordon, 1996) there is little to be gained from measuring brand awareness as an indicator of brand equity because it is unlikely to

distinguish between different brands within the market. Gordon (1996) goes on to criticise the use of brand awareness by suggesting that its meaning is actually confused and many supporters view awareness as a synonym of salience, which actually refers to the importance a brand holds for the consumer. Clearly, awareness of a brand does not necessarily imply that a consumer holds the brand as important, therefore, despite the significance of brand awareness, it is crucial not to overstate its contribution to the overall value of the brand.

As a response to the awareness – salience debate, Franzen and Bouwman (2001) suggest that TOMA may be used as a measure of brand salience as it refers to the first brand named when given a product category stimulus. It is evident that it is not enough to simply measure the number of consumers who recall a brand name but there is a need to measure the strength of the influence this has on consumers (Feldwick, 2002).

Franzen (1999a) suggests that, in addition to measuring simple awareness, it is useful to measure brand familiarity, e.g. the extent to which the consumer knows the brand, measured on a scale from “I don’t know the brand at all” to “I know the brand very well.” Aaker (1996) includes a similar measure in his conceptualisation of brand awareness, by assessing whether respondents have an opinion about the brand. This measure of salience, therefore, acts as a bridge from mere name awareness to broader brand associations.

Finally, the measure of brand awareness has been linked to brand usage. Consumers frequently recall the brands that they have most recently used (Franzen and Bouwman, 2001) and therefore brand awareness may not be so much a pure measure of whether a



consumer has heard of a particular brand but rather more a function of previous brand usage. Obviously, this is not the case for newly launched brands, but such a contention adds support to the argument that brand awareness as a measure is only truly valuable for new brands and is of limited importance for established brands. Despite the criticisms of brand awareness measures, they are still widely used within academic and market research; however it is important to go beyond awareness when considering consumer-based brand equity.

### ***3.3.5 Brand associations***

The term brand association, as defined by Aaker (1991, p.109) is “anything ‘linked’ in memory to a brand.” This is a very broad definition, suggesting that brand associations are a catch-all for any brand-related characteristics which are not included in one of the other elements of brand equity. Riezebos (2003) divides brand associations into material and immaterial associations, while Aaker (1991) identifies 11 categories of brand associations: product attributes, intangibles, customer benefits, relative price, use/application, user/customer, celebrity/person, lifestyle/personality, product class, competitors and country/geographic area. An examination of what constitutes a brand association reveals that these elements lie at the very heart of brand equity and the marketing activities of firms across the globe.

Consistent with the associative network memory model, Keller (1993) suggests that brand associations are the other nodes in memory connected to the brand node, which contain the meaning of the brand. However, as with awareness, it is not sufficient to

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have a dichotomous view of brand associations as present or absent; the key to brand associations' ability to build brand equity lies in their strength, favourability and uniqueness (Keller, 1993). It is the ability of brand associations to differentiate a brand from its competitors which lies at the heart of their contribution to brand equity. For example, certain product classes such as perfumes and clothes are not easily distinguishable by most consumers, so the brand and its associations play an important identification and differentiation role (Aaker, 1991).

When confronted with a list of brand associations, for example a celebrity spokesperson, country of origin and price, it is easy to see them as a collection of stand-alone attributes of a brand. However, the power of brand associations lies in the links between these associations, creating a congruent whole. Congruence of brand associations can impact how readily an association is recalled and how easily a new association can be linked to the brand (Keller, 1993). If a brand association is supported by other links in a network of information, then the association will be stronger in the mind of the consumer than if it existed purely in isolation (Aaker, 1991).

Two commonly cited brand associations are user associations and brand personality, with Jones (1999b) referring to these as added values of a brand. The concept of brand personality as "the set of human characteristics associated with a brand," (Aaker, 1997) has recently gained acceptance within the marketing domain and much use is made of brand personality in market research. The sources of such brand personality associations can be wide-ranging, both product-related, for example price and

packaging, and non-product-related, such as country of origin, marketing communications style and sponsorship/endorsement (Aaker, 2002).

Brand personality differs from user associations in that it is the brand itself that is deemed to have human character traits. The anthropomorphism of brands leads to insights into how brands are perceived by consumers, with many brands which are endowed with a strong personality using this as a basis for marketing campaigns, for example Apple and Nike. In contrast, user associations refer to the perceptions held about typical users of a brand, which may or may not mirror the personality perceptions of the brand itself.

However, consumers frequently seek brands with a personality congruent with their own actual or desired personality (Batra, Lehmann and Singh, 1993) and consequently, brand personality is a driver of brand choice in terms of representing a brand as being 'for me' (Plummer, 2000). Brands are often used by consumers as an expression of their personality or even a part of their identity, whether that be an actual or aspirational view (Aaker, 2002). Consequently, the power of brand personality as a component of brand associations is substantial. Unfortunately, despite the acceptance of brand personality among marketing researchers (Aaker, 2002), its use as a valid research tool depends upon its acceptance by subjects. While many consumers may carry opinions of a brand in terms of personality traits, they may not acknowledge this fact or may question the validity of the brand personality concept. Therefore, while brand personality represents an academically sound component of brand associations, it remains susceptible to the viewpoint of the consumer as to whether they feel able to



perceive brand personality and, more importantly, to articulate these opinions in brand research.

When considering the role of brand associations within the brand equity concept, it is necessary to broaden the picture in terms of drawing a distinction between existing brand associations and desired brand associations. At any given moment a brand will have a series of associations, which are likely to change over time and which may not be the same across different markets or even between individual consumers. The primary means of altering these brand associations lies in marketing communications, such as advertising and sponsorship, however there are elements of brand associations which are almost impossible to control and which a brand owner must live with, e.g. the brand's country of origin. For example, McDonalds is inextricably linked with the United States of America and no amount of marketing activity will ever nullify this association. In times of anti-American sentiment, the brand may suffer from this country association and while the links with the USA can be played down, they can never be eliminated completely. Therefore, while the owner can influence a brand's associations through marketing activities, there will always remain a certain element over which it has no control. Aaker (2002, p.68) thus extends the concept of brand associations into a wider framework of brand identity:

“Brand identity is a unique set of brand associations that the brand strategist aspires to create or maintain. These associations represent what the brand stands for and imply a promise to customers from the organization members.”

In Aaker's (2002) vocabulary, brand image is how the brand is currently perceived in terms of its associations, with brand identity as the goal for marketers to achieve.

However, the term brand image represents an area of conflict within the literature as the same term is used differentially by other authors to denote a range of concepts. Tauber (1988) noted that marketers tended to use the terms brand equity, brand image and brand personality interchangeably, which leads to confusion. Riezebos (2003, p.63) views brand image as the "subjective mental picture of a brand shared by a group of consumers" and claims that the content of a brand image is the associations a brand name evokes. Similarly, Biel (1993) uses the term brand image to define the group of associations a consumer holds for a brand. Biel (1992) also echoes the view of brand associations as multifaceted, suggesting that brand image comprises corporate image, user image and product/service image. While not differing greatly from the seminal views of Aaker and Keller, the inconsistent use of the terms image and associations creates an arena full of uncertainty and misunderstanding over the precise definition of the terminology being used.

Despite the obvious confusion resulting from the non-standardized use of terminology, the concept of brand associations as a key component of brand equity is unchallenged by any author. It is these associations which are so often presented as the face of a brand and are reflected in its marketing communications. Certain authors have gone as far as to say that image (or associations) drives brand equity (Biel, 1993). Brand associations can help to create value for a brand through differentiating it from competitors, providing a reason to buy, creating positive feelings towards a brand and giving cues to consumers to retrieve relevant information. However, despite their

importance, brand associations remain only one of five components of brand equity as postulated by Aaker and as such their importance must not be allowed to overshadow the other elements in a brand equity measurement tool.

### ***3.3.6 Measuring brand associations***

The varied and intangible nature of brand associations makes their measurement more complex than, for example, brand awareness. Added to this is the fact that brand associations will vary over time and across different brands, posing problems for the creation of a generic brand associations measure. Aaker (2002) proposes a three-pronged measure of brand associations under the headings of perceived value, personality and organisation (i.e. the brand's parent company). In addition, he includes a measure of differentiation within the overall brand association measure. Aaker (2002) sees differentiation as the key element within the measure of brand associations, arguing that if a brand cannot differentiate itself from competitors then it will not be able to support a price premium. Therefore, while perceived value, personality and organisation are valid measures of brand associations, their importance lies in their ability to differentiate a brand.

The concept of brand personality as a component of brand associations was captured in the work of Jennifer Aaker (1997), who developed a measure of brand personality that could be applied across product and service categories. Using factor analysis, a range of personality traits were examined across a number of brands with the resulting output



producing five personality dimensions: sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication and ruggedness.

While the Aaker (1997) brand personality scale is a valid and empirically-tested measure, its use within the wider context of measuring brand associations would be cumbersome due to the large number of items included in the scale. David Aaker (2002) therefore advocates simply measuring if the brand has a strong personality and not investigating the nature of this personality. From a pragmatic perspective this solution works well, however by simply assessing the strength of a given brand's personality, no insight is gained into whether the brand carries positive or negative personality traits. Nevertheless, Aaker (2002) contends that brand personality often remains stable over long periods of time, therefore conducting an in-depth measure of a brand's personality may not capture the contemporary realities of the market. While acknowledging the role of brand personality within wider brand associations, it is important to present a balanced measure of the elements of brand equity. Therefore, while the Aaker (1997) brand personality scale may be appropriate for an individual brand audit, its size and complexity render it problematic within a broader brand equity measurement framework.

Unquestionably, the concept of brand associations will never fully attain an objective measure that can be applied across product categories due to the variety of elements contained within the proposed definitions. Nevertheless, Aaker's (1996) measure, within the broader brand equity measurement framework (discussed in section 3.4.2 below) represents a parsimonious tool with which to assess brand associations across a

range of brands, in line with the chosen conceptualisation of consumer-based brand equity.

### ***3.3.7 Perceived quality***

The third component of brand equity as conceptualised by Aaker is perceived quality. It is conceivable that quality could be subsumed within the broader category of brand associations, however it is an indicator of its importance in building consumer-based brand equity that it is regarded as a measure in its own right.

In the words of David Aaker (1991, p. 85 emphasis added):

“Perceived quality can be defined as the *customer’s perception* of the overall quality or superiority of a product or service with respect to its *intended purpose, relative to alternatives.*”

Three key points arise from this view of perceived quality, the first being that what is examined is the perception of the customer with regard to product/service quality. The central role of the customer in assessing perceived quality means that a distinction must be drawn between subjective and objective evaluations. Several authors have attempted to develop objective measures of quality, for example Garvin’s (1984) product quality dimensions, including performance, reliability, durability and fit and finish. However, such models, while potentially offering a benchmark of quality in terms of conforming to set standards, fail to take into account customer feelings and perceptions about the

intrinsic and extrinsic quality of a product or service. For example, consumer publications such as *Which?* frequently offer seemingly objective assessments of quality for a particular product or service class. However, a consumer is unlikely to base his or her quality perceptions solely on such measures and ideas from prior experience, word of mouth or marketing communications, for example, are likely to influence the overall degree of quality attributed to the product or service. This argument is supported by Zeithaml (1988), who argues that perceived quality and objective quality are not the same thing and even questions the existence of a true objective quality.

The second important feature of perceived quality is that it examines quality with reference to the intended purpose of the product or service. This point links with the above discussion concerning objective quality measures, because it is perfectly conceivable that a product or service may score highly on objective measures of quality such as conformance to industry standards or reliability but if these are not important features to the use or consumption of the product/service then they become redundant.

Thirdly, the measure of perceived quality is placed firmly in the domain of the consumer as it is the set of substitutes as defined by the customer, not that defined by the brand owner, which represents the comparison set for assessing a given brand (Zeithaml, 1988). Aaker (1991) refers to this in his definition when he says that perceived quality is measured relative to alternatives. Jones (1999a) captures this point in his assessment of successful brands, saying that for a brand to be successful it needs to be functionally efficient and superior, or perceived as superior, to competitors, on



attributes valued by the consumer. As such, brand owners need to be aware of customer perceptions of substitutes when defining the marketplace within which the brand is positioned in order to compete on important quality dimensions.

Despite the insistence that perceived quality is firmly placed in the mind of the consumer, there is comfort for brand owners in Aaker's (1991) admission that while perceived quality itself is an overall feeling that a customer has about a brand, this perception is often based on product/service characteristics such as performance or reliability. This seems to represent somewhat of a contradiction with the distinction between perceived and objective quality, however, in this case quality appears as a multi-layered construct. The concept of overall perceived quality does lie in the mind of the consumer, however customers use tangible cues to guide their perceptions of quality and it is these tangible items which are present in so-called objective quality measures. Equally, marketers can offer extrinsic quality cues to customers through pricing and promotional expenditure (Kirmani and Zeithaml, 1993) which can influence consumer perceptions.

In addition to the body of literature concerning perceived quality, much academic interest has also focussed on the issue of service quality and how this differs from product quality. In line with the characteristics of services outlined in section 3.2.3, services do not have manufacturing specifications to ensure consistent quality (intangibility), service delivery often differs from one encounter to another (heterogeneity) and the consumer plays a role in the service delivery (inseparability), thereby impacting upon the quality of service that can be offered. As a result of these

factors, consumers often find it more difficult to evaluate service quality than product quality (Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry, 1985).

Several conceptualisations of service quality have been put forward, with Lehtinen and Lehtinen (1991) proposing two models, one from an organisational perspective and one from a consumer perspective. The organisational view sees service quality as comprising three dimensions: physical quality (e.g. the service environment), interactive quality and corporate quality (how customers perceive the image of the organisation). From a consumer perspective, service quality comprises process quality (the subjective evaluation by the customer of their participation in the service encounter) and output quality (the consumer's view of the result of the service encounter). However, due to the interaction required within a service encounter, service quality may only be assessed by actual customers.

Given the complex and multifaceted nature of perceived quality, its measurement is inevitably fraught with conflicts, often centring on the subjective – objective divide. However, in addition to Garvin's (1984) objective quality dimensions, attempts have been made to develop a measure of perceived quality within the context of consumer-based brand equity.

### ***3.3.8 Measuring perceived quality***

As mentioned above, perceived quality is assessed within the product frame of reference, i.e. there is a difference between assessing the perceived quality of a Jaguar

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within the luxury car category or within the entire automobile market. Therefore, a simple measure of perceived quality may not be sensitive to innovations by competitors (Aaker, 2002), depending on the frame of reference being used. Consequently, within his measurement framework, Aaker (2002) considers perceived quality along with popularity and leadership and a measure of brand esteem (characterised as respect for a brand). Aaker (2002) contends that the inclusion of leadership (e.g. whether, in comparison to competitors, the brand is a leader in its product category) taps the dynamics of the marketplace rather than considering the brand in isolation.

As discussed above, when faced with measuring perceived quality, the distinction between objective and subjective quality evidently appears. If a particular consumer has no previous experience with a brand, he or she may find it difficult to assess objective quality, particularly for brands high in credence or experience qualities such as financial services. Therefore, if a measure of perceived quality is to be applicable to both customers and non-customers, it is important that it considers not only functional performance but also wider quality indicators.

The issue of measuring service quality (with services representing the extreme intangible end of the scale) was tackled comprehensively by Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry, (1988), who devised the measurement tool SERVQUAL. Within this conceptualisation, service quality can be measured along the dimensions of tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy. As with all measures of service quality, such a model is only appropriate in a post-purchase context and is not applicable to non-customers. Equally, a measure of service quality is more reflective of

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a single transaction rather than an overall quality perception of a brand. Therefore, despite its strength in assessing service quality, its application within a brand equity framework is strictly limited.

Within his proposed brand equity measurement tool, Aaker (1996) makes a distinction between perceived quality and perceived value, with value included in brand associations. Based on research from Young & Rubicam, Aaker (2002) justifies this distinction, claiming that perceived value relates more to the functional benefits associated with buying the brand, while perceived quality and esteem measures tap the prestige and respect of the brand. Therefore, it is crucial to assess both perceived value and quality so as to make the measure of brand equity suitable for consumers with or without prior purchase experience.

Perceived quality represents not only an important but also a complex element of brand equity, which owners need to be aware of in managing their brands. While perceived quality lies in the minds of consumers, the perceptions are garnered from cues given by both the product attributes and the marketing of the brand. Perceived quality can thus provide a reason to buy a product or service, reassure existing customers that they have made the right purchase decision as well as increase the willingness of consumers to pay a price premium for the brand whilst in turn reducing their sensitivity to price reductions by competitors (Franzen and Bouwman, 2001).

### ***3.3.9 Brand loyalty***

Brand loyalty is often cited as the holy grail of marketing, with many brands striving towards achieving a loyal customer base in the belief that this will lead to eternal success and profit. Keller (2003) places brand loyalty at the top of his brand hierarchy and while the rank ordering of brand equity components has been called into question, this emphasises the importance of brand loyalty to brand building. Aaker (1991, p.39) refers to brand loyalty as:

“a measure of the attachment that a customer has to a brand. It reflects how likely a customer will be to switch to another brand, especially when that brand makes a change, either in price or in product features.”

The key feature of brand loyalty, which distinguishes it from the other elements of brand equity is that it relates to consumer actions rather than simply knowledge, feelings or perceptions. It is commonly argued that, in order for brand loyalty to exist, a consumer must have had prior purchase and use experience with the brand, which are not necessary conditions for brand awareness or the presence of brand associations, including perceived quality (Aaker, 1991). While this seems logically true, the notion of brand loyalty is not so simple, and can be divided into what has been termed behavioural and attitudinal brand loyalty (Jacoby and Chestnut, 1978). Behavioural brand loyalty is viewed as the act of repurchasing a brand over time, with attitudinal brand loyalty being the psychological commitment to the brand which results from this repurchase behaviour.

In taking this broader view of brand loyalty, it is possible to imagine measuring loyalty both in terms of actual purchase volume and history and also by considering the attachment the consumer has to the brand, operationalised through measures such as 'I feel committed to this brand' and 'I would recommend this brand to my friends and family'. There are many reasons why a consumer may be loyal to a brand, one of which is out of preference, but others include inertia, lack of available alternatives or high switching costs (Harrison, 2000). These are negative motivations for brand loyalty and as such do not really contribute to the equity of a brand because the consumer does not necessarily hold any positive thoughts or feelings about the brand. Therefore, it is important to consider brand loyalty as more than simple repeat purchase.

In his definition of brand equity, Franzen (1999a) draws the distinction between mental and behavioural brand equity. The behavioural component refers largely to brand loyalty, again suggesting the relative importance attached to this element of brand equity. However, Franzen and Bouwman (2001) go further, explaining that behavioural brand equity covers total number of users, uptake of the brand by new users, the number of deserters of the brand, the share of category requirements satisfied by the brand and the price premium that customers are willing to pay. Again these are all relevant in the conceptualisation of brand loyalty because the loyal customer core is affected by the inflow and outflow of consumers of the brand and their purchasing behaviour within the marketplace.

The importance placed on brand loyalty within the brand equity models can be explained by its links to purchase behaviour. While the other elements of brand equity

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contribute indirectly to consumer behaviour, brand loyalty is the only element that is tied directly to sales, and thus profits (Aaker, 1991). As with the other dimensions of brand equity, there are links between brand loyalty and, for example, brand associations and perceived quality (Aaker, 1991). A consumer may continue to purchase a brand because they perceive it to be of high quality. Similarly, a consumer may be loyal to Apple, for example, because it has associations of 'cool' and 'fashionable' that they want to tap into. In fact, Aaker (1996) goes as far as to suggest that loyalty is so important that the other dimensions of brand equity could be measured based on their ability to build brand loyalty. However, this is not necessarily such a simplistic relationship and brand loyalty is not always merely a function of the other elements of brand equity (Aaker, 1991).

Brand loyalty is unique among the dimensions of brand equity in that it sits alongside the other elements but is also affected by a brand's equity itself. The potential influence that the other elements of brand equity can have upon brand loyalty has led some authors to propose brand loyalty as a way in which brand equity adds value to the brand owner (Aaker, 1991). This argument is true in terms of the interrelationships between the elements of brand equity but is not helpful in providing a clear model of brand equity because it implies that brand loyalty is both an input to and an output from brand equity. Brand loyalty is an intangible concept, which can only be assessed by a range of indirect measures, therefore it is preferable to see the profits from brand loyalty as the tangible output from the model, with brand loyalty itself as an input to the system.

### ***3.3.10 Measuring brand loyalty***

The measurement of brand loyalty is perhaps the most contentious of all the elements of brand equity, with academics debating not only the concept itself, but also the merits of various approaches to its measurement. Consistent with the distinction between behavioural and attitudinal brand loyalty, a measurement tool needs to identify that element of brand loyalty which it is trying to investigate. A frequently used brand loyalty measure is Share of Requirements (Feldwick, 1999a), which assesses the proportion of a consumer's total product category requirements that are satisfied by a particular brand. For example, such a measure would ask: 'of your last ten purchases of coffee, how many were Nescafe?' As an indicator of a consumer's attachment to a brand, at the expense of competitors, this tool has intuitive appeal, however it is primarily suited to the FMCG sector and lacks generalizability to sectors with a lower purchase frequency, e.g. cars or financial services.

Another widely used measure of brand loyalty examines future purchase intention, whereby consumers are asked about the likelihood of their purchasing a particular brand in the future. Again this approach has intuitive appeal but relies heavily on the response being an accurate representation of likely future purchasing behaviour. Survey questions examining purchase behaviour frequently result in an overestimation of purchases (Franzen, 1999a) and there is evidence to suggest that questions about future purchasing intentions elicit responses more representative of past purchasing behaviour than future plans (Franzen and Bouwman, 2001; Feldwick, 2002).

As with brand associations, simply calculating the number of individuals claiming to be loyal to a brand only tells half of the story. It is also necessary to consider the strength of the attachment to the brand (Feldwick, 1999a). Such a scenario can result from the use of simplistic measures of past purchase behaviour, for example, asking what proportion of purchases in the past month were accounted for by one brand. The findings could result in a respondent being deemed 100 per cent loyal because all two category purchases were of that brand. Similarly, a respondent who is only seen as 70 per cent loyal may in fact have bought the brand in question seven out of ten times. Using such a crude measure of brand loyalty can distort the results, therefore it is necessary to develop, as with the other elements of brand equity, a multidimensional measure of brand loyalty.

In a departure from other conceptualisations of brand loyalty, Aaker (2002) measures brand loyalty as comprising satisfaction and loyalty indicators as well as an assessment of price premium. It was suggested above that perceived quality can make consumers less sensitive to price cuts by competitors, and by including price premium as a measure of loyalty, Aaker (2002) extends this idea, suggesting that the willingness to pay a higher price is a sign of attachment to the brand. While price premium does not imply any previous purchase, it can be considered as a behavioural element of brand loyalty as it refers to an act of purchase rather than an opinion held about the brand. Equally, Aaker (1996) includes measures of the likelihood of a consumer recommending the brand to friends and family, future purchase intention and satisfaction with previous purchases.



Unlike all of the other elements of consumer-based brand equity, brand loyalty contains elements that are purely the preserve of existing customers, in terms of assessing the behavioural attachment to the brand. However, Ehrenberg and Uncles (1995, cited in Franzen, 1999a) found that consumers largely buy out of habit. Therefore it is crucial for a measure of brand equity to contain not only an examination of buyer behaviour but also attitudinal attachment because purchase behaviour alone does not define a customer as loyal to a particular brand.

Brand loyalty is undoubtedly a vital element of brand equity but this importance also results in a complex conceptualisation in an attempt to capture its many features and influences. It is vital to maintain a broad definition of brand loyalty, to include both behavioural and attitudinal components in order to facilitate its measurement within a brand equity framework. While Keller (2003) placed brand loyalty at the apex of the brand equity pyramid, Aaker (1991) does not see brand loyalty purely as the result of brand awareness, brand associations and perceived quality. All are placed as equal, and necessary, components of brand equity. Thus, his final dimension is the often neglected other proprietary brand assets, to which this discussion will now turn.

### ***3.3.11 Other proprietary brand assets***

The most commonly cited examples of other proprietary brand assets are trademarks, patents and channel relationships (Aaker, 1991). Unlike the other elements of brand equity, these assets lie with the brand owner rather than in the minds of consumers. In this sense, they can be considered drivers of consumer-based brand equity, rather than

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components of the concept. For example, having a registered trademark will protect a brand against attempts at passing off, so reducing the potential for brand clutter which harms awareness, and protecting the associations of the brand. Equally, strong channel relationships can offer a competitive advantage to brands, for example, by ensuring their presence in well known retail outlets. This will contribute to brand loyalty as the consumer has to conduct less of a search to purchase the product/service than if it were not so widely available.

As such these assets are more relevant to the concept of brand equity for products, although they have a role in services, for example having channel relationships with well-known insurance brokers will serve insurance companies well, while trademarks will protect brand names as they do for products. Nevertheless, other proprietary brand assets stand apart from the other four components of Aaker's conceptualisation of brand equity in that they reside with the brand owner and can act as a catalyst for awareness, associations and loyalty without themselves being directly perceived by the consumer.

### **3.4 Developing a Measure of Brand Equity**

The above sections have examined the measurement of individual elements of brand equity by considering the methods frequently employed in previous empirical studies. As such, these measures can be considered as stand-alone techniques, used to isolate awareness, associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty, not necessarily within a wider brand equity framework. While some mention has been made of elements included within broader brand equity measures, the above section also reviewed

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techniques used in a general marketing research context. As such, many of the measures above would be too cumbersome if combined to create a measure of brand equity.

In addition to the individual measures and in line with the growing interest in brand equity, several studies (both proprietary and academic) have attempted to create single or multidimensional, global measures of brand equity, incorporating some or all of the components cited in Aaker's (1991) theoretical framework. This section will review the models put forward before selecting an appropriate measurement tool for the current study.

#### ***3.4.1 Proprietary brand equity measurement tools***

The strongly practical nature of marketing meant that the earliest models of brand equity were developed by brand consultancies, resulting in a proliferation of proprietary measurement tools, each claiming to offer a definitive answer to the question of how valuable a brand is in terms of consumer-based equity. One of the earliest models was developed by Landor as a measure of brand strength, comprising how well a brand is known (share of mind) and how highly regarded a brand is (esteem) (Winters, 1991; Owen, 1993). Whilst offering insight into the strength of a particular brand, the use of only two measures restricts the usefulness of such an instrument as it is open to the criticism of having ignored many other, important elements of brand equity. Blackston (1995) proposes a Brand Relationship model, which takes a qualitative approach to brand equity measurement, examining in particular brand image and brand attitude.

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This view is highly brand-centric and measures brand equity from the brand rather than the consumer perspective.

Similarly, the BrandDynamics™ Pyramid model developed by Millward Brown offers a well-defined and empirically tested way of measuring brand equity (Dyson, Farr and Hollis, 1996). However, this particular model concentrates on brand loyalty as the focus of consumer equity and therefore lacks application within the wider, multidimensional conceptualisation of brand equity as proposed by Aaker (1991) and Keller (1993).

### ***3.4.2 Academic brand equity measurement tools***

In line with his conceptualisation of brand equity, Aaker (1996) developed a tool for measuring brand equity across a range of products and markets. In line with the multifaceted definition, Aaker adopts a multidimensional measurement tool, as advocated by Churchill (1979). Aaker (1996) stresses the importance of congruence between the construct of brand equity and the measurement tool and thus his approach includes measures of awareness, associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty. However, whilst being informed by this conceptualisation of brand equity, the measurement tool (Figure 3.4, below) is also influenced by such proprietary models as Young & Rubicam's Brand Asset Valuator and EquiTrend by Total Research (Aaker, 1996).

Figure 3.4 Aaker's Brand Equity Measurement Tool

Brand Equity Measurement Tool	
<b>LOYALTY</b>	<b>ASSOCIATIONS/DIFFERENTIATION</b>
<i>Price Premium</i>	<i>Perceived Value</i>
For a given quantity of product X, Brand Y is priced at \$1.50. How much more would you be willing to pay for Brand Z instead of Brand Y?	Brand is good value for money
Brand Y would need to cost ___% less than Brand Z before I would switch	There is a reason to buy brand over competitors
Price-brand trade off: Brand Y @ \$.1.50 or Brand Z at \$2.00?	<i>Personality</i>
<i>Satisfaction/Loyalty</i>	Brand has a personality
Satisfaction with recent product use	Brand is interesting
Brand met expectations	I have a clear image of typical brand user
Intention to buy on next opportunity	Brand has rich history
Would recommend the brand to others	<i>Organization</i>
Brand is only one/one of several I buy	I trust the brand
<b>PERCEIVED QUALITY</b>	I admire the organization
<i>Perceived quality (in comparison with other brands)</i>	I would be proud to do business with the organization
Brand is very high quality	<i>Differentiation</i>
Brand is consistently high quality	Brand is different from others
Brand is the best/one of the best/worst etc.	Brand is the same as others
<i>Leadership (in comparison with other brands)</i>	<b>AWARENESS</b>
Brand is growing in popularity	<i>Brand Awareness</i>
Brand is a leader in its category	Name brands in product class
Brand is respected for innovation	Have heard of brand
<i>Esteem (in comparison with other brands)</i>	Have an opinion about the brand
I hold the brand in high esteem	Am familiar with brand
I respect the brand	<b>MARKET BEHAVIOUR</b>
	<i>Market Share</i>
	Based on market usage surveys
	<i>Price and distribution indices</i>
	Relative market price
	Number of stores stocking brand
	Percentage of people with access to the brand

Source: adapted from Aaker (1996) p. 118

The measurement of particular elements of brand equity within Aaker's framework has been discussed above, therefore it is not the intention of this section to repeat earlier points. One issue raised by Aaker (2002) is that the satisfaction measures included in

his measure of brand equity are not applicable to non-customers. However, the remainder of the measures are equally applicable to those with or without prior purchase experience of the brand, making this a highly flexible and useful tool in the assessment of consumer-based brand equity.

Despite offering a comprehensive tool for measuring the various components of brand equity, Aaker (1996; 2002) claims that price premium (within the wider sphere of brand loyalty) may be the single best measure of brand equity because any brand equity driver should impact on the price premium a consumer is willing to pay.

However, despite the apparent simplicity with which price premiums can be measured by examining historical purchase data, the ability to maintain or increase market share while charging higher prices does not alone guarantee an increase in brand equity. For example, depending on the nature of the market there may be a time lag between a price increase and the resultant loss of market share (Feldwick, 1999a), which would distort any findings. Therefore, the inclusion of market share and price measures within the brand equity framework only brings limited benefit, particularly as the other measurement indices all measure consumer perceptions. Links between other elements of brand equity such as awareness and actual sales have been found to be at best tenuous (Hoek, Gendall and Theed, 1999). Therefore attempting to include sales figures and consumer attitudes within one measure may actually result in a less coherent model than if the two approaches are used separately. Nevertheless, the Aaker (1991) conceptualisation of brand equity and its resultant measurement tool (1996) represent the most comprehensive approach to consumer-based brand equity currently available



and both have received intense support in the form of subsequent validation and application studies across a wide range of contexts.

Perhaps the most comprehensive application of Aaker's (1991) view of brand equity came in the development of a consumer-based brand equity scale by Yoo and Donthu (2001). The authors developed a tool for measuring brand equity based on the conceptualisations of Aaker (1991) and Keller (1993) and validated the measure using confirmatory factor analysis. Unlike Aaker (1996), Yoo and Donthu (2001) devised a three factor measure of brand equity, combining brand awareness and brand associations into one factor, with the others representing perceived quality and brand loyalty.

Further validation of the above measure was undertaken by Washburn and Plank (2002), who also found support for a three-factor measure of brand equity. However, a reasonable fit was also found for the four-factor model (with awareness and associations treated separately), suggesting that it is appropriate to split awareness and associations into two measures if deemed necessary. A potential reason for the inability of Yoo and Donthu (2001) to separate the two was their use of the lowest levels of awareness (recognition) and associations (brand attributes). Through considering brand recall and also higher order associations such as beliefs or attitudes, a distinction between the two elements may have emerged. Nevertheless, within the Washburn and Plank (2002) study, the lowest correlations with purchase intention came from awareness and associations, leading to the suggestion that these may be "necessary, but not sufficient, conditions for consumer-based brand equity" (p. 59). Such findings add weight to

Keller's (1993) argument that the elements of brand equity are arranged in a hierarchy, with awareness and associations as lower order and perceived quality and brand loyalty as higher order dimensions.

Many similar studies have also been conducted, using either the Aaker (1991) conceptualisation as a base for measuring consumer-based brand equity (for example, Pappu, Quester and Cooksey, 2005) or evaluating a range of measures. For example, Agarwal and Rao (1996) tested ten measures of brand equity such as brand recall, purchase intention, value for money and dollar-metric measures. Similarly, studies have examined the role of price premium in determining brand equity (Bello and Holbrook, 1995). However, in this case no discernible link was found between price premium and brand equity. The authors of this study, as a result of the findings, concluded that consumers buy on price (the study was confined to the markets for popcorn, automobiles, coffee, recording tapes and cola) and thus questioned whether the concept of brand equity had evaporated. Such claims are questionable on the grounds that a single, and often criticised, measure of brand equity was used and many subsequent studies, as evidenced above, have found support for the brand equity concept.

Other authors have developed measures of brand equity that depart from the conceptualisations put forward by Aaker (1991) and Keller (1993). For example, Kapferer (2004) proposes a simplified measure of brand equity, examining aided and spontaneous brand awareness, previous consumption and the use of an evoked set, for example the top few brands named in a product class. This measure clearly benefits

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from simplicity, however it is focussed largely on awareness as a proxy for brand equity which, as the above studies have suggested, represents only the basic starting point for more comprehensive consumer-based brand equity.

A much more detailed, multi-dimensional brand equity measurement scale was proposed by Lassar, Mittal and Sharma (1995), who suggested measuring several items within the following broad categories: brand performance, social image, value, trustworthiness and attachment to the brand. Clearly, several of these components mirror elements of the Aaker (1996) brand equity measure, notably the concepts of trust and value for money. The undoubted strength of such an approach lies in its multi-faceted conceptualisation of brand equity and resultant measurement of the various items. However, the detail requires consumers to have a large degree of knowledge about a brand in order to respond to the items on the scale. This restricts the application of the scale to brand users and so limits its wider applicability across product classes where brand knowledge is likely to differ substantially. Equally, the authors claim that brand equity may only be measured in comparison with other brands in the same product category (Lassar, Mittal and Sharma, 1995). While such comparisons may produce more directly relevant results within a comparative market framework, they also limit the scope of investigation. Given the level of knowledge required, it may be impossible for a brand to effectively or accurately measure the brand equity of a competitor, therefore any potential comparison is rendered redundant.

Finally, in line with the growing body of literature examining the differences between products and services, particularly from a marketing perspective, Mackay (2001a) tested



a range of brand equity measures within a service context. Brand equity measures have traditionally been developed and tested in product, often FMCG, markets. A range of brand equity measures were tested within this study of the credit card market, including recall, familiarity, quality and purchase intention. With the exception of community regard and liking, all measures were convergent, giving credibility to claims that brand equity measures can be applied across a range of product and service categories.

A criticism that can be levelled at most measures of brand equity is that typical measures of brand strength (which are predominant in brand equity scales) are conflated with brand size (Feldwick, 1999a). Feldwick (1999a) suggests that a key issue in developing a brand equity measure is to avoid simply creating a tautology for brand size. For example, Coca-Cola will appear stronger than Pepsi on many measures simply because it is a bigger brand. Therefore, in using an established measure of brand equity, it is important to consider the relative size of brands during all comparative analyses to avoid claiming higher brand equity when in fact the only explanatory factor is brand size.

As with definitions of brand equity, there are as many measurement tools as there are people to propose them (Mackay, 2001b). However, despite the proliferation of brand equity measurement tools, several authors are now converging on the Aaker (1991) conceptualisation of brand equity and both developing and validating measures associated with it. As the most widely accepted measure of brand equity, it is the intention of this study to adopt the Aaker (1996) brand equity measurement tool and

modify it slightly in line with sponsorship evaluation literature, to apply to a sports sponsorship context.

In addition to the above theoretical framework of brand equity, there is a large body of literature concerned with the creation of brand equity, particularly through the use of marketing communications. A large quantity of the research is based on studies of advertising, as for a long time this has been the dominant marketing communications vehicle for brand promotion. However, as outlined in Chapter 2, the advertising marketplace is becoming increasingly cluttered and therefore other communications tools are being used. There is evidence that academia is now turning its focus towards a broader range of marketing communications in terms of assessing their impact on brand equity.

### **3.5 Creating Brand Equity**

The following sections will assess the literature on the role of marketing communications in creating brand equity. This will include a summary of alternative theoretical frameworks for measuring the effects of marketing communications, that could be used within a sponsorship context instead of the chosen theoretical framework of brand equity.

### ***3.5.1 Historical perspectives on marketing communications effectiveness***

As the most well-established marketing communications vehicle, advertising was, for a long time, the focus of academic interest concerning the effectiveness of communications tools. With a growing market for advertising, the need arose to consider how advertising worked and its effect on consumers. One of the earliest theoretical frameworks proposed was the hierarchy of effects, which has been modified and extended many times. An explanatory hierarchy of effects model was proposed by Lavidge and Steiner (1961), who suggested that advertising moved consumers along a continuum from awareness through knowledge, liking, preference and conviction, finally leading to purchase. Despite this model's attachment to the advertising context, it is clear that the stages of awareness, attitude (associations and perceived quality) and behaviour (loyalty) are echoed in Aaker's (1991) conceptualisation of brand equity.

However, there are a range of views concerning how to measure advertising effectiveness, not all of which support the hierarchy of effects model. There are those who believe advertising should be measured according to its ability to impact on brand recall, image change etc, while there are others who eschew the hierarchy model and claim that advertising should be measured in the context of direct impact on sales because advertising is only truly effective if it leads to consumer purchase (Barry, 1987).

An alternative to the hierarchy of effects was presented by Ehrenberg (1974) in the form of his ATR (awareness, trial, reinforcement) model. Advertising therefore works

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through generating exposure, which makes a consumer more familiar with a brand name and thus more likely to develop a preference for that brand (Aaker, Batra and Myers, 1992) and so make a trial purchase. Within this framework, Ehrenberg took the view that many purchases take place out of habit. Therefore, the role of advertising was to reinforce the brand in the mind of existing customers (Barry, 1987), rather than to impact upon potential new consumers. The defensive role of advertising is reinforced by Feldwick (1999b), who claims that advertising's primary role is to protect sales by current customers just as much as to attract new customers. Jones and Slater (2003) also support the reinforcement role of advertising, claiming that advertising reinforces what consumers already know about a brand and hence influences their brand choice.

As will be discussed below, such models have been used in more recent research studies into marketing communications effectiveness. Therefore, they represent a valid alternative to brand equity as the chosen theoretical framework within which to assess the role of sports sponsorship. However, it is this very fact of prior academic application that has led to the choice of consumer-based brand equity as the appropriate theoretical framework for the current study. Section 3.6 will examine previous studies of sponsorship effectiveness, however it is suffice to say at this point that no attempts have yet been made to extend the consumer-based brand equity model to the domain of sports sponsorship in a consumer focussed study. As evidenced above, the brand equity framework has been employed in a range of more general marketing studies, therefore firmly establishing it in the academic realm. However, as sponsorship continues its

development as a primary marketing communications tool, it is felt that the time is appropriate to consider its role within a wider brand equity framework.

### ***3.5.2 The brand building role of marketing communications***

Within the context of the various theoretical frameworks proposed for assessing marketing communications, a body of research developed examining the contribution that tools such as advertising, and later, sales promotion and sponsorship, can make to achieving brand objectives.

Keller (2003) suggests that marketing communications can help to create brand equity (viewed as brand awareness and brand image) by generating awareness, creating strong, favourable and unique associations in consumers' minds, bringing out positive feelings about a brand and building a strong consumer-brand connection. However, Keller (2003) draws a distinction between advertising and sales promotion, claiming that the former can provide a reason to buy a brand, while the latter offers an incentive to purchase.

The respective impact of advertising and sales promotions on brand equity has been heavily debated within the field of academic research, with evidence of contradictory findings between studies. A common strand of investigation has been to examine the role of advertising expenditure in determining brand equity. A study by Kirmani and Wright (1989) found that higher perceived advertising costs led to higher perceived quality ratings for a brand. However, if advertising costs were seen as excessively high,

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this had a negative impact on perceived quality. Such high expenditure implies desperation on behalf of the brand owner, who is seen to be overcompensating for quality deficiencies by throwing large sums of money into brand promotion (Kirmani, 1990).

Kirmani and Wright's (1989) findings were partially supported by Cobb-Walgren, Ruble and Donthu (1995) who found a positive correlation between high advertising expenditure and brand equity within the household cleaner and hotel markets. Kirmani (1990) suggested that perceived advertising costs may be used as a cue to perceived quality by consumers who are unfamiliar with a brand. Therefore, communications expenditure may be a greater determinant of brand equity evaluations for new rather than established brands, for which consumers have a range of other sources of brand information.

Similarly, in an experimental setting, Phelps and Thorson (1991) found that attitude towards a brand was more affected by attitude towards an advert for unfamiliar brands than for familiar ones. Consumers have fewer sources of information for unfamiliar brands and so rely more heavily on available clues such as advertising to form attitudes towards a brand. However, as with many such studies, Phelps and Thorson's (1991) research took place with a student sample in an experimental setting, which lacks generalizability as the test conditions do not mirror the real-life experience of watching adverts, with the numerous distractions and other sources of information abound.



In a departure from the domain of advertising, Palazón-Vidal and Delgado-Ballester (2005) studied the impact of sales promotions on consumer-based brand equity in line with Keller's (1993) model of brand awareness and image. The research supported the hypothesis that promotions create favourable brand associations, with non-monetary promotions creating more associations than monetary promotions. These findings add to the body of literature concerning brand equity and marketing communications, due to the sheer fact of acting as a departure from measuring advertising effects. However, by only considering brand associations, the study takes a one-dimensional view of brand equity and no attempt is made to assess the wider contribution of sales promotion, for example to awareness or brand loyalty. Equally, the investigation looked only at the short-term impact of sales promotions, so the question remains as to the longer-term impact on brand equity.

An earlier study by Mela, Gupta and Lehmann (1997) used panel data to examine the impact of advertising and sales promotion on consumer price sensitivity. It was found that advertising made consumers less price sensitive, with sales promotions having the opposite effect. Promotion was found to have a positive short term impact on sales but questions were raised as to its ability to build long-term brand equity. Therefore, within the field of sales promotion at least, there is still no definitive answer to the question of whether marketing communications can help to build consumer-based brand equity.

Perhaps the most comprehensive attempt to examine the impact of marketing communications on brand equity is that of Yoo, Donthu and Lee (2000), who, using a model based on that of Aaker (1991), examined the influence of several marketing mix

elements (price, store image, distribution intensity, advertising expenditure and price promotions) on brand equity. This study served a dual purpose of validating the conceptualisation of brand equity and also investigating the resultant impact of advertising. The study, within a US-based student population, supported the hypothesis that advertising can build brand equity.

Despite the various empirical studies outlined above, there are still many authors who question the ability of marketing communications to build brand equity. Perhaps the harshest critic is Kotler (2003, p. 420) who claims that “brands are not built by advertising but by the brand experience.” Such a view implies that consumer-based brand equity can only be created post-consumption. However, this view is not supported by the conceptualisations of either Aaker (1991) or Keller (1993), who both cite brand awareness and associations as components of brand equity. Unquestionably it is possible to be aware of a brand without having consumed it. Therefore, the statement by Kotler appears perhaps too general in relation to a broad and multi-dimensional brand equity framework.

Nevertheless, several authors are acknowledging the difficulty of using mass-communications tools in the modern media environment. With the proliferation of media vehicles, Ries and Trout (2001) talk of an overcommunicated society where advertising is not as effective as it previously was. Similarly, Joachimsthaler and Aaker (1997) acknowledge that increased media fragmentation and rising costs are inhibiting the ability of advertising to achieve communications goals. A more comprehensive view of developing brand equity (conceptualised here as brand image) is offered by

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Riezebos (2003), who views marketing communications as only one source of influence on brand equity, with consumption experience and social influences being the others.

The studies previously mentioned have focussed primarily on advertising, with some investigation of the effects of sales promotions. However, as yet no mention has been made of sponsorship as a marketing communications tool. This chapter will build upon the conceptualisation of sponsorship developed in Chapter 2 and now proceed to examine the literature to date concerning sponsorship's contribution to individual elements of brand equity before offering a critique of those studies which have applied theoretical frameworks from advertising to the sponsorship context in the quest to resolve the issue of how sponsorship works.

### **3.6 Sponsorship and Brand Equity**

In comparison to advertising, research into how sponsorship works is still in its infancy. However, there is a growing body of research concerned with examining the effects of sponsorship, frequently making use of advertising-based models to attempt to explain the function of sponsorship. This section will critically review the literature to date concerning sponsorship and brand awareness, brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty, before providing an overview of the application of general marketing theoretical frameworks to the domain of sports sponsorship.



### ***3.6.1 Sponsorship and brand awareness***

As with more general brand awareness, sponsorship awareness is more complex than it appears on the surface. Simply being aware of an event and the name of the sponsor is not sufficient; it is necessary for there to be an awareness of the product category or usage situation of the sponsoring brand (Hastings, 1984; Ukman, 2004) in order for the creation of relevant brand associations to take place. A criticism of sponsorship is that it lacks the capacity to deliver detailed product-related information. Therefore, while brand name recall may be possible, questions have been raised as to sponsorship's ability to fully impact on brand awareness in terms of creating a link between the brand name and the product category (Ukman, 2004). Within this debate, Keller (1996) draws the distinction between recognition and recall, claiming that sponsorship visibility can aid brand recognition, however more elaborate processing (i.e. linkage with the product/service category) may be required to achieve brand recall, the higher order level of awareness. Despite these reservations, much academic (see for example Sandler and Shani, 1989; Hoek, Gendall and Theed, 1999) and proprietary (Performance Research, 2003a) research has been conducted around the theme of sponsorship awareness, largely supporting the claims that sponsorship can increase brand awareness.

Eye-catching headlines abound concerning the power of sponsorship to generate brand awareness, with perhaps the greatest example being that of Cornhill's sponsorship of cricket in the 1970s and 1980s, where the brand saw a reported rise in spontaneous brand awareness from 2% to 17% over five years (Central Council of Physical Recreation, 1983). Similarly, sponsorship of the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games led to a

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5% increase in unaided awareness of Samsung's wireless telecommunications business (IOC, 2001). More recently, Chinese company Lenovo became a TOP Olympic sponsor with the aim of launching itself as a global brand (Lenovo, 2007) at the Torino 2006 and Beijing 2008 Olympic Games. While it is such stories that grab media attention, the focus of academic research has rested upon identifying how sponsorship creates awareness and the empirical testing of related hypotheses.

Anything that creates visibility for and causes consumers to notice a brand name can contribute to awareness in terms of recognition (Keller, 2003), thus sponsorship can be considered a tool for building brand awareness. Assuming, therefore, that sponsorship aids brand awareness, numerous researchers have investigated factors affecting levels of recognition and recall in a sponsorship context. Some of the most detailed work was conducted by Pham (1992), who examined the impact of involvement (the level of attention given to the sporting action taking place) on sponsorship awareness. An inverted-U relationship was found, with sponsorship awareness at its highest at moderate levels of involvement. Where a spectator has low levels of involvement, little attention is paid to the stimulus, which is often the source of the sponsorship message, e.g. players' shirts. Equally, at high levels of involvement, the spectator's attention is almost wholly centred on the sporting action, leaving little space for processing sponsorship stimuli. Clearly such findings have implications for the selection of appropriate sponsorship opportunities, while adding to the body of understanding of how sponsorship builds awareness.

In addition to sponsorship involvement, the concept of market prominence of sponsors has received extensive attention for its impact on sponsorship awareness. In experimental studies, Johar and Pham (1999) and Pham and Johar (2001) found that prominent (i.e. well-known) sponsors were more likely to be identified than those sponsors that were not as prominent in the marketplace. The implication is that sponsorship may work best in terms of awareness for familiar rather than lesser-known brands. In fact, Koschler and Merz (1995) claim that sponsorship is poor at building awareness and is rather used to push existing brand awareness, thus suggesting that, in isolation, sponsorship is not a suitable strategy for new brands.

The findings of Johar and Pham are, as with much sponsorship research, based upon experimental data, therefore it can be questioned as to whether such results would be obtained in a real market setting. By isolating sponsorship in an experiment, the interaction effects with other marketing communications, which are an integral part of most brand marketing strategies, are negated. Similarly, by isolating awareness, the assumption is made that sponsorship works best for prominent brands. However, such findings only refer to recognition and recall and no attempt is made to consider any contingent attitudinal changes which may take place through sponsorship, irrespective of market prominence of the sponsor (Lardinoit and Quester, 2001). Considering the multiple objectives pursued through sponsorship (as discussed in Chapter 2), awareness may not be a priority for all brands. In fact, for those brands with existing high awareness levels, the pursuit of mere awareness would not be a primary objective and other, higher-order objectives such as image benefits may be sought through sponsorship (Howard and Crompton, 2004). For example, Coca-Cola is one of the best



known brands in the world, therefore, while being used to constantly reinforce the brand name, its Olympic sponsorship is likely to be driven by objectives other than mere awareness.

Regardless of the conditions outlined above, numerous empirical studies of sponsorship awareness have all discovered a positive relationship between sponsorship and recall/recognition (for example, Javalgi *et al*, 1994; Quester, 1997; Bennett, 1999; Rines, 2002). However, the majority of studies have measured awareness of sponsorship (i.e. can you name the sponsor of event x?), rather than pure brand awareness. As such, the association is between the event and the brand rather than the brand and the product category. Such links have been found to be relatively persistent, with evidence that ex-sponsors can enjoy awareness as sponsors even once the sponsorship has been terminated (Quester, 1997; Mason and Cochetel, 2006).

One study that did measure brand awareness was that of Rajaretnam (1994), which compared brand awareness before and after sponsorship and also examined the difference in awareness between the use of sponsorship then advertising as the sole marketing communications vehicle. This study was unique in that the actions of the sponsoring company to engage only in sponsorship enabled the effects to be isolated from those of other marketing communications. As such, a link has been found between sponsorship and brand awareness, however caution must be exercised in assessing awareness research due to potential flaws in the measurement approaches used.

Recall is viewed as a notoriously faulty measure of the effectiveness of sponsorship because spectators are more likely to recall a sponsor based on the brand's popularity rather than whether it was seen at an event (Crompton, 2004). Therefore, market leaders may be recalled as sponsors even if they are not (Howard and Crompton, 2004), thus exaggerating the recognition/recall levels of brands with already high awareness. A proposed strategy to better measure awareness is the use of pre- and post-sponsorship measures so as to assess gains associated with sponsorship (Quester, 1997) rather than producing stand-alone figures which may appear inflated by previously high brand awareness unrelated to the sponsorship.

Despite the research, at times, fluctuating between the measurement of sponsorship and brand awareness, there is a general consensus that sponsorship can contribute to the awareness component of brand equity. However, caution is required as awareness is only a first step (Meenaghan, 2001b) to broader brand-equity objectives and in the increasingly cluttered sponsorship environment, questions have been raised about whether spectators are noticing signage as a sponsorship stimulus (Skildum-Reid, 2003) and about whether the increase in awareness is sustained in the long-term after the sponsored event (Sleight, 1989). As previously mentioned, however, the ultimate goal for any brand should not simply be visibility (Joachimsthaler and Aaker, 1997).

### ***3.6.2 Sponsorship and brand associations***

As with brand awareness, there are many practical examples of brands that have attempted to and succeeded in deriving image-related benefits from sports sponsorship,

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for example Yardley managed to shed its feminine image through sponsorship of motor sport (Meenaghan, 1983). There has been much academic focus on examining the impact of sponsorship on brand image (in this context, most studies refer to brand image, however considering the wider brand equity context, use of “image” in this section is interchangeable with “associations” unless explicitly stated), notably the work of Stipp (1998) and Stipp and Schiavone (1996) on Olympic sponsors. The media exposure associated with sponsoring a large event, such as the Olympic Games, will undoubtedly generate awareness, however the effectiveness of the sponsorship will be enhanced if spectators go beyond mere awareness and image transfer takes place (Roy and Cornwell, 2004).

The inability of sponsorship to communicate large volumes of product-related information may limit its effectiveness at creating concrete associations, however it is very useful in building abstract image associations, such as personality (Ukman, 2004). The particular case of sport is particularly attractive to sponsors, who can hope to borrow the desirable associations of dynamism, youth (Lagae, 2003) and health. Sponsors will therefore select a sport to gain proximity to that sport’s image in order to change or reinforce their brand image (Musante, Milne and McDonald, 1999). The importance of image transfer in sponsorship is echoed by Tom Shepherd, Senior Vice President, Marketing Partnerships & Sponsorship, VISA International:

“We use the Olympics across our entire marketing mix. We’re a company than markets very heavily the brand – we are able to borrow the Olympic brand’s attributes. We’re a company that is global in nature. We’re worldwide, yet we’re local – and that’s what the Olympics brings.” (IOC, 2001, p. 72)



A large body of research has built up around image transfer in sponsorship, however the broader process of image transfer can be traced back to earlier research on celebrity endorsement (McCracken, 1989; Kamins, 1990). Building on the models of image transfer, Smith (2004) developed a framework of brand image transfer through sponsorship using associative network and schema theory. An additional model of image transfer in sponsorship was earlier developed by Gwinner (1997), based on McCracken's (1989) work on celebrity endorsement. It is not the intention here to go into further detail about the process behind brand image transfer, however a factor identified as important in the transfer of associations from sponsored properties to sponsors is the perceived fit between the two.

Empirical studies examining image transfer have found perceived sponsor-event fit to be the most important driver of image transfer (Grohs and Reisinger, 2005), with high perceived fit associated with a higher level of favourable consumer response to the sponsorship (Speed and Thompson, 2000).

The concept of sponsor-event fit can itself be broken into what Cornwell (1995) terms self-evident links and strategic links. A self-evident link (thus representing a high degree of fit) would be an athletic shoe manufacturer sponsoring a running event where competitors are wearing the product, while a strategic link may be based on less obvious associations such as demographics, e.g. a luxury watch manufacturer sponsoring polo, where the audience demographic fits the sponsor's target market. It is in cases where the perceived level of fit is largest that the greatest degree of image transfer takes place.

Where a functional (self-evident) link exists between event and sponsor, less investment will be needed to establish the link in the minds of consumers (Howard and Crompton, 2004), thus aiding the process of image transfer. A distinction has also been drawn between demographic and personality fit between event and sponsor (Musante, Milne and McDonald, 1999), highlighting its importance as a point of consideration in selecting sponsorships and setting objectives. Using Keller's (1993) work on image formation, Smith (2004) identifies six types of brand associations that may be generated through sponsorship, given appropriate levels of fit:

- product attribute - where the product is used in the sport (e.g. Shell sponsoring motor sport)
- user imagery – analogous to demographic fit based on similar audience/target market profiles (e.g. Norwich Union sponsoring athletics)
- brand personality (e.g. Swatch sponsoring music festivals)
- functional benefits – where there is similarity between the benefits provided by the event and the sponsor (e.g. Flora sponsoring the London Marathon)
- experiential benefits – where the event and sponsor share a level of emotional attachment (e.g. breweries sponsoring football or rugby)
- symbolic benefits – the link is concerned with the self-concept of the audience in terms of status, exclusivity etc. (e.g. Rolex sponsoring yachting)

It is clear that sponsorship can and does impact on brand associations, through the process of image transfer. The particular associations sought will vary according to the sponsor and the particular sponsorship, for example service firms may use sponsorship

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to develop more tangible associations of reliability (Quester, 1997), while financial services providers may seek to use sponsorship to create a more approachable personality (Thwaites, 1994). As with brand awareness, studies have also investigated the impact of sponsor prominence on brand image. Lardinoit and Quester (2001), in an experimental investigation into on-site and broadcast sponsorship, found that less-prominent brands benefited more in terms of attitudinal change than did the more well-known sponsors. Similarly, the same could be said for new versus established brands. The beliefs of consumers about a brand are difficult to change, therefore it is hard for sponsorship to modify a brand image (Howard and Crompton, 2004). Conversely, in the case of a new brand, where few prior associations are held, it may be easier for the sport's image to rub off on the sponsor as existing images are not being challenged.

Despite the overwhelming support for sponsorship as a brand image building tool, Javalgi *et al* (1994) found that while some dimensions of corporate image were positively correlated with awareness of sponsorship, this was not the case for all associations. As such, the study concluded that sponsorship may enhance an already positive image, but may also exacerbate a prior negative image. In line with the view postulated elsewhere in this thesis, that sponsorship is only one part of the marketing communications mix, Fenton (2005) found little support for the hypothesis that sponsorship would enhance the perceived image of the sponsor. The study concluded that knowledge from sponsorship was only one of a number of sources used by consumers in the formation of corporate image. Therefore, while it can be seen from other studies that sponsorship can impact positively on brand image/associations, the relationship is far from simple and no direct cause-and-effect link can be supported.

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The large majority of research into the effects of sponsorship falls under the previous two categories of brand awareness and brand image, however there are some studies that have attempted to widen the net of inquiry to other elements of brand equity. The following section will summarise the findings to date concerning sponsorship's impact on perceived quality, purchase intention and brand loyalty.

### ***3.6.3 Sponsorship and perceived quality, purchase intention and brand loyalty***

Compared with the level of interest in sponsorship's contribution to overall image dimensions, very little attention has been paid to the effect of sponsorship on perceived quality. Nonetheless, many authors view quality perceptions as one element of image, therefore many general image-based studies have included a basic measure of quality within the image dimensions; for example, Javalgi *et al* (1994) included perceptions of whether the sponsor had good products/services.

As with other brand image elements, perceived quality associations can be transferred to a sponsor through the process of image transfer discussed above. For example, through sponsoring an event such as Formula 1 motor racing, the associations of performance may be transferred to the sponsoring brand (Roy and Cornwell, 1999). Empirical evidence to support this comes from a survey by Total Research which found that those companies who were sponsors of the Euro 96 football tournament in England experienced the greatest increase in perceived quality ratings (Busby, 1997). Similarly,

VISA saw a 50% increase in perceptions of the brand as the overall best payment card following its Olympic sponsorship (Payne, 2005). However, Dean's (1999) experimental findings from a study into the effects of sponsorship, brand popularity and endorsement demonstrate no impact on perceived product quality among those exposed to sponsorship stimuli. Thus, as with much sponsorship-based research, there is yet to be a consensus on the ability of sponsorship to contribute to brand-building objectives.

Given that many objectives for sponsorship are couched in terms of awareness and image benefits, it is unsurprising that much research has focused on these areas. However, sponsorship's contribution to brand preference and more widely to purchase intention has received significant interest in academic and commercial circles. Positive correlations have been found between sponsorship recall and brand preference for sponsors (Nicholls, Roslow and Dublish, 1999; Business in Sports, 2006). Such findings are in line with the image transfer models, with positive feelings towards the sport being transferred to the sponsoring brand. However, brand preference does not imply any behaviour, therefore in order to measure the likely effect of sponsorship in moving consumers towards purchase, it is necessary to measure intention to purchase, which is captured within the broader category of brand loyalty in Aaker's (1996) brand equity measurement framework (as outlined in section 3.4.2).

Purchase intention is frequently measured by asking the simple question of whether the respondent plans to purchase the product/service in a specified future time period. As such, the figures relate to self-reported intention (Gardner and Shuman, 1987), which may or may not lead to actual purchase. Many proprietary studies and investigations

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involving specific brands (e.g. Shell and motor sport sponsorship) have identified that sponsorship can have a beneficial impact upon reported intention to purchase a brand (Verity, 2002; Performance Research, 2003a; 2003b) and some support for this hypothesis has also been found in academic studies (Pope and Voges, 2000), albeit at relatively low levels (Easton and Mackie, 1998). However, in an experimental setting, Hoek *et al* (1997) found no evidence that recall of sponsors had any impact on purchase intention. Given the experimental context with a student sample, the external validity of this study can be questioned in comparison to the above investigations which took place within a real market context. It is therefore reasonable to claim that there is, as yet, no definite agreement on the ability of sponsorship to increase purchase intention scores (Poon and Prendergast, 2006).

In spite of certain organisations citing sales increases as a sponsorship objective (as discussed in Chapter 2), it may be unrealistic to expect such achievements, particularly in the short term. As outlined above in section 3.5.1 and as will be elaborated upon below in section 3.6.4, purchase represents the culmination of a product adoption process. Therefore, while sponsorship may be able to succeed in moving consumers along this process (e.g. creating awareness and then building brand associations), it is unlikely, alone, to be able to suddenly stimulate sales in the short-term (Howard and Crompton, 2004). Despite such protestations, commercial research frequently produces figures indicating sales increases as a result of sponsorship, for example Cornhill estimated sales of £15m to £20 million attributed to its sponsorship of cricket (Witcher *et al*, 1991). Similarly, as a TOP Olympic sponsor having category exclusivity within consumer payment systems for the Athens 2004 summer Games, VISA saw the number



of transactions in Greece in August 2004 rise by 55% over the previous year (VISA, 2007).

However, more general academic studies have failed to find an association between sponsorship awareness and brand purchase (Pope, 1998). While increased sales figures may be headline-grabbing in terms of promoting sponsorship as a viable business proposal, sponsorship success does not need to be based on sales. In the same way that advertising can be used as a long-term brand-building strategy, so too can sponsorship (Horn and Baker, 1999). While sponsorship rights owners may be keen to stress the sales-building potential of sponsorship, as shown in Chapter 2, sales as an objective of sponsorship tends to receive relatively low priority. The measurement of sales figures is easy, but attributing those to the sponsorship is very difficult. Given the difficulty of isolating sponsorship effects (see Chapter 2), the pursuit of sales as an objective of sponsorship is likely to remain problematic.

In terms of brand loyalty, very little academic interest has been shown in identifying the contribution of sponsorship. Given the problems of isolating the impact of sponsorship and attributing increases in sales to a particular communications tool, as discussed above, it is very difficult to find a link between sponsorship and brand loyalty. Isolated examples have supported the contention that sponsorship can create loyalty towards sponsoring brands, particularly in the case of NASCAR motor racing in the USA (Levin, Beasley and Gamble, 2004); however, studies of this nature are very much in the minority in the wider context of sponsorship research.

As can be seen from the above sections, there is relative consensus between academics and practitioners concerning the ability of sponsorship to build brand awareness. Some dissention appears when the debate turns to the contribution of sponsorship to brand associations (including perceived quality) and even more is in evidence when considering purchase intention and sales. Despite the academic rigour of some of the studies cited above, they have almost all isolated elements of brand equity (e.g. image or awareness) in the investigation of the effects of sponsorship. Therefore, in order to link the review of sponsorship literature with that from the wider marketing domain, the discussion will now examine attempts made by academics to assess how sponsorship works through the application of, primarily advertising-based, conceptual frameworks of consumer behaviour.

#### ***3.6.4 How sponsorship works***

As discussed in section 3.5.2, many evaluation and measurement tools have been developed within the framework of advertising, with few, as yet, designed specifically with sponsorship in mind. However, despite the claims presented in Chapter 2 distinguishing sponsorship from advertising, as Hastings (1984) suggests, the differences between the two are more a matter of degree than kind. Therefore, many academics have made the reasonable assumption that marketing effectiveness measures developed in an advertising context may be applicable to examining sponsorship. Recently, attempts have been made at developing models to explain sponsorship effectiveness, often presented as modified versions of broader marketing measurement tools.

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Many authors have considered sponsorship within the hierarchy of effects/AIDA framework (Hansen and Scotwin, 1995; Poon and Prendergast, 2006), explaining that sponsorship could be used to move consumers along the hierarchy by creating awareness and then building associations (image) through enhancing consumer attitudes towards the brand (Hoek, Gendall and Theed, 1999). The use of the hierarchy of effects model carries a logical appeal when considered in the light of common sponsorship objectives. Many sponsors seek awareness and image benefits, which are antecedents to purchase in the hierarchy. Therefore, as proposed in Chapter 2, it is unreasonable to expect sponsorship to contribute to short-term sales increases, however by virtue of generating awareness and image associations, it could have a long-term impact on sales (Tripodi, 2001). Whilst the hierarchy of effects has not been directly empirically tested in a sponsorship context, several studies have employed it as a conceptual framework for examining consumer response to sponsorships.

As an alternative to the AIDA framework, Hoek, Gendall and Theed (1999) used Ehrenberg's (1974) ATR model, which, as outlined above in section 3.5.1, suggests that advertising works mainly on existing rather than new consumers. If the ATR framework is applicable to sponsorship, the model implies that if existing customers are aware of a sponsorship then it should reinforce behaviour to at least maintain the brand's current position. In line with the ATR model, Hoek, Gendall and Theed (1999) found higher awareness among brand owners than non-owners for both those exposed to sponsorship and those not exposed. No discernible impact on purchase intention was found as a result of either recall of sponsors or sponsorship exposure. However,



sponsorship appeared to increase the salience of the brand, particularly among existing customers. The failure of sponsorship to impact upon purchase intention (trial in the ATR model) had also been established in an earlier study with a student sample by Hoek *et al* (1997). These studies have therefore supported the contention that sponsorship is capable of generating awareness and brand associations but not of initiating trial purchase.

In a departure from considering sponsorship in the light of advertising models, a growing body of knowledge has employed brand equity frameworks to the examination of sports sponsorship. Roy and Cornwell (2003; 2004), using Keller's (1993) conceptualisation of brand equity, examined the impact of brand equity on perceived sponsor-event fit. In line with the discussion above in section 3.6.2, sponsor-event fit is seen as an important determinant of image transfer and consequently, of sponsorship effectiveness. The empirical studies found a statistically significant link between brand equity and perceived fit, with high equity brands resulting in greater reported sponsor-event fit. Therefore, it appears that it may be easier for high-equity brands to create a link between the brand and the sponsored event, while low-equity brands may have to work harder to establish the association in order to fully exploit the sponsorship. This study places brand equity as the independent variable, considering its impact on sponsor-event fit. However, no attempt is made to reverse the relationship in order to examine if sponsorship itself contributes to consumer-based brand equity.

Brand equity has also been used to examine the effects of sponsorship from an organisational perspective. Cornwell, Roy and Steinard (2001) identified the following eight elements of brand equity, in line with Aaker's (1991) conceptualisation:

1. brand awareness
2. corporate image
3. brand image
4. differentiation from competitors
5. brand personality
6. brand loyalty
7. image of quality for brand
8. financial value

Items 1 – 3 were considered as general brand equity elements, with the others viewed as distinctive elements. The authors suggested, as is supported by the studies examined above in sections 3.6.1 and 3.6.2, that sponsorship has long been considered capable of building awareness and generating positive image associations, hence the conceptualisation of these as general brand equity elements. As such, the study hypothesised that sponsorship would be considered to have a greater impact on general, rather than on, distinctive elements of brand equity. In a study of managers' perceptions of the ability of sponsorship to contribute to the above eight elements, the hypothesis was supported, with image (corporate and brand) and awareness receiving higher mean ratings in terms of the contribution of sponsorship. Such results are unsurprising in the light of the numerous studies into the effects of sponsorship.

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Brand equity theory has also been employed to examine the differences in use of sponsorship by product and service firms (Roy and Cornwell, 1999) and in the specific context of an individual sponsor through a qualitative case study reporting managerial opinions that sponsorship contributed to awareness, associations and loyalty (Cliffe and Motion, 2005). However, a criticism of the latter study is that the findings are based purely on the views of management, with no consumer data to support the claims made. It is in the interests of sponsorship managers to claim that benefits are accruing from sponsorship, however with a lack of empirical data such evidence can be criticised as being merely anecdotal.

All of the above studies concerning sponsorship and brand equity have established a solid basis for considering consumer-based brand equity as an appropriate framework in which to consider the effects of sports sponsorship. However, so far all studies have taken a managerial perspective, with a lack of consumer data. Therefore, both Roy and Cornwell (1999) and Ashill, Davies and Joe (2001) identify the need to consider the impact of sponsorship on brand equity in a consumer context.

### **3.7 Contribution to Knowledge**

This study will examine the impact of sports sponsorship on consumer-based brand equity from a *consumer* perspective. While the above review indicates that brand equity has been used as a conceptual framework in the context of sponsorship, all previous research has adopted an organisational or managerial viewpoint, with no use made of primary data collected from consumers. The very essence of consumer-based brand

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equity implies that the value in the brand lies within the consumer attitudes towards that brand, therefore it is illogical to consider the impact of sponsorship on brand equity without adopting a consumer focus. Consequently, the contribution to knowledge of this thesis will be in examining the impact of sports sponsorship on consumer-based brand equity, as conceptualised by Aaker (1991), from the perspective of the consumer. As such, the study will complement and build upon existing knowledge concerning the effectiveness of sponsorship and so will have both academic and commercial relevance in this ever growing area of interest.

### **3.8 Hypotheses**

Within the context of the dynamic sports sponsorship marketplace and through the adoption of the conceptual framework of consumer-based brand equity, the aim of this study is to examine the impact of sports sponsorship on brand equity for a range of sponsoring brands across three sports. This chapter and Chapter 2 have offered a comprehensive critical review of the extant literature in the fields of both sponsorship and brand equity. Based upon such knowledge, the following hypotheses have been developed for this study:

- Brand Awareness

As outlined in section 3.6.1, there is widespread agreement that sponsorship can build brand awareness, particularly in terms of name awareness. However, reservations exist concerning the ability of sponsorship to develop product associations, which may hinder

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its effectiveness for relatively unknown brands. Therefore, the first hypothesis states that:

**H<sub>1</sub>:** Sports sponsorship will positively impact on brand name awareness for all brands. However, the impact on broader brand awareness through product association will be greater for more established brands rather than new brands.

- Brand Associations

Despite some debate concerning the ability of sponsorship to build tangible associations, the large body of theory concerning image transfer supports the claims that sports sponsorship can build, particularly intangible, brand associations. The Aaker (1996) measurement tool to be adopted contains primarily intangible measures of brand associations, e.g. trust, differentiation, value for money and personality. Therefore, using such a conceptualisation, sports sponsorship is likely to impact upon brand associations. Nevertheless, as claimed by Lardinoit and Quester (2001), sponsorship seems to have a greater impact on creating brand associations for lesser-known sponsors who do not have many existing associations. Finally, brand image transfer is greatly enhanced through greater sponsor-event fit, either functional or image-based. As such, it is hypothesised that:

**H<sub>2</sub>:** Sports sponsorship will have a positive impact upon brand associations. This impact will be greatest for (a) brands which demonstrate a high degree of fit with the sponsored event.

- Perceived Quality

There has so far been little empirical research into the effect of sponsorship on perceptions of brand quality. However, many studies have included quality as an element of wider brand associations. Therefore, having hypothesised that sponsorship can build brand associations, the following hypothesis is proposed:

**H<sub>3</sub>:** Sports sponsorship will have a positive impact on perceived quality ratings of sponsoring brands.

- Brand Loyalty

As the sole component of brand equity which reflects behaviour rather than mere attitudes, brand loyalty is often viewed as the hardest element to build. Previous studies of sponsorship have failed to agree on whether there is an impact on purchase intention, while there is little empirical support for hypothesising that sponsorship leads to actual sales. Using Jacoby and Chestnut's (1978) distinction between attitudinal and behavioural brand loyalty, it is hypothesised that:

**H<sub>4</sub>:** Sports sponsorship will have a positive impact upon brand loyalty. The effect will be (a) greater for attitudinal elements of brand loyalty and lesser for behavioural brand loyalty.



In line with the widely held view that brand loyalty is a higher order element of brand equity, it is hypothesised that:

**H<sub>5</sub>:** Sports sponsorship will have a lesser impact on brand loyalty than on brand associations and perceived quality.

Gaining product trial or sampling opportunities is frequently cited as a motivation for undertaking sponsorship. In line with Ehrenberg's (1974) ATR model, gaining product trial is key to building long-term sales and loyalty. Therefore, an additional hypothesis to be tested is:

**H<sub>6</sub>:** Sports sponsorship will impact more on *all* elements of brand equity for sponsors where the sponsorship allows for product trial/sampling opportunities.

### **3.9 Conclusion**

This chapter has presented a comprehensive overview of the relevant literature in the field of brand management, beginning with a discussion of the difference between products (and services) and brands before proceeding to examine the concept of brand equity. A distinction was drawn between financial and consumer-based brand equity and the model of consumer-based brand equity proposed by Aaker (1991) was outlined along with the rationale for its adoption as the conceptual framework for this study.

In light of the selection of the conceptual framework of consumer-based brand equity, the chapter reviewed the extant literature concerning the elements of brand awareness, brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty and critically assessed the methods used to measure each component. Proprietary and academic brand equity measurement tools were examined and the choice was made to adopt Aaker's (1996) brand equity measurement tool in line with the conceptual framework to be applied.

Following the selection of an appropriate conceptual framework and measurement tool, the focus of the chapter changed to consider the creation of brand equity and the role of marketing communications in brand building. Theoretical and empirical contributions to understanding were reviewed, firstly in the more general marketing communications field, dominated by advertising, and secondly in the specific case of sponsorship. A discussion of the contribution of sports sponsorship to the elements of brand equity was followed by an examination of the application of alternative theoretical frameworks to the question of sports sponsorship effectiveness.

In response both to *lacunae* identified in current understanding and to calls from academics to explore the impact of sponsorship on consumer-based brand equity from a consumer perspective, the contribution to knowledge of this thesis was outlined. With the solid basis of theory and empirical evidence from previous studies, relevant hypotheses for this study were developed as a result of the literature reviewed. In the light of the brand equity measurement tool selected and the proposed hypotheses, the following chapter will outline the methodology to be adopted in this study, considering

the philosophical assumptions underpinning the research, the research design and the data collection methods to be employed.



## **Chapter 4: Methodology**

### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter will offer a comprehensive discussion of the methodological issues faced during this research project. The previous two chapters outlined the context in which the research took place and the theoretical framework adopted by this study, before presenting the hypotheses to be investigated. The methodology adopted defines the nature and outcomes of the study, therefore a full overview of the decisions made and implications for the development of the research project are included in this chapter.

The chapter begins by outlining the philosophical position of the author, which underpins the methodological approach adopted. Within this discussion, issues of both epistemology and ontology are explored, along with a wider discussion of the deductive approach to research employed in this study. Having outlined the philosophical orientation, the chapter will proceed to examine in detail the research design, including the choice and justification of the method and data collection instrument. Issues of reliability and validity are explored in the context of the research project, with relevant implications discussed.

Having outlined the research design adopted, specific elements of its implementation will be discussed, notably issues of developing the data collection instrument and the

use of a pilot study. The final sections of this chapter explore the questions of sampling, triangulation and data analysis.

The main purpose of this chapter is to offer a complete overview of the methodology employed in this study and to outline all relevant procedures undertaken, in a transparent manner. Where compromises were necessary in light of particular pragmatic circumstances, full explanations and justifications are included. This chapter therefore presents a guide to the research methods employed in this study and consequently acts as a bridge from the theoretical framework and hypotheses postulated in Chapter 3 to the presentation of the empirical results in Chapters 5, 6 and 7.

## **4.2 Philosophical Orientation**

The philosophical underpinnings of research can be broadly considered as comprising both epistemology and ontology. Epistemology refers to the possibility of obtaining knowledge (Hughes and Sharrock, 1997), while ontology is concerned with the nature of social entities (Bryman and Bell, 2003). This thesis adopts a positivistic epistemological stance and a realist ontology.

### ***4.2.1 Epistemology***

Positivism implies that there is a subject-object dualism, whereby there exists a neutral point from which a researcher can stand back and objectively observe the world (Gill and Johnson, 2002). As such the researcher neither affects nor is affected by the subject

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of the research (Remenyi *et al*, 1998). In recent years there has been much criticism of positivism, with some authors arguing that such an approach simplifies reality (Remenyi *et al*, 1998), while others cite the narrow focus of positivistic inquiry as problematic, as it removes the complexity of real-life settings from research (Johnson and Duberley, 2000). Nonetheless, the growth in marketing research has, it has been claimed by Hughes and Sharrock (1997), led to a revival of positivism, as many techniques associated with the positivistic orientation are actually derived from marketing research, e.g. questionnaires and sampling.

The research design adopted in this thesis will be outlined below in section 4.3, however there are interrelationship between all areas of research methodology, with the epistemological stance dictating, to a certain extent, the methods of inquiry adopted. Positivism implies a commitment to the formulation and testing of hypotheses through structured methods of investigation. It is assumed that by the use of well designed data collection instruments, researchers can gain objective access to the subject under study (Hughes and Sharrock, 1997). Evidently, such a position has been criticised by exponents of alternative, phenomenological positions. As with many disciplines, marketing has a tradition of research conducted under a particular epistemological position, in this case positivism. Although some, what could be termed qualitative studies are now appearing in the marketing literature, the bulk of existing knowledge is founded upon positivist ideas of hypothesis testing and measurement. Therefore, while acknowledging the existence of alternatives, in line with previous studies, this thesis adopts a positivist epistemology.



Before moving on to discuss the specific research methodology adopted in this thesis, it is important to explain the ontological stance, which also impacts upon later research design choices.

### ***4.2.2 Ontology***

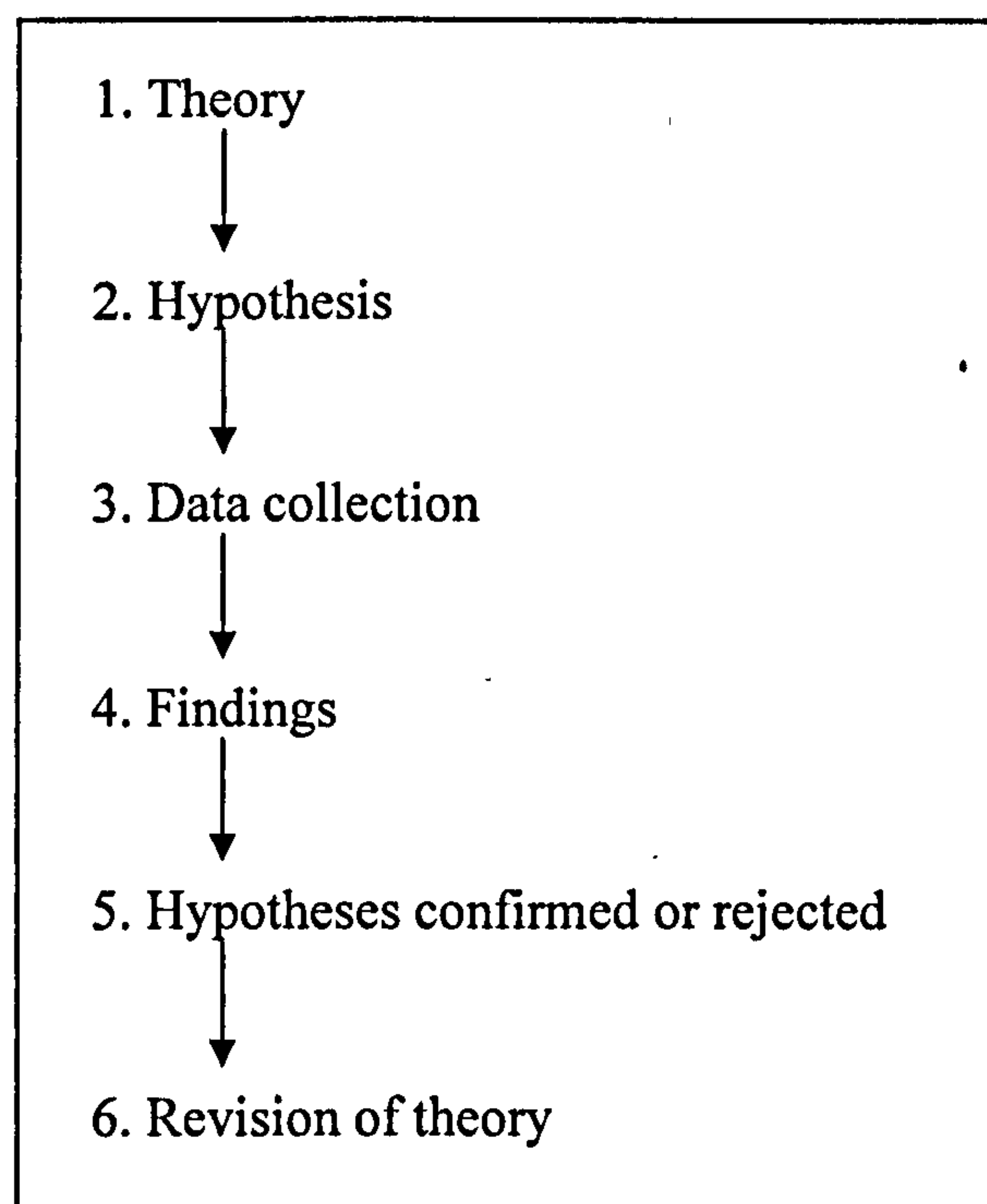
As outlined above, this thesis adopts a realist ontological position. A realist ontology assumes that there is a reality which exists independently of individuals' experiences/understanding (Johnson and Duberley, 2000). While presented separately in this discussion, epistemological and ontological decisions are in fact closely linked, with the adoption of a particular epistemology implying, to a large extent, a corresponding ontology. Consequently, both are then intimately tied to the choice of methodology. Assuming a realist position implies that reality can be accessed objectively and independently by researchers. Truth is established by the correspondence between observations and phenomena (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe, 2002), thus emphasising the requirement to develop measurable empirical indicators of concepts (Hughes and Sharrock, 1997).

The focus on empirical hypothesis testing assumed by positivism and the realist ontology implies a hypothetico-deductive approach to research. The following section will outline the basic features of deduction, which form the structure of inquiry in this thesis. This discussion will then lead into a detailed examination of the specific research design used in order to achieve the research objectives.

### 4.2.3 Deductive research

Deduction, contrasted with induction, involves the development of theoretical frameworks which are subsequently tested through empirical observation. The logical process of deductive research is outlined below in Figure 4.1.

**Figure 4.1 The process of deduction**



*Source: Bryman (2004) p. 9*

The process of deduction can be thought of as the structure behind the research presented in this thesis. Based on the theoretical discussion in Chapter 3, hypotheses were developed for empirical testing. The methodology adopted to test the hypotheses

is presented in this chapter, with findings presented in Chapters 5, 6 and 7. The thesis then proceeds to a full discussion of the results including the confirmation or rejection of the hypotheses and the implications for the state of knowledge in the fields of sponsorship and brand equity in Chapter 8, before conclusions and suggestions for future research are presented in Chapter 9.

Once a theoretical framework has been adopted, in this case, that of consumer-based brand equity, in order to test the theory empirically it is necessary to develop indicators to measure each concept (Gilbert, 1993), such as brand awareness, perceived quality etc. As outlined in section 3.4.2 in Chapter 3, this study adopts the brand equity measurement tool proposed by Aaker (1996), which offers operationalisations of the main elements of consumer-based brand equity. The translation of this measure into the data collection instrument will be discussed below in section 4.5.2.

Among the criticisms of the theory-testing deductive approach to research has been Hume's problem of induction. That is, even though a hypothesis may be seen to be accepted based on current findings, there is always the possibility that future observations may identify examples where the theory is not upheld (Gill and Johnson, 2002). As such, this thesis adopts the Popperian idea of falsificationism, which argues that while a theory may never be proven to be true, one contradictory observation is sufficient to falsify a hypothesis (Popper, 2002). Adopting a falsification approach entails the development of null hypotheses, corresponding with the hypotheses presented in Chapter 3. The null hypotheses express the notion that no significant difference exists on the variables of brand awareness, brand associations, perceived

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quality and brand loyalty between those exposed to sponsorship at the sporting events and those not exposed to the sponsorship.

Failure to reject the null hypothesis implies a falsification of the relevant theory; rejection of the null hypothesis, while not definitively proving the theory, offers support for the hypothesis proposed. Therefore, if a hypothesis is subjected to repeated scrutiny as a result of replication of investigations, consistent rejection of the null hypothesis strengthens the support for the theory. As such, this current study can be seen as one contribution to the growing body of research into sponsorship effectiveness and, as will be emphasised in Chapter 9, the author advocates the replication of this study across different sponsorship contexts to further test the theoretical propositions put forward.

Having presented the philosophical underpinnings of this thesis and outlined the deductive approach adopted, this chapter will now proceed to examine the specific research design employed in order to test the hypotheses.

### **4.3 Research Design**

In line with the research question presented in Chapter 1, the aim of this thesis is to explore whether sports sponsorship has an impact upon consumer-based brand equity. In order to achieve this aim, it was necessary to isolate those consumers who were directly exposed to sponsorship from those not present at the sporting events. As such, this study adopts a cross-sectional survey research design, comparing two groups on a set of variables (de Vaus, 1986).

### ***4.3.1 Survey methodology***

The use of an analytical survey design adopts a position between experimentation and more ethnographic methodologies, within the deductive research model outlined above in section 4.2.3. The nature of survey methodology implied in this research design can be considered as quasi-experimental, with the use of experimental (those exposed to event sponsorship) and control groups in a field-based rather than laboratory setting. The choice of survey methodology in this context attempts to overcome a prominent shortcoming of experimental research: the lack of generalizability to real-life market conditions. Nevertheless, in order to conduct research in real-life sponsorship contexts, the design inevitably sacrificed elements of control over extraneous variables, such as the impact of additional marketing communications upon consumers (Gill and Johnson, 2002). However, by administering the data collection instrument to both experimental (event-based) and control groups within the same time period, attempts were made to control for exposure to other promotional tools, such as television advertising. Equally, it was impossible to know if the two groups differed significantly on any other meaningful variables (Black, 1999) other than exposure to sponsorship, as they were naturally occurring rather than matched sample groups.

Within the field of methodological choice, there is a constant requirement for trade-off and compromise in order to balance the advantages and disadvantages of the varying approaches. While an experimental methodology maps more closely to the positivistic ideal of research, it lacks generalizability to real market contexts, thus bringing into question the value of research findings in a field where there is extensive crossover

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between academic research and commercial practice. Consequently, the cross-sectional survey methodology was deemed as the most appropriate methodology to achieve the stated research aims of the thesis.

#### ***4.3.2 Implications of theoretical framework for methodology***

In addition to the philosophical orientation of the author, the adoption of the theoretical framework of brand equity and the measurement tool proposed by Aaker (1996) had implications for the methodological choices made in this study. The Aaker (1996) brand equity measurement tool proposes a multi-dimensional measure of consumer-based brand equity and is thus essentially a quantitative measure. The use of this measurement tool therefore implied the need to implement the most appropriate data collection approach for the data required, which in this case was a survey methodology. Similarly, as discussed in section 3.4.2 in Chapter 3, the varied conceptualisations of brand equity, including that of David Aaker (1991) were tested and verified by several authors, who adopted quantitative survey methodologies (Mackay, 2001; Yoo and Donthu, 2001; Pappu, Quester and Cooksey, 2005).

Much previous sponsorship-based research has adopted an experimental methodology (for example, Lardinoit and Quester, 2001), with widespread use made of student samples (for example, Roy and Cornwell, 2004). As discussed above in section 4.3.1, experiments limit the ability to generalize to real-life market settings, representing a strong limitation to the adoption of such a methodology. However, many other studies



of sponsorship effectiveness have used quantitative survey methodologies (Javalgi *et al*, 1994; Stipp and Schiavone, 1996; Quester, 1997; Deane, Smith and Adams, 2003).

The positivist epistemology outlined above places great emphasis upon the ability to replicate studies in order to achieve reliability in measurement of concepts and to continue the contribution to knowledge through empirical testing of hypotheses. The choice of a survey methodology for this study was therefore informed by the predominance of this approach within the research domains of both brand equity and sports sponsorship. In attempting to measure consumer-based brand equity in the context of sponsorship and in line with previously validated models and measurement tools, it was deemed necessary to mirror the methodologies adopted in order to maintain consistency and facilitate comparison and future replication.

#### **4.4 Research Quality**

Two important considerations in the choice of methodology are reliability and validity. The following section will define these two terms in the research context before discussing specific reliability and validity issues faced in this study and the impact upon the chosen research design. The section will close with a discussion of one of the common criticisms of survey methodology, its inability to definitively prove causation.

#### ***4.4.1 Reliability***

Survey methodology places great emphasis upon achieving reliability through standardization of measurement (Babbie, 1998). Reliability concerns the consistency of results obtained (Gill and Johnson, 2002), that is whether the same results would be achieved by a different researcher if the study was repeated exactly. As such, the emphasis is placed upon facilitating replication by explicitly outlining the methodological steps taken in conducting the research. Several methods of measuring survey reliability have been proposed in the literature, notably test-retest reliability which involves administering the same data collection instrument to a sample on two different occasions and measuring the stability of responses (Litwin, 1995). There are, of course, limitations to this approach, most prominently the practical consideration of gaining access to the same sample on two separate occasions, in addition to the more theoretical problems of intervening activities between the administrations impacting upon results and the effect of learning from the first attempts on answers to the second administration.

Despite the use of a standardized measure, there were several specific reliability issues faced by this study, which will be discussed below. The use of test-retest reliability checks was not viable as data collection took place at one-off sporting events, making it impossible to replicate the data collection among the same samples. However, through the use of multiple events, it was possible to test the hypotheses in a range of sporting event contexts, to examine if consistency of results was achieved. The other main issue in this study concerned the reliability of the data collection instrument, referred to as

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internal reliability. Internal reliability reflects the consistency with which different measures actually measure the same issue (Litwin, 1995) and will be dealt with in section 4.6.4 below.

#### ***4.4.2 Validity***

Reliability is only one measure of quality in research and much emphasis is also placed upon validity of findings. Validity is “the extent to which measurements actually reflect the phenomena being studied” (Gratton and Jones, 2004, p. 273). Reliability is a prerequisite for validity, as it is possible for research to be reliable but not valid, while it is impossible to have valid research which is not reliable. In this research study, validity refers to whether the instruments selected to measure consumer-based brand equity actually measured brand awareness, brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty. Therefore, the measures could have been reliable if the same results had been achieved in multiple applications of the data collection instrument, however they may not necessarily have been valid if it was discovered that what they were actually measuring was some concept other than brand equity.

Within the methodological literature, validity is frequently separated into internal and external validity. Internal validity, often referred to as construct validity, is concerned with how well an instrument measures what it purports to measure (Henerson, Morris and Fitz-Gibbon, 1987). As outlined in section 3.4.2 of Chapter 3, this study adopted an existing measure of consumer-based brand equity (Aaker’s (1996) brand equity measurement tool). Section 3.4.2 also outlined the range of studies that have previously

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validated the Aaker model of brand equity; therefore this existing measure has already been tested and subjected to academic scrutiny, thus increasing its validity as a measurement tool (Babbie, 1998).

External validity refers to the ability of findings to be generalized beyond the specific research context (Bryman and Bell, 2003). This can be further subdivided into population validity (generalizability from the survey sample to a wider population) and ecological validity (generalizing to other contexts, e.g. different sporting events, different sponsors) (Gill and Johnson, 2002). Specific issues of generalizability to a wider population will be examined in section 4.7.2 below in the context of the discussion of the sampling strategy. Critics have claimed that surveys, particularly those employing questionnaires, are low in ecological validity due to the unnaturalness of completing a questionnaire (Bryman and Bell, 2003). Nonetheless, this study increased its ecological validity by removing the inquiry from the laboratory, thus ensuring that the prevailing market conditions reflected the reality of consumer decision making and sponsorship exposure.

#### ***4.4.3 Determining causation***

Linked with the concepts of reliability and validity, under the wider banner of research quality, lies the critique of what can be achieved through the use of a survey methodology. A common criticism of survey research is that, due to the lack of control over all variables as in an experimental setting, it is impossible to examine causality (Marsh, 1982; Alreck and Settle, 1995). By using a cross-sectional comparative design,

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this study examines links between exposure to sports event sponsorship and consumer-based brand equity. However, while the use of statistical tests (see section 4.9.2 below for a discussion of the data analysis techniques employed) can allow correlations to be assessed, these do not, of themselves, imply causation (de Vaus, 1986).

As mentioned previously in section 4.3.1, there are trade-offs in making methodological choices and the issue of causation represents one trade off between the natural setting of surveys and the controlled experimental environment. In searching for causation, it is necessary to control all extraneous variables, however this occurs at the expense of accurately reflecting the real-life market context. The adoption of a survey methodology restricts the ability of this study to identify causal connections between sponsorship exposure and positive brand equity; however, for the first time, the relationship between the two was tested, thus contributing to the growing body of knowledge on the effects of sponsorship.

This section has outlined the overall research design to be adopted by this study and justified the choice in light of both methodological and pragmatic considerations. The chapter will now proceed to focus more closely upon the methodological issues of data collection faced in this study, notably the choice and development of an appropriate data collection instrument, including relevant reliability and validity considerations.

## **4.5 Data Collection Instrument**

The positivistic epistemology and adherence to a deductive approach to research have wide-ranging methodological implications, notably informing the selection of an appropriate data collection instrument. The notion of quantification, implicit in positivist research, along with the cross-sectional survey methodology support the use of questionnaires as the primary data collection technique used in this thesis.

### ***4.5.1 Questionnaires as a research tool***

Questionnaires are a very widely used tool in marketing research, thus the decision to use this data collection technique was partially informed by the congruence with other marketing-based research being undertaken both in academic and commercial environments. Questionnaires are particularly useful for collecting quantitative data from large sample groups (Gratton and Jones, 2004) and can be administered by several means, including postal, face-to-face, telephone and internet. Therefore, having selected to use questionnaires, it was necessary to choose the most appropriate mode of administration to obtain the required data.

In order to examine brand equity among those exposed to sponsorship, it was necessary to collect data from spectators at sporting events. The sampling issues associated with event and respondent selection are addressed in section 4.7 below, therefore this section will concentrate on the practical considerations of collecting data in event settings and the impact upon the data collection instrument.

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The nature of collecting data from spectators at sporting events dictated the use of partially interviewer-administered and partially self-administered questionnaires. A common criticism of self-administered questionnaires is that respondents may read the whole questionnaire before answering the questions (Aldridge and Levine, 2001). In order to prevent contamination of responses to later questions by respondents reading ahead (for example, to avoid respondents answering a spontaneous sponsorship awareness question while being able to see the aided sponsor recognition answer choices for the subsequent question), it was necessary to partially administer the questionnaire through the use of event-based interviewers. However, once the initial questions had been asked, it was no longer deemed necessary for the remainder of the questionnaire to be administered as there were no questions which could be contaminated by the order in which they were answered. Therefore, the majority of the event-based questionnaire was self-administered.

A further justification of the selected approach is related to the required speed of data collection. Collecting data at a sporting event requires interrupting spectators; therefore in order to maximise response and minimise the level of disruption caused by the data collection, the administration of questionnaires was limited to times when there was no sporting action taking place. Consequently, data collection was time constrained, being limited to the time between the gates opening and play starting and the duration of breaks in play. The use of largely self-administered questionnaires allowed interviewers to approach multiple respondents in a short space of time, so maximising the number of responses obtained. While methodological considerations played an important role in the adoption of a survey methodology and the choice of questionnaires as the data

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collection instrument, when collecting data in sporting contexts, pragmatic considerations become of primary importance in determining the approach taken.

In addition to the questionnaires administered at sponsored sporting events, in order to facilitate the comparative element of the study, it was necessary to collect the same data (with the exception of sponsorship awareness) from respondents not exposed to the sponsorship. Once again, the issues associated with the selection of this sample are discussed below in section 4.7. As explained above, questionnaires are useful for collecting data from large sample groups, as required by this study. Cost effectiveness and availability of resources have a large impact upon the mode of data collection and for reasons of efficiency, postal questionnaires were used for the collection of data from comparison samples not present at the sporting events. Postal questionnaires are entirely self-administered but, as with the event-based questionnaires, there was no belief that responses would be contaminated if respondents read ahead (sponsorship awareness was not applicable to this sample, therefore the interviewer-administration requirement from the event-based samples was not applicable). Through the use of postal questionnaires it was possible to gain access to a geographically dispersed sample at relatively low cost (Oppenheim, 1992).

While the issue of brand equity is highly important to brand managers and owners, the level of salience to consumers is low. Therefore, there was little intrinsic motivation for respondents to complete the questionnaire as it was not of direct relevance to an issue of central importance in their lives. Consequently, the use of postal questionnaires was deemed appropriate as this mode allows respondents to complete the questionnaire at a

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time convenient to themselves (Newell, 1993), rather than the more intrusive interviewer-administered methods such as over the telephone or face-to-face.

Despite the cost effectiveness advantages of postal questionnaires, a significant drawback of the approach is low response, particularly where the subject matter is not of importance to the respondent (Wilson, 1996). The particular sampling strategy selected and the implications for response rates is discussed below in section 4.7.3. The primary concern with low response rates is the question of whether respondents differ from non-respondents on meaningful variables, which could introduce bias (Fowler and Mangione, 1990). As with all methodological decisions made within this study, the selection of a data collection instrument and mode of administration involved trade offs. However, given the environments in which data was being collected and the level of resources available, self-administered and postal questionnaires were selected as the most appropriate instruments to collect the data required to address the research questions.

#### ***4.5.2 Operationalisation of variables***

This study adopted the brand equity measurement tool developed by Aaker (1996) as the conceptual framework to be applied to the sponsorship context. The substantive content of this tool is discussed fully in section 3.4.2 in Chapter 3, therefore the focus of this section will be to explore the methodological issues surrounding the operationalisation of the brand equity construct into a workable data collection instrument.

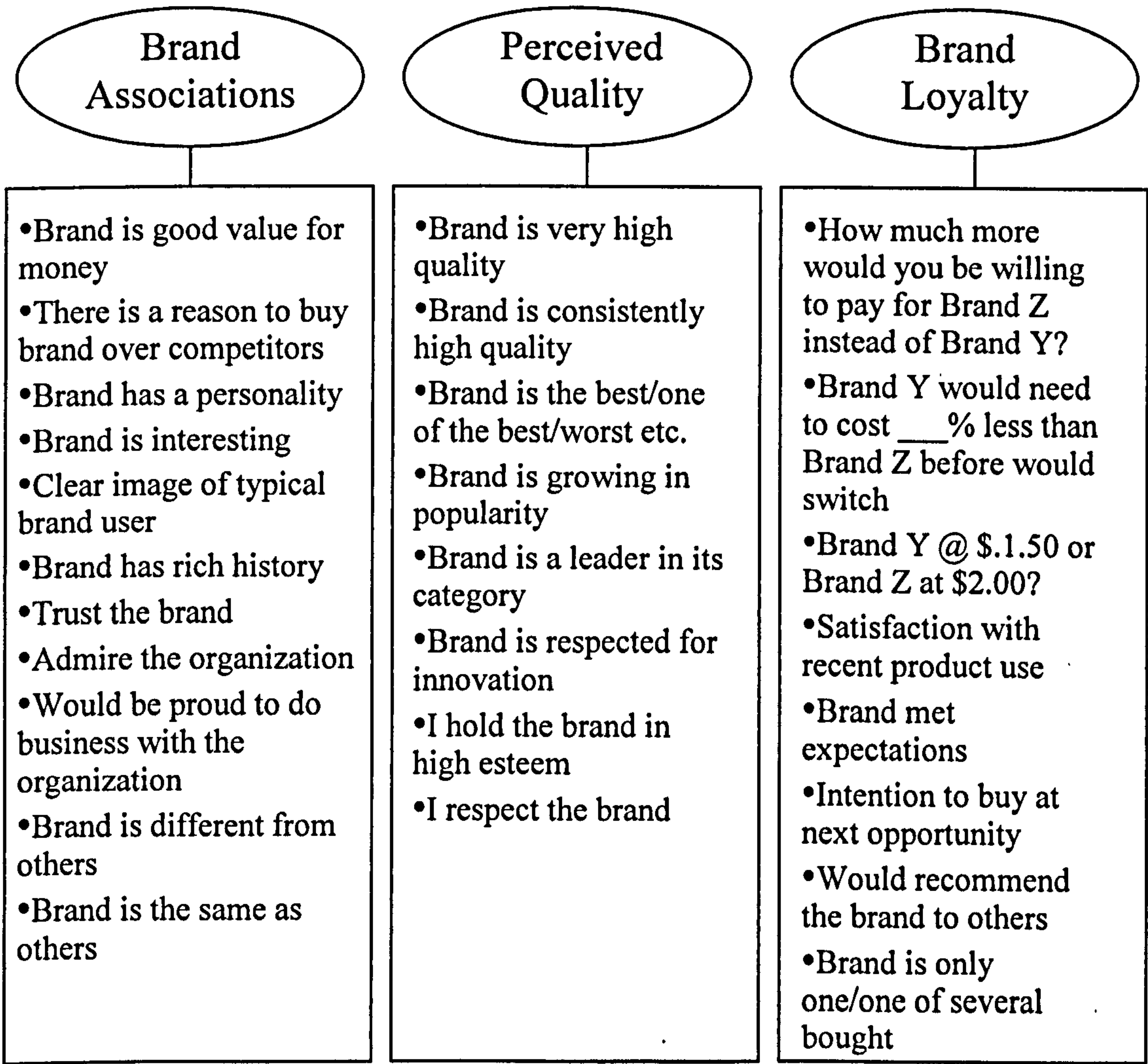


Brand awareness is viewed as respondents having heard of the brand and also having some link between the brand and the product class. Following the example of many previous studies looking at brand awareness, this variable was operationalised to include a brand recognition element (“have you heard of brand x?”) and a product class association (“what products/services do you associate with brand x?”). An indication of the possession of an opinion about the brand was also included, in line with Aaker’s (1996) brand equity measurement tool. This particular variable was measured using a five-point Likert scale, as discussed further in section 4.5.3 below. The measurement of brand awareness was conceptually unproblematic given the large volume of prior research into the topic; however the operationalisation of the other elements of brand equity is not as well documented and therefore the Aaker (1996) brand equity measurement tool was used as a basis for the development of the questionnaire.

When investigating the concepts of brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty, the variables being tapped were consumer attitudes, as opposed to the simpler, knowledge-based awareness questions. It is impossible to measure attitudes directly (Henerson, Morris and Fitz-Gibon 1987), especially within a quantitative framework, therefore it is necessary to operationalise the abstract concept into an empirically measurable property (Gill and Johnson, 2002). To some extent, this had already been conducted by Aaker (1996) within the brand equity measurement tool (see Figure 3.4, Chapter 3), however it was necessary to identify the salient elements for this study and to create appropriate questions as indicators to measure the components of consumer-based brand equity.

The use of an existing model, as explained above in section 4.4.2, aids the reliability and validity of the study as a result of prior testing and validation. The model proposes multi-item indicators for the concepts of brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty, as shown below in Figure 4.2.

**Figure 4.2 Brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty measures**



Source: adapted from Aaker (1996) p. 118

Marketing constructs are often complex and multi-faceted (Churchill, 1979), therefore the use of multiple indicators is an important contributor to instrument (internal) validity. One single indicator may misrepresent or only capture part of a complex concept (de Vaus, 1986; Bryman and Bell, 2003), thus all appropriate elements of the brand equity measurement tool were employed in this study.

The full list of indicators of the three aspects of brand equity shown above in Figure 4.2 shows 27 measures, all of which build to produce an overall brand equity measure.

However, to include all such variables in addition to brand awareness and sponsorship awareness questions would have resulted in a lengthy questionnaire. Therefore, the decision was made to lower the number of indicators used, in order to reduce the size of the questionnaire (de Vaus, 1986) and thus increase the likely response rate.

The final list of operationalisations used is outlined below in Figures 4.3, 4.4 and 4.5. In addition to the measures shown in Figure 4.2, brand personality was measured using key brand values of the brand(s) in question (see appendix 1 for a copy of the questionnaire used in the pilot study). Leuthesser, Kohli and Harich (1995) refer to the “halo effect” in measuring brand equity, whereby scores on individual attributes are affected by the overall impression of the brand. This effect may be present within any multi dimensional measure of brand equity, however as the indicators are intended to combine to measure consumer-based brand equity, if they are consistently affected by global brand attitudes, it appears that no contamination of overall findings will occur.



The conceptualisation of brand equity put forward by Aaker (1991), as discussed in Chapter 3, also contained 'other proprietary brand assets' in addition to the components discussed above. Unlike brand awareness, brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty, other proprietary brand assets, such as channel relationships, are internal to the brand owner rather than residing in the minds of consumers. In the context of this consumer-focussed study, it was deemed inappropriate to include a measure of other proprietary brand assets.

Having operationalised the brand equity concept into empirical measures, it was necessary to place them within the structure of the questionnaire. The following section examines relevant issues of questionnaire design before the chapter proceeds to outline the pilot test undertaken and subsequent revision of the data collection instrument.

#### ***4.5.3 Questionnaire design***

In line with the quantitative approach to research, the choice was made to use closed questions within the questionnaire. Use of one open question was made in order to measure top-of-mind sponsorship awareness, as spontaneous recall was required from respondents, therefore it would be inappropriate to offer prompts. However, the remainder of the instrument employed closed questions in order to facilitate statistical processing of data for analysis. The use of closed questions was also considered appropriate given the low salience of the topic to respondents. Closed questions require much less effort to answer than open questions, therefore where there is low motivation

to complete a questionnaire, the use of closed questions increases the perception of ease of completion, so encouraging respondents to participate (de Vaus, 1986).

The use of multi-item measures for brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty supported the use of Likert scaling, which enabled scores to be summed to produce an overall value for a particular concept (Alreck and Settle, 1995). Having opted to use Likert scales it was necessary to identify the appropriate number of points for the scales. Much methodological debate concerns the use of a middle category (e.g. 'neither agree nor disagree') and although offering a neutral option may result in a clustering of responses in that position, this may in itself be an interesting finding as it is indicative of the intensity of respondent attitudes (Sudman and Bradburn, 1982). The other scaling decision to be made concerned the inclusion of a 'don't know' option. In the context of this study where respondents may have had little experience of the brands in question, it was considered pertinent to offer such a response category rather than to force respondents into an option which did not reflect their actual attitude. If many respondents select a 'don't know' option, this is not to be viewed as a problem but rather as an interesting finding (Aldridge and Levine, 2001), in this case indicative of a lack of brand knowledge.

Through the use of guides to questionnaire design (for example, Oppenheim, 1992) and close attention to the brand equity measurement tool outlined above, the draft questionnaire was formulated. Despite the use of an established measure as an aid to questionnaire construction, the data collection instrument itself was new, therefore the next stage in the development process was to conduct a pilot test. The following section

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will discuss the pilot study and will then present the final list of measures used for data collection in this study. Outline results of the pilot, where relevant to the wider study, will also be presented.

## **4.6 Pilot Testing**

The pilot study was broken into an informal first stage where the data collection instrument was examined in order to identify deficiencies in style or question wording, followed by a more formal administration of the revised questionnaire in a real-life sporting event context. This section will discuss the pilot study undertaken, presenting results where appropriate, before proceeding to explain how the pilot study informed the main data collection phase of the research.

### ***4.6.1 Pilot studies***

It is important to test a newly developed questionnaire before it is used, in order to identify any problems with question wording or misunderstandings by respondents (Moser and Kalton, 1971). Therefore, the first draft was administered to a small group of colleagues who were asked to complete the questionnaire and report back on any problems including unclear questions or instructions and ambiguous terms. As a result of this pilot test, no major changes were made to the questionnaire. Despite the success of the initial pilot study, it was important to pilot the data collection instrument in the manner in which it would be employed in the main data collection phase (Babbie, 1990), which entailed conducting a small event-based study.



The pilot study took place at the engage Super League Grand Final rugby league match held at Old Trafford, Manchester in October 2006. A team of four researchers administered the questionnaire to spectators outside the stadium prior to the match. Due to restrictions caused by other research taking place around the stadium, it was not possible to gain access to spectators within the stadium and interviewers were confined to a small area outside the main spectator hospitality tent. In a period of 2 hours prior to the start of the match a sample of 50 spectators completed the questionnaire. Major difficulties were encountered in gaining participation by spectators, largely because they were en route to their seats in the stadium and did not wish to be delayed. Equally, the proximity of the researchers to the hospitality tent, which was serving alcohol, was not conducive to achieving a large and cooperative sample. Consequently, the decision was taken that during the main data collection phase, research would only be conducted where access to the stadium itself could be guaranteed and where no limitations were placed on location of researchers, in order to reach a cross-section of spectators.

#### ***4.6.2 Pilot study results***

The pilot study contained a sample of spectators at the engage Super League Grand Final rugby league match ( $n = 50$ ) and no comparison group. Therefore, the results presented here are purely descriptive and are confined to areas of particular interest to the results of the main study presented in Chapters 5, 6 and 7.

Table 4.1 below shows top-of-mind sponsorship awareness for rugby league, with engage being the most commonly cited sponsor (42%).

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**Table 4.1 Top-of-Mind Sponsorship Awareness**

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid engage	21	42.0
Tetleys	13	26.0
Earth Money	6	12.0
Powergen	4	8.0
Allsports	1	2.0
nPower	1	2.0
P&O	1	2.0
Spar	1	2.0
None	2	4.0
Total	50	100.0

In terms of aided sponsorship awareness, the most prominent sponsor mentioned was Earth Money (82%) followed by engage (74%). This is unsurprising as Earth Money was the shirt sponsor of St. Helens, one of the teams contesting the match. In terms of title sponsorship, 66% of respondents correctly identified engage as the main sponsor of the Super League.

88% of respondents were aware of the engage brand, however of those who had heard of the brand, 69% could not name any products or services associated with engage and only 4% correctly identified a particular product association (insurance). The lack of brand knowledge was also reflected in the scores on the dimensions of brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty, with responses clustering heavily in the “don’t know/not applicable” category (see appendix 2 for full results from the pilot study). However, the main purpose of the pilot study was to test the data collection instrument in event-based conditions rather than to generate meaningful data.

Therefore, the next section will outline the changes made to the questionnaire in light of the pilot study.

#### ***4.6.3 Implications of pilot study on data collection instrument***

In addition to the modifications made to the approach to data collection, the pilot test also highlighted several major deficiencies with the questionnaire which were remedied prior to the main data collection phase. The initial questionnaire was four pages long, of which one page was interviewer-administered and the remainder self-administered by the respondent. Each questionnaire therefore took around five minutes to complete. As highlighted earlier, the topic of the questionnaire has low saliency for respondents, therefore there was little intrinsic motivation to participate. If a questionnaire is considered too long, respondents are likely to rush through the questions without answering properly (Remenyi *et al*, 1998). This tendency was evident in the pilot study, with respondents not appearing to fully read the questions; in the case of Likert scale questions, there was a trend towards so-called 'straightlining' where respondents selected the same response category for all questions. This phenomena was also noted by Musante, Milne and McDonald (1999) in a study on sports sponsorship. Consequently, the questionnaire was reduced in length. As a result of the pilot study, the questionnaire layout was also modified slightly, reducing the number of Likert scale questions presented together in a block, in an attempt to reduce the straightlining tendency and to give the appearance of ease of completion.



For the main study, a reduction in length of the questionnaire was necessary not only to facilitate cooperation by respondents but also to speed the data collection process. In an event-based context, the data collection is time constrained as spectators are only willing to complete a questionnaire before the action begins and during any breaks. It is not possible to collect data after an event as spectators simply wish to leave the stadium and are therefore unwilling to complete a questionnaire. Consequently, the data collection instrument was reduced in length from four to two and a half pages, making the completion task easier for respondents and cutting the average completion time.

In order to reduce the length of the questionnaire it was necessary to remove any unnecessary questions (van Teijlingen and Hundley, 2001), by focussing on the hypotheses postulated in Chapter 3 and discarding questions which were not directly relevant. Therefore, questions of peripheral interest concerning awareness of the sponsor's competitors and the last purchase made in the product class of the sponsor were removed.

In some cases, the choice to omit a measure was logically determined by the nature of the brands in question; for example, not all brands investigated in this study were well established in the marketplace, therefore it was not deemed pertinent to include 'rich history' as a measure of brand associations. Other measures were removed for practical reasons, such as the price premium calculation questions which would require a substantial amount of thought by respondents, which they may be reluctant to undertake in the data collection setting. Finally, a pragmatic decision had to be made with regards to other elements in order to reduce the final number of measures employed. Although

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presenting a comprehensive suite of brand equity measures, Aaker (1996) acknowledges that not all measures will be suitable for all brands, therefore the tool was modified accordingly. Table 4.2 below outlines all omitted measures, with a justification in each case. However, considering the conceptualisation of brand equity used, the final range of indicators reflects the full spectrum of the Aaker (1996) brand equity measurement tool.

Informal feedback from the pilot study indicated that respondents had difficulty with the concept of brand personality where the question asked respondents to state their agreement with how far certain adjectives such as 'dynamic' and 'friendly' described the sponsoring brand. The brand personality question did not form part of the Aaker (1996) brand equity measurement tool (the tool merely inquires as to whether a brand has a personality, not the nature of that personality), therefore the decision was made to omit it from the final data collection instrument.

**Table 4.2 Omitted brand equity measures**

<b>Measure</b>	<b>Reason for omission</b>
Brand Associations: Interesting	Financial services are not inherently interesting, therefore respondents may not find this measure appropriate in the given context
Brand Associations: Rich history	Not all brands in question were well established, therefore this measure was not universally applicable
Brand Associations: Admire	For pragmatic reasons of space saving this was felt to be similar to “trust” and therefore omitted.
Brand Associations: Proud to do business with	For pragmatic reasons of space saving this was felt to be similar to “trust” and therefore omitted.
Brand Associations: Same as competitors	This measure was covered under the “different from competitors” measure included.
Perceived Quality: Consistently high quality	Consistency of quality is hard to evaluate for financial services as the outcome of financial performance may not be known for a long time, e.g. when a policy matures
Perceived Quality: Esteem	This measure was felt to be similar to “respect” so was omitted for space saving reasons.
Brand Loyalty: Price Premium	Several questions involving calculations were omitted due to complexity and time required. This concept was addressed via one question measuring willingness to pay a higher price.
Brand Loyalty: Met expectations	Some respondents were not customers of the brands, plus it can be difficult to assess whether expectations have been met, particularly with long-term financial products such as life insurance policies.
Brand Loyalty: Brand is only one/one of several I buy	This measure is more suited to the FMCG sector where purchase frequency is higher.

The list of variables used in the final questionnaire along with justification for the inclusion of each measure is given in Tables 4.3 to 4.5.



**Table 4.3 Final brand associations measures**

<b>Measure</b>	<b>Justification for inclusion</b>
I trust the brand	Trust is a very valuable association for financial services brands given the responsibility placed upon them to look after consumers' funds. Therefore, it can be a means of differentiation from competitors. Equally, trust has been used as a measure in several previous studies (Lassar, Mittal and Sharma, 1995; Pappu, Quester and Cooksey, 2005).
Brand is different from others	Differentiation is particularly important in financial services, where product offerings are often similar across a range of providers. If a brand is not different in some way, it will have difficulty obtaining a price premium (Aaker, 1996). Therefore, this variable measures the extent to which the brand stands out from its competitors.
There is a reason to buy brand over competitors	This variable measures the value provided by a brand, as if a brand is not providing value then it will be vulnerable to competitors.
Brand has a distinctive personality	Specific brand personality measures were omitted in favour of this generic measure which is applicable across all brands. As an intangible association, brand personality may be a valuable source of differentiation for financial services brands.
Brand is good value for money	This measure is concerned with functional benefits of a brand and thus is particularly important in the price-driven environment of financial services.
Clear image of typical brand user	User imagery is often a driver of brand personality (Aaker, 1996), which, as outlined above, can be a useful point of differentiation in the homogenous financial services market, thus this variable is measuring the self-expressive benefits of a brand.

**Table 4.4 Final perceived quality measures**

<b>Measure</b>	<b>Justification for inclusion</b>
Brand is high quality	Perception of quality was found to be correlated with price premium, price elasticities and brand usage according to findings from Total Research (Aaker, 1996), therefore this variable provides a surrogate measure for more specific elements. Equally, it has been used previously as a measure of brand equity (Washburn and Plank, 2002).
I respect the brand	This variable was included as it was felt to be particularly pertinent to financial services brands which trade largely on reputation because of the difficulties of assessing objective product quality.
Brand is a leader in its category	Aaker (1996) suggests that the dimension of leadership taps the dimensions of the marketplace, measuring what Aaker (1996, p. 110) terms “the no. 1 syndrome” that is, whether consumers see the brand as a leader in its field.
Brand is growing in popularity	This is measuring customer acceptance of a brand (Aaker, 1996), i.e. whether consumers are getting behind the brand.
Brand is innovative	Innovation is a dimension of leadership (Aaker, 1996) and is felt to be an important attribute in financial services where product offerings are often relatively homogenous.
Brand is the best/one of the best/worst etc.	When evaluating brands for entry into their consideration set, consumers make comparisons with competing brands. Therefore, this variable measures the relative position of the brand in its market.

**Table 4.5 Final brand loyalty measures**

<b>Measure</b>	<b>Justification for inclusion</b>
I feel loyal to the brand	Even non-customers can express attitudinal loyalty, therefore this is an overview indicator of brand loyalty.
Satisfaction with recent product use	Although this measure is only applicable to customers, it gives an indication of the likelihood of them remaining a customer and thus purchasing further products/ services in the future.
Would recommend the brand to others	Aaker (1996) claims this is an intense measure of loyalty and respondents are putting their reputation on the line by recommending a product to friends or family. It is thus a measure of the intensity of positive affect towards the brand.
Intention to buy at next opportunity	This measure identifies likely future sales even from non-customers and was found to be convergent with other brand equity measures by Agarwal and Rao (1996).
Willing to pay higher price for brand	Aaker (1996) claims that price premium may be the best single measure of brand equity as any driver of brand equity should impact upon the price premium.
Will consider brand for next purchase	In a market such as financial services which is dominated by price, getting into a consumer's consideration set is vital. Therefore, this variable measures the success of a brand in this regard.

In terms of awareness, both brand and sponsorship, a range of measures was used from top-of-mind awareness to lower-order recognition. Top-of-mind awareness is more useful for established brands which tend to have very high awareness levels, while recognition is more suitable for newer brands which are trying to build awareness.



Therefore, by including a range of indicators it was possible to track objectives appropriate to the range of brands under investigation. A measure of product associations was also included as it is not sufficient to know a brand name, it is also necessary to link the brand name with the correct product category in order for purchase or even consideration to take place. Finally, as an indicator of whether the respondent has some thoughts or feelings towards the brand, a measure of brand opinion was included.

Appendix 1 shows the questionnaire used in the pilot study, while the questionnaires used in the main phase of the data collection (event-based and comparison samples) are presented in appendices 3 - 9. It was not deemed appropriate to test the postal comparison sample questionnaire any further than was conducted in the early informal pilot. The majority of the questions concerning brand equity were the same for the event-based and comparison questionnaires, therefore the instrument had already been tested for ambiguity and wording.

Following the modifications outlined above, the questionnaire was revised and produced for the main data collection phase. As discussed above in section 4.5.2, the questionnaire represents a multi-item measure of brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty. The use of multi-item indexes raises the question of reliability, particularly the issue of internal consistency. The following section will explore the issues of internal reliability for the data collection instrument used in this study.

#### ***4.6.4 Reliability of brand equity indicators in questionnaire***

Correlating individual items of a multi-item scale has been recommended as a strategy for assessing internal consistency (Peter, 1981), that is, whether the different indicators to be combined into one overall measure are consistent with each other. As outlined both above and in Chapter 3, Aaker's (1991) conceptualisation of brand equity has been tested and validated across a range of product and service categories. Nevertheless, it was important to assess the reliability of the particular instrument developed for this study. The most frequently used measure of internal reliability is Cronbach's alpha, which measures correlations between items in a scale (Litwin, 1995). Authors differ in their assessment of appropriate values for Cronbach's alpha, with Van der Velde, Jansen and Anderson (2004) claiming that a correlation of 0.6 is sufficient for a scale to be considered internally reliable, while Bryman and Bell (2003) cite a figure of 0.8 and Henerson, Morris and Fitz-Gibon (1987) claim reliability figures exceeding 0.7 are acceptable. Considering the lack of consensus, this study adopted the mid point of the above figures, 0.7, as an acceptable level of internal reliability.

Cronbach's alpha was calculated for the scales employed in this study for each of the three sporting event cases and their respective comparison samples. The results are presented below in Table 4.2. Each scale score exceeded 0.7, therefore the scales were considered to be reliable measures of brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty respectively.

**Table 4.6 Brand Equity Scale Internal Reliability Scores**

	<b>Cronbach's alpha<sup>1</sup></b>
<b>Brand Associations</b>	
Bowls	.957
Athletics	.770
Cricket	.765
<b>Perceived Quality</b>	
Bowls	.970
Athletics	.844
Cricket	.877
<b>Brand Loyalty</b>	
Bowls	.861
Athletics	.790
Cricket	.869

Having outlined the development of the data collection instrument, including the use of a pilot study, this chapter will now proceed to explore the issues concerned with sampling in the study. Sampling refers not only to the selection of individual respondents but also to the choice of sponsored events at which to collect data, therefore both of these issues will be explored along with a justification for the approaches taken.

## **4.7 Sampling**

Sampling is the generic term used to describe the process of selecting individual units of a wider population. Research conducted within the positivist paradigm tends to emphasise the use of large samples (Remenyi *et al*, 1998) with the aim of conducting statistical analysis of data in order to draw conclusions. The population refers to the entire range of units of analysis which is of interest and from which a sample will be

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<sup>1</sup> Cronbach's alpha for combined event-based and respective comparison samples



drawn (Bryman, 2004). Therefore, before any sampling decisions take place it is necessary to define the target population of interest for the study. There were two sampling situations within this study: the selection of a sample of respondents at sporting events and an appropriate comparison sample not present at the event, and the selection of events at which to conduct the research. The following sections will address these two decisions.

#### ***4.7.1 Respondent sampling***

Before a sample of respondents is chosen, it is necessary to define the population from which the sample will be drawn. This study involved administering a questionnaire to groups of spectators at sporting events and also to individuals not exposed to the event-based sponsorship. The population for the event-based data collection episodes was, therefore, all spectators at the events. Given the nature of the sponsors (see section 4.7.4 below), it was decided to collect data only from respondents over the age of 18. Therefore, more precisely, the population for each event was the totality of spectators present at the event and aged over 18.

The population for the comparison samples was not so clearly defined, as the purpose of these sample groups was to compare brand equity among respondents not directly exposed to event-based sponsorship with brand equity among event-based spectators. Therefore, the population for the comparison samples was the entire UK population over the age of 18 who did not attend any of the selected sporting events. Given constraints of both time and money, it was impossible to administer the questionnaire to

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all spectators at the events and to the entire UK population over 18, therefore it was necessary to select samples of respondents to reflect the wider populations from which they were drawn. There are two main approaches to sampling: probability and non-probability; these two sampling strategies will be discussed briefly and the sampling approach taken in this study will be explained and justified.

#### ***4.7.2 Random sampling***

Random or probability sampling is often the preferred method in conducting, particularly quantitative, research (Gill and Johnson, 2002). With random sampling, each unit of the population has a known probability of selection (Bryman, 2004). However, the use of random sampling requires that there is a sampling frame, that is, a list of all units in the population from which the sample can be drawn. In the case of the wider UK population, there is no definitive list of the national population, although the electoral register or telephone directories are often used as a proxy. Both of these sampling frames can only be considered approximate indicators of the entire population as not all individuals are listed, for example certain households have ex-directory telephone numbers or do not have a fixed-line telephone, thus ruling them out of the sampling frame. The population for the event-based samples was defined as all spectators at the events over the age of 18. Even when admission to events is by pre-ordered tickets only, there is no definitive sampling frame for this population as a ticket holder may choose not to attend or may give the ticket to someone else.

One of the main reasons cited for the use of random samples is the need to obtain a representative sample so as to be able to generalize from results obtained in the sample to the wider population (Bryman, 2004). Surveys conducted within the positivist tradition tend to place great emphasis on the generalizability of results (Gill and Johnson, 2002), in order to achieve high external validity. Despite the inherent appeal of random samples to achieve goals of generalizability, there are large costs involved in the use of such strategies. Section 4.5.1 discussed one of the criticisms of questionnaires as being the low response rates usually achieved. Therefore, in order to achieve a sample of sufficient size it is necessary to send out a large volume of questionnaires. While sampling error is controlled with the use of random samples, not all error can be attributed to the issue of sample selection (Fowler and Mangione, 1990). Even if a sample is randomly selected, if not all respondents return a completed questionnaire then the final sample actually consists of volunteers (Black, 1993) and evidence suggests that non-respondents often differ from respondents on key variables (Alreck and Settle, 1995).

Random sampling offers considerable advantages in terms of providing representative samples from which the results obtained can be generalized to the wider population. However, in order to achieve the desired level of precision and coverage from random sampling, there is often the need to expend enormous resources in terms of time and money. The alternative to this approach is to use non-random sampling.



### ***4.7.3 Non-random sampling***

There are several methods of non-random sampling, the most common of which are quota sampling and convenience sampling. Quota sampling, frequently used in market research, involves selecting a sample based on specific criteria, such as age, gender or social class, in proportions equal to those represented in the population. However, interviewers select individual respondents, rather than having a pre-defined list as with random sampling techniques (Fowler and Mangione, 1990). The non-random nature of quota sampling means that it is not possible to estimate sampling error, however its strength lies in the speed with which data can be collected and its usefulness in situations where no sampling frame exists (Moser and Kalton, 1971).

The other frequently used non-random sampling technique is convenience sampling, which involves selecting respondents who are easily available (Fink, 1995a). In contrast with random sampling, a commonly cited drawback of convenience sampling is that it is often difficult to identify what population the sample is representative of, therefore limiting the certainty with which results can be generalized. Despite this limitation, convenience sampling is widely used in business research (Bryman and Bell, 2003). Convenience samples frequently obtain a high response rate, which can act as a tool to improve representativeness if controls have been put in place to ensure that the sample contains a cross-section of individuals on the variables of interest.

The samples selected at the sporting events were effectively convenience samples as no exact quotas were given to interviewers, who were simply instructed to administer the

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questionnaire to a range of spectators, both male and female and of the relevant spread of age groups represented at the event. Therefore, while the selection was not random, attempts were made to achieve a sample that was, at face-value, representative of the wider spectator population. In the absence of a pre-existing sampling frame and detailed knowledge of the demographic profile of spectators, convenience sampling was the only available sampling strategy under the circumstances in which the data collection took place.

The strategy employed for the comparison sample groups can also be considered to be convenience sampling; however a systematic random sampling pattern was applied to the convenience sampling frame obtained. For two sponsored events (bowls and athletics), the comparison sample was obtained by taking a systematic random sample from a membership list of an organisation of which the author is a member. The organisation has no connection with any of the sporting events or sponsoring brands under study and contains both male and female members ranging from 18 to over 65 in age and coming from a wide variety of social backgrounds. Therefore, while not a simple random sample from the wider UK population, the sampling frame contained a cross section of individuals on key demographic variables.

As frequently mentioned, the saliency of the topic was very low, particularly for respondents in the comparison group. Therefore, using a simple random sample would have yielded a very low response rate and thus demanded resources beyond those available for the project. Through the connection between the author and the respondents, it was possible to gain a strong response rate from the convenience sample.

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Even in the case of random samples, a low response rate can jeopardise the representativeness of a sample (Punch, 2003), therefore non-random samples can be considered as equivalent to samples which obtain a very low response rate (Fowler, 2002). Consequently, the choice to use a convenience sample was made primarily for pragmatic reasons of access to a sampling frame and increased response rate.

A second convenience sample was required for the third event (cricket) as access to the organisation membership list mentioned above was subsequently withdrawn. Given the short time frame in which an alternative sample had to be found, again convenience sampling was used. Questionnaires were sent to members of two churches, a voluntary organisation and a workplace with which the author had connections. In addition to this, snowball sampling was used with some respondents identifying additional individuals who were willing to take part in the study. Once again, attempts were made to select a broad range of respondents in terms of gender and age. As with the above convenience sample, a high response rate was achieved (see Chapters 5, 6 and 7 for response rates for individual samples).

A required sample size of at least 100 was set for all event-based and comparison samples. The use of non-random sampling does not allow for the calculation of necessary sample sizes, as is possible through random sampling, therefore the sample size of over 100 was an arbitrary figure. Small sample sizes increase the risk of committing a Type II error, that is, failing to reject the null hypothesis when in fact it is false (Black, 1999). Therefore, it was necessary to ensure a sufficient sample size to



carry out valid hypothesis tests and also in order to ensure sufficient cell size in the use of cross-tabulations.

Evidently, the reliability of empirical findings will increase with sample size, however the sample sizes of over 100 used in this study were sufficient to carry out the statistical analysis required. The use of parametric t-tests assumes normality of distribution in the population and one of the limitations of the normal distribution is that it only holds for large samples. However, in this case, large samples are defined as those over 30 (Curwin and Slater, 2002). Similarly, other studies using so-called “small samples” have referred to sample sizes of 25 (Delgado and Stute, 2008) and less than 14 (Taillard, Waelti and Zuber, 2008), while Gorard (2003) claims that after around 80 cases, any addition to the sample size has relatively little impact upon accuracy. Thus it can be concluded that the empirical investigation presented in this thesis does not constitute small sample research.

Equally, this study, as described fully below, made use of both parametric and equivalent non-parametric tests, such as the Mann-Whitney U test, advocated by Balnaves and Caputi (2001) for use with small samples. Therefore, the suite of tests applied attempts to overcome any constraint imposed by the sample size and to bolster the robustness of the overall analysis. Where the sample size is limited, for example as a result of low levels of brand awareness, this is acknowledged and results are interpreted with caution. The sample sizes obtained in this study were largely constrained by the resources available, however, as discussed in Chapter 9, an area for future research would be to replicate this study with larger samples.

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The postal questionnaires were anonymous, with no attempt made to trace responses to an individual (see appendix 10 for a copy of the letter sent to comparison sample members). The guarantee of anonymity was made in an attempt to increase the response rate, particularly in light of the connection between the researcher and the respondents. Given the sensitive nature of questions concerning financial services, it was deemed appropriate to maintain anonymity of responses. However, such a guarantee precluded attempts to increase the response rate through chasing up non-respondents. It was also, therefore, impossible to identify any differences between respondents and non-respondents. However, given the resource constraints and the likelihood of an increased response rate through offering anonymity, it was felt that the benefits of such an approach outweighed any possible limitations in terms of a lack of information concerning the differences between respondents and non-respondents.

The use of random sampling is strongly advocated in most methodology texts, however the selection of samples in this study required methodological criteria to be balanced against pragmatic considerations of access, likely response rates and finite resources. Therefore, use was made of convenience samples, although attempts were made to ensure a spread of respondents on the variables of age and gender in both the event-based and comparison samples. The nature of conducting sponsorship research, particularly in event-based studies, is not conducive to the use of random sampling techniques and while this places constraints upon generalizability and the calculation of sampling error, the strategy employed was the only logical option in order to collect relevant data. Having considered the selection of individual respondent samples, the next section will examine the selection of sponsored events used in this study.

#### ***4.7.4 Event selection***

The discussion in Chapter 2 indicated that the use of sponsorship is growing rapidly and is expanding into new areas, such as venue naming rights and broadcast sponsorship. Therefore, it was necessary to narrow the focus of this investigation to a particular type of sponsorship. The choice of event sponsorship was made on pragmatic grounds of ease of gaining access to spectators at events as the duration of the sponsorship can be identified and spectators are a captive audience for the sponsorship stimuli whilst present at the event.

Selection of events was an iterative process, which involved approaching a range of event organisers and sponsors requesting access to collect data at the sporting events. Further to the experience with the rugby league pilot study, the decision was made to select events where access could be gained to spectators within the sporting arena and to avoid events typically associated with large volume consumption of alcohol. Letters or e-mails were sent to several sponsors of forthcoming UK sporting events outlining the proposed research and requesting permission to collect data at the events (appendix 11).

The first event selected was the World Indoor Bowls Championships to be held at Potters Leisure Resort in Norfolk in January 2007. Within this wider event, there was also a sub event, the engage Ladies World Matchplay bowls. Access to the event was gained through the sponsor of the Ladies World Matchplay, engage, who were also the sponsor of the rugby league event used in the pilot. As a result of gaining access to the bowls event through engage, it was also possible to conduct research around the wider

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World Indoor Bowls Championships, sponsored by Potters Holidays. More detailed descriptions of events and sponsors are included in the relevant results chapters.

Subsequent events were selected based on positive responses from sponsors and/or sporting governing bodies with regards to the proposed data collection. Following the bowls event, a decision was made to target sponsors operating within the same product category as engage, that is, financial services. Consequently access was gained to two UK athletics events sponsored by Norwich Union and to cricket matches sponsored by Natwest. The study managed to gain access to a sufficient number of sporting events sponsored by financial services providers, however any further selection of events by type was not possible due to the problems of gaining agreement from sponsors and organisers to administer the questionnaires on-site. Several events targeted had already commissioned sponsorship research, therefore it was not possible to gain access due to fears of interference with existing research. Similarly, no response was gained from many sponsors, thus the sample of events used was entirely dependent upon gaining the cooperation of all stakeholders.

#### **4.8 Triangulation**

Triangulation refers to the adoption of multiple approaches to collecting data in order to enhance the reliability and validity of findings (Burns, 2000). The traditional view of triangulation is the combining of multiple methods of data collection (Mason, 2002), for example using interviews and questionnaires. Many studies make use of multiple methods in order to explore different elements or hypotheses. For example, Quester

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(1997) used interviews with sponsors along with consumer surveys when assessing sponsorship awareness of the Formula One Grand Prix in Adelaide. While acting to ensure construct validity by essentially using different sources to provide multiple measures of a particular phenomenon (Yin, 1994), methodological triangulation also requires substantially more resources than if only one method is employed. Therefore, due to the resource constraints of time and money under which this study was carried out, methodological triangulation was not feasible. However, as outlined in Chapter 9, the extension of this study using other methodologies is proposed as an area for future research.

As an alternative to methodological triangulation, the findings of this study were verified by the use of data triangulation, that is, collecting data in a range of settings or sites (Gray, 2004), e.g. sporting events. This approach thus allows the researcher to identify areas of commonality between the different settings while also exploring the concept under question in its particular contexts (Denzin, 1970). As such, the collection of data in different sponsorship settings reinforced the reliability and validity of the study, whilst allowing an investigation into any contextual factors influencing the ability of sponsorship to contribute to brand building objectives.

The final section of this chapter will now explore the data analysis procedures used, leading on to the next three chapters, where the results of this study are presented.

## **4.9 Data Analysis**

In line with the positivistic epistemological stance adopted and the deductive approach to research, this study collected quantitative data in order to test the hypotheses outlined in Chapter 3. Data was entered into SPSS 13.0, which was used to perform all statistical tests and produce all results output included within this thesis. This section will outline the data preparation and analysis stages of the research project.

### ***4.9.1 Data preparation***

Section 4.5.3 outlined the use of Likert scale questions to tap the individual attributes to make up global values of brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty. Each of these three elements of brand equity comprised six measures, as presented in Tables 4.3 to 4.5. In order to combine the individual components into brand equity scales, it was necessary to assign numerical values to each response category from “totally agree” to “totally disagree” along with “don’t know/not applicable.” The assignment of numerical values which were computed to form larger variables makes the assumption that the individual variables are measured at the interval level. However, questions have been raised as to whether Likert scaled attitude questions truly generate interval data, where the intervals between values are deemed to be constant, i.e. the difference between a score of 1 and 2 is the same as that between 3 and 4 (Calder, 1996). It is conceptually difficult to be certain that the difference between, for example, “totally agree” and “agree” is the same as the difference between “neither agree nor disagree”

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and “disagree.” However, if data are considered to be measured at the ordinal, rather than the interval level, limitations are placed upon the statistical analysis tools that can be employed. It is for such pragmatic reasons that this study, along with much previous research using attitude scales, considered the data obtained through Likert attitude scales to be interval data.

Prior to data analysis, it was necessary to assign numerical values to the categories included in the Likert scales. The responses were measured on a five point scale with a sixth option of “don’t know/not applicable.” The two values indicating degrees of disagreement represented a negative opinion of the brand, while positive attitudes were captured by values at the opposite end of the scale.

A decision was made regarding the relative ordering of “neither agree nor disagree” and “don’t know/not applicable” according to the relative level of brand knowledge associated with each value. By stating “don’t know” a respondent is indicating a lack of knowledge about the particular element of brand equity. In contrast, in selecting the neutral statement of “neither agree nor disagree” the response implies some degree of knowledge about the particular element. Therefore, the distinction is made between presence/absence of a brand attitude and the strength of any attitude held.

Consequently, the score assigned to “don’t know” is lower than that for “neither agree nor disagree.” The scores for each of the six components were summed to produce overall scores for brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty respectively. The values were numerically coded as follows:

“Totally Agree” = 3

“Agree” = 2

“Neither Agree nor Disagree” = 1

Don’t Know/Not Applicable” = 0

“Disagree” = -1

“Totally Disagree” = -2

When combining scores into an overall indicator, it is necessary to consider cases where some data is missing (Fink, 1995b; Babbie, 1998); for example, a small minority of respondents failed to answer some questions on the questionnaire. Using SPSS, missing cases were excluded on an analysis by analysis basis, whereby each statistical test used all cases with valid responses on all components. Therefore, the actual sample sizes for the overall brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty measures differed according to the number of missing responses. Where results for such variables are presented in later chapters, the relevant sample size is indicated. A range of statistical tests was used in order to analyse the data, therefore the following section will outline the data analysis techniques employed.

#### ***4.9.2 Data analysis techniques***

The mean scores for brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty were compared between the two sample groups (event-based and comparison) for each brand through the use of independent samples t-tests. The use of parametric t-tests makes assumptions that data are measured at the interval level, from a normally distributed

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population, the two groups possess equality of variance and that the two scores are independent (Field, 2005). The two samples are independent, with one group exposed to sponsorship at a sporting event while the comparison group were not present at the particular event. However, only sample data was available, thus it was impossible to know whether the population was normally distributed on the meaningful variables. The use of parametric tests is also often associated with data collected from random samples. Therefore it was deemed appropriate to employ the equivalent non-parametric test, the Mann-Whitney U test in addition to the t-test for the variables of brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty.

For the variables concerned with sponsorship awareness, brand awareness and demographic data, the data collected was measured at the nominal level. Therefore, the chi-square test was employed to test the relevant hypotheses in terms of assessing differences between sample group scores.

The use of statistical hypothesis testing tools such as t-tests and chi-square requires a significance level cut off to be set for the rejection of null hypotheses. Statistical significance of  $p < 0.05$  is commonly cited as a standard, indicating that such a result would only occur by chance in 5% of cases (Moore and Notz, 2006). The 5% level of significance was used as the cut-off for statistical significance in this study. It is possible to lower the risk of committing a Type I error, that is rejecting a null hypothesis that is in fact true, by raising the level of significance required (for example using  $p < 0.01$  rather than  $p < 0.05$ ) (Black, 1993). However, given the widespread



acceptance of 5% within social science research, this was deemed to be a sufficiently stringent test of the hypotheses postulated.

In line with wider criticisms of quantitative approaches to research, a weakness put forward of statistical significance tests is that they do not directly test causal hypotheses (Sayer, 1992). For example, saying that there is a statistically significant difference between two groups does not prove that the independent variable caused the dependent variable, particularly in survey research which lacks the control over extraneous variables offered by experimental methodologies. Similarly, Babbie (1998) criticises significance testing, claiming that too often, statistical significance is mistaken for substantive significance. The outcomes of significance tests are not just dictated by the size of the differences being measured but also by the sample size (Aldridge and Levine, 2001). Therefore, caution is required in interpreting the results of statistical tests of significance. Widespread use of significance testing was made in this study, in order to test the hypotheses proposed in Chapter 3, in line with the hypothetico-deductive approach to research. However, care was taken in drawing conclusions (see Chapter 8 for a discussion of the results) and only findings of both statistical and substantive significance were considered.

#### **4.10 Conclusion**

This chapter began with an outline of the philosophical underpinnings of the research, examining issues of both epistemology and ontology. The choice of a positivist epistemology and a realist ontology was justified in light of the author's commitment to

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hypothesis testing and structured modes of inquiry. The philosophical stance adopted informed the research design of the study, therefore the chapter proceeded to explore the chosen strategy and consequent issues of research quality including reliability and validity. Following on from the exploration of research design issues, the choice and development of an appropriate data collection instrument was discussed, with specific attention paid to the operationalisation of variables, questionnaire design and the pilot study. The remainder of the chapter discussed the relevant issues of sampling theory and practical application appropriate to the study and finally the statistical techniques employed in the analysis of data.

This chapter has addressed all relevant methodological issues informing the study, linking the theoretical framework discussed in Chapter 3 with the empirical data collection phase of the research project. Having explored how the data was collected, the following chapters will present the results from the World Bowls Championships (Chapter 5), Grand Prix athletics (Chapter 6) and Pro40 cricket events (Chapter 7) and their respective comparison samples. Following the presentation of the results, Chapter 8 will discuss the findings in the context of all of the events and will explore the outcomes of the hypotheses tested.

## **Chapter 5: Results - World Bowls Championships**

### **5.1 Introduction**

The aim of this chapter is to present the results of data collected at the engage Ladies World Matchplay Bowls Championships and the World Indoor Bowls Championships staged at Potters Leisure Resort in Norfolk from 8<sup>th</sup> to 28<sup>th</sup> January 2007. Data for this study was collected on 19<sup>th</sup> and 20<sup>th</sup> January 2007. As both events were held concurrently at the same venue, spectators completed a questionnaire relating to one of the events. Therefore, the data will be presented firstly for Potters Holidays and secondly for the engage sponsorship.

In addition to the event-based data, a questionnaire was sent out to a random sample of members of a voluntary organisation of which the author is a member, and who represent the wider population who were not attending the bowls event. This questionnaire concerned the engage brand only. The nature of the Potters Holidays sponsorship, providing a venue for the event, meant that the primary target audience for the sponsorship was event-based spectators. Therefore it was not considered appropriate to compare brand equity for the Potters brand between event-based and non event-based consumers. As such, comparisons will be made between the two brands to examine the impact of different modes of sponsorship (i.e. Potters Holidays offered spectators the chance to experience the brand by attending the event, while no such



interaction was available for engage). Comparisons will also be drawn between the event-based and comparison samples for the engage brand.

The chapter will begin with a brief overview of the Potters Holidays World Indoor Bowls Championships and the engage Ladies World Matchplay Championships and the Potters Holidays and engage brands, before proceeding to present both descriptive and inferential statistics for the respondent groups around the themes of sponsorship awareness and brand equity (brand awareness, brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty). The data will be presented on a variable-by-variable basis rather than a presentation of the event-based data followed by the data from the comparison sample group. As the main purpose of the chapter is to present the differences between the sample groups on key brand equity variables, such a structure is both logical and efficient. The only exception to this will be where descriptive data only exists for one group, for example sponsorship recognition at the event. The treatment and manipulation of data is discussed in Chapter 4, therefore all results are presented in accordance with the conventions identified. A full discussion of the implications of the results will be included in Chapter 8.

## **5.2 Bowls Sponsorship**

Individual events on the World Bowls Tour are sponsored by engage (2007 Ladies World Matchplay, International Open), Potters Holidays (World Indoor Bowls Championships), Co-operative Funeralcare (World Matchplay) and Great British Mobility Group (Scottish International Open). The World Bowls tour also has an

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additional five sponsors: Highland Spring, Horizon Software, Nationwide Bowler, Dales Sports Surfaces and Expo Graphics (World Bowls Tour, 2007). In 2005, bowls was the 9<sup>th</sup> most sponsored sport in the UK, ahead of such sports as snooker, yachting and motorsport (excluding “international” sponsorship) (Mintel, 2006).

### **5.3 Event Information**

The Potters Holidays World Indoor Bowls and engage Ladies World Matchplay Championships represent one of the premier events on the bowls calendar, attracting world-class players (Potters Holidays 2007a). The entire event took place over three weeks in January 2007 at the Potters Leisure Resort in Norfolk, UK, with coverage of the later rounds on BBC national television.

### **5.4 The Potters Holidays Brand**

Potters Holidays is a family-owned company, which runs Potters Leisure Resort, a 5\* holiday village in Hopton-on-Sea, Norfolk, UK (Potters Holidays 2007b) and which also operates holidays in Cyprus (Potters Holidays 2007c). The Potters brand was established in 1920 with the development of its first holiday camp and the company is still owned by the Potters family (Potters Holidays 2007d). At the leisure resort in the UK, Potters offers themed breaks including musical shows and bowls, in addition to midweek and weekend leisure holidays. Potters Holidays has sponsored world indoor bowls since 1999 (Potters Holidays 2007a).

### **5.5 The engage Brand**

engage Mutual Assurance was launched in 2005 as the trading name of Homeowners Friendly Society Limited (engage 2007a). engage Mutual Assurance offers life insurance, savings and investment products, child savings plans and travel insurance (engage 2007b), both directly to consumers and in partnership with companies including Legal & General, Yorkshire Building Society and ASDA Financial Services (engage 2007a). In addition to bowls sponsorship, engage is the title sponsor of engage Super League rugby league.

As discussed in Chapter 2, the leverage activities associated with a sponsorship play a particularly important role in communicating the sponsor – event link to spectators. At the Ladies World Matchplay bowls event there was very little leverage activity in evidence for the engage brand. The sponsorship focus was on the provision of hoardings around the bowls arena and some promotional stands in hospitality areas. The lack of leverage material reflects the fact that the bowls event is not the most prominent of engage's sponsorship activities. The brand primarily utilises the Super League sponsorship as a communication platform and as such, the leverage activities associated with rugby league, such as competitions, tailored products (Super League child savings and Super League travel insurance) and the mascot, Super Sid the Savings Pig (engage 2007c, 2007d), are much more prominent.



## **5.6 Demographic Data**

Data was collected at the World Indoor Bowls Championships concerning both Potters Holidays (n = 107) and engage (n = 115) and via a postal questionnaire to a group of respondents not present at the bowls event (n = 280). 500 postal questionnaires were sent out, with 283 returned, of which 280 yielded useable data. The response rate for the comparison group was thus 56%.

54% of respondents to both the Potters Holidays and engage questionnaires at the event were female. In the comparison group for the engage brand, 45% of respondents were female. In the comparison group, a broad spread of age groups was recorded, with 62% over 45. The age distribution at the event was heavily skewed towards older age groups, with 96% and 97% aged over 45 for the Potters Holidays and engage samples respectively. These figures are largely in line with the age profile of spectators at the world indoor bowls event. Amongst the event-based sample, 77% of respondents to the Potters Holidays questionnaire and 69% of respondents to the engage questionnaire reported an annual household income of below £30000. However, only 40% of comparison group respondents reported an annual household income of below £30000.

Using chi-square tests, no significant differences were found for gender ( $\chi^2 (1) = 0.000$ ,  $p = 0.988$ ), age ( $\chi^2 (4) = 2.831$ ,  $p = 0.587$ ) or income ( $\chi^2 (5) = 7.429$ ,  $p = 0.191$ ) between the event-based samples for Potters Holidays and engage. No significant difference was found between the gender ( $\chi^2 (1) = 3.084$ ,  $p = 0.079$ ) profiles of the event-based and comparison groups for engage. A significant difference was

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found on the variables of age ( $\chi^2 (5) = 141.143, p = 0.000$ ) and income ( $\chi^2 (5) = 26.261, p = 0.000$ ). However, there is no evidence in the extant literature to suggest that such demographic indicators impact substantially upon brand equity judgements.

It is reasonable to expect that certain brand equity elements (particularly awareness and to some extent loyalty) will differ between customers and non-customers of a brand. By the very nature of attending the event, all respondents to the Potters Holidays questionnaire were customers of the brand. In contrast, no event-based respondents to the engage questionnaire were existing customers of the company, while only one comparison group respondent reported being an engage customer. Therefore, the impact of customer status is controlled across the two groups for the engage brand. The Potters sponsorship offered the opportunity for trial of products/services (i.e. staying at the leisure resort) among spectators, while the engage sponsorship did not offer such possibilities for product sampling. The results for the two brands in terms of brand equity will be presented below and the discussion in Chapter 8 will elaborate upon the impact of product/service trial on the effectiveness of sponsorship.

### **5.7 Sponsorship Awareness**

As explained in Chapter 3, the construct of awareness can be broken into recall and recognition, with the first brand name recalled being referred to as top-of-mind-awareness (TOMA). Table 5.1 below outlines TOMA for bowls sponsors among the event-based samples.

For the purpose of examining sponsorship awareness, the event-based samples for Potters Holidays and engage are combined, except where explicitly stated. The questionnaire simply asked spectators to recall and recognise sponsors of bowls, therefore it is appropriate to consider both samples together in this context. Where title sponsorship of the individual events is examined, the event-based respondents are split according to which questionnaire was completed: World Bowls or Ladies World Matchplay.

**Table 5.1 Bowls sponsorship Top-of-mind awareness**

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid engage	36	16.2
Potters	29	13.1
Drakes Pride	25	11.3
Henselite	13	5.9
Other	61	27.5
None	58	26.1
Total	222	100.0

engage was the first sponsor named by 16% of respondents, followed by Potters Holidays at 13%. In total, 22 brands were named as the first recalled sponsor of bowls, with none achieving a TOMA score of greater than 16%. This indicates that there is no one brand strongly associated with bowls to the detriment of other sponsors. Similarly, 26% of respondents could not name a bowls sponsor. In terms of aided awareness, Potters Holidays was recognised as a sponsor of bowls by 87% of respondents, compared to 51% for engage (Table 5.2 below). Several sponsors scored highly on



aided awareness, possibly due to the prominence of hoardings and displays around the arena and wider leisure resort.

The only non-sponsor to score highly in terms of recognition was Saga Insurance, with an aided recall score of 47%. Saga Insurance used to sponsor bowls; this, therefore, provides an example of the persistence of a perceived link between a sponsor and sponsored property, even after the association officially ends.

**Table 5.2 Aided bowls sponsor recognition**

	Yes	
	Count	%
Potters Holidays	192	86.5%
engage	114	51.4%
Saga Insurance	104	46.8%
Highland Spring	97	43.7%
Dales Sports Surfaces	53	23.9%
Great British Mobility	44	19.8%
Nationwide Bowler	34	15.3%
NFU Mutual	20	9.0%
Standard Life	17	7.7%
Horizon Software	16	7.2%
Expo Graphics	3	1.4%

45% of respondents correctly identified Potters as the title sponsor of the World Indoor Bowls Championships, while 28% correctly named engage as the main sponsor of the Ladies World Matchplay event. Therefore, while aided awareness of general bowls sponsorship is quite high, the link between the sponsor and the event is relatively weak, which may impact upon the ability to transfer image benefits from the event to the

sponsoring brand. In the case of Potters Holidays, the disparity between aided recognition and unprompted title sponsorship recall could be attributed to the nature of the sponsorship: Potters Holidays is providing in-kind services (hosting the event) in its role as sponsor. However, respondents may not perceive such activity as sponsorship per se.

Within the engage comparison group, 79% of those aware of the brand were aware of some sponsorship activity by the company. 57% of these respondents cited sponsorship of rugby league, with only 7% aware of the bowls sponsorship. Such results are unsurprising considering the greater profile and media coverage of rugby league.

Sponsorship awareness is only a preliminary measure towards more general brand awareness. Therefore, the chapter will now continue with an examination of the results for brand awareness for the two brands.

### **5.8 Brand Awareness**

Hypothesis  $H_1$  stated that sports sponsorship would have a positive impact upon brand awareness. Employing the principle of falsification, the corresponding null hypothesis states that there will be no difference in brand awareness scores between those exposed and those not directly exposed to the sponsorship.

The Potters Holidays brand is well established within the domain of bowls, hosting the World Indoor Bowls Championships since 1999 (Potters Holidays 2007a) and also

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offering bowls-themed breaks. It is therefore unsurprising that Potters Holidays achieved a brand awareness score of 99% among the event-based sample.

Brand awareness for engage was substantially lower (51% among the event-based sample and only 5% among the comparison group), however the brand itself is very new, having only been launched in 2005 (engage 2007a). Brand awareness for engage was significantly higher among respondents at the sponsored event compared with the comparison group not directly exposed to the sponsorship ( $\chi^2(1) = 116.016, p = 0.000$ ). Brand awareness was also significantly higher for Potters than for engage ( $\chi^2(1) = 66.256, p = 0.000$ ), probably due to the fact of hosting the event. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected and hypothesis H<sub>1</sub> is supported in terms of sponsorship contributing to brand name awareness.

Nevertheless, brand awareness concerns not only the brand name but also linking the name to the correct product/service category. Less than 1% of respondents were unable to name a single product association for Potters, while 72%, 51% and 46% of event-based respondents correctly cited holidays, bowls and leisure/entertainment. Such strong associations are likely to be due to the fact that respondents were sampling the Potters product/service offerings at first hand by attending the event.

Among those event-based respondents who had heard of engage, 75% named financial services as a product association, with 20% unable to name any product/service associated with the brand. Therefore, among those who had correctly recalled the brand, there was a high level of correct product association. Conversely, among those



in the comparison group who had heard of engage, only 39% identified the brand name with financial services, with 15% unable to name any association. Interestingly, 46% cited sports sponsorship as an association to the engage brand. Therefore, it appears that among those not directly exposed to sponsorship at the event, while name awareness can be stimulated, the transfer of product associations to the brand name is not as effective.

Aaker's (1996) brand equity measurement tool contains an indication of whether a respondent has an opinion about the brand in question, as part of the wider brand awareness measure. Whether or not a respondent had an opinion about Potters or engage respectively was measured using a Likert scale from "totally agree" (score = 3) to "totally disagree" (score = -2). The mean score for the Potters brand was 1.90, which was significantly higher (mean difference = 1.486,  $t = 10.504$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ) than the mean score of 0.41 for the engage brand (event sample). No significant difference was found between the mean scores for engage between the event-based ( $\bar{x} = 0.414$ ) and comparison samples ( $\bar{x} = 0.429$ ) (mean difference = -0.014,  $t = -0.046$ ,  $p = 0.964$ ). Thus, while hypothesis  $H_1$  is supported for engage in terms of name awareness, the impact of sponsorship does not extend to developing an opinion of the brand.

### **5.9 Brand Associations**

In line with the data collection instrument outlined in Chapter 4, brand associations were measured using Likert scale questions asking respondents (both event- and non-event- based) to state their level of agreement with the following statements:

#### **Potters Holidays:**

1. I trust Potters;
2. Potters is different from other leisure resorts;
3. There are definite reasons to visit Potters rather than other leisure resorts;
4. The Potters brand has a distinctive personality;
5. Potters offers worse value for money than other brands;
6. I have a clear image of the type of person who would visit Potters.

#### **engage:**

1. I trust engage;
2. engage is different from other brands of financial services;
3. There are definite reasons to buy products/services from engage rather than other providers;
4. The engage brand has a distinctive personality;
5. engage offers worse value for money than other brands;

6. I have a clear image of the type of person who would use engage products/services.

As discussed in Chapter 4, the individual responses to these questions were summed to produce a single brand associations score.

Table 5.3 below summarises the responses to the individual questions provided by the event-based respondents for Potters Holidays, while Table 5.4 considers the results of the event-based sample for engage. Table 5.5 presents the responses of the comparison group for the engage brand.

**Table 5.3 Potters Brand Associations (Event)**

	Totally Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Totally Agree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Trust	.0%	.0%	5.8%	40.4%	51.0%	2.9%
Different	.0%	2.0%	13.9%	37.6%	38.6%	7.9%
Reasons to Visit	.0%	.0%	8.8%	40.2%	48.0%	2.9%
Distinctive Personality	.0%	.0%	12.6%	40.8%	43.7%	2.9%
Worse Value	1.0%	2.0%	8.1%	42.4%	39.4%	7.1%
User Image	.0%	1.9%	14.6%	46.6%	34.0%	2.9%



**Table 5.4 engage Brand Associations (Event)**

	Totally Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Totally Agree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Trust	.0%	.0%	6.5%	8.3%	3.7%	81.5%
Different	.0%	.0%	7.3%	4.5%	2.7%	85.5%
Reasons to Buy	.9%	.0%	9.2%	4.6%	.9%	84.4%
Distinctive Personality	.0%	.0%	3.7%	9.2%	.9%	86.2%
Worse Value	.0%	2.7%	3.6%	7.2%	.9%	85.6%
User Image	.0%	.0%	4.5%	9.9%	.0%	85.6%

**Table 5.5 engage Brand Associations (Comparison)**

	Totally Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
	%	%	%	%	%
Trust	.0%	7.1%	28.6%	.0%	64.3%
Different	.0%	.0%	21.4%	14.3%	64.3%
Reasons to Buy	7.1%	.0%	21.4%	7.1%	64.3%
Distinctive Personality	7.1%	.0%	21.4%	7.1%	64.3%
Worse Value	7.1%	.0%	14.3%	.0%	78.6%
User Image	.0%	14.3%	21.4%	.0%	64.3%

The scores for Potters are strongly clustered in the positive responses of “agree” or “totally agree”, indicating the presence of strong brand associations held by respondents. Conversely, the results for engage in both the event-based and comparison samples cluster in the “not applicable/don’t know” category, indicating a generalised lack of brand knowledge. Care must be taken with the data from the engage comparison sample, due to the small sample size (only 5% of those questioned were aware of the brand and so responses for brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty were

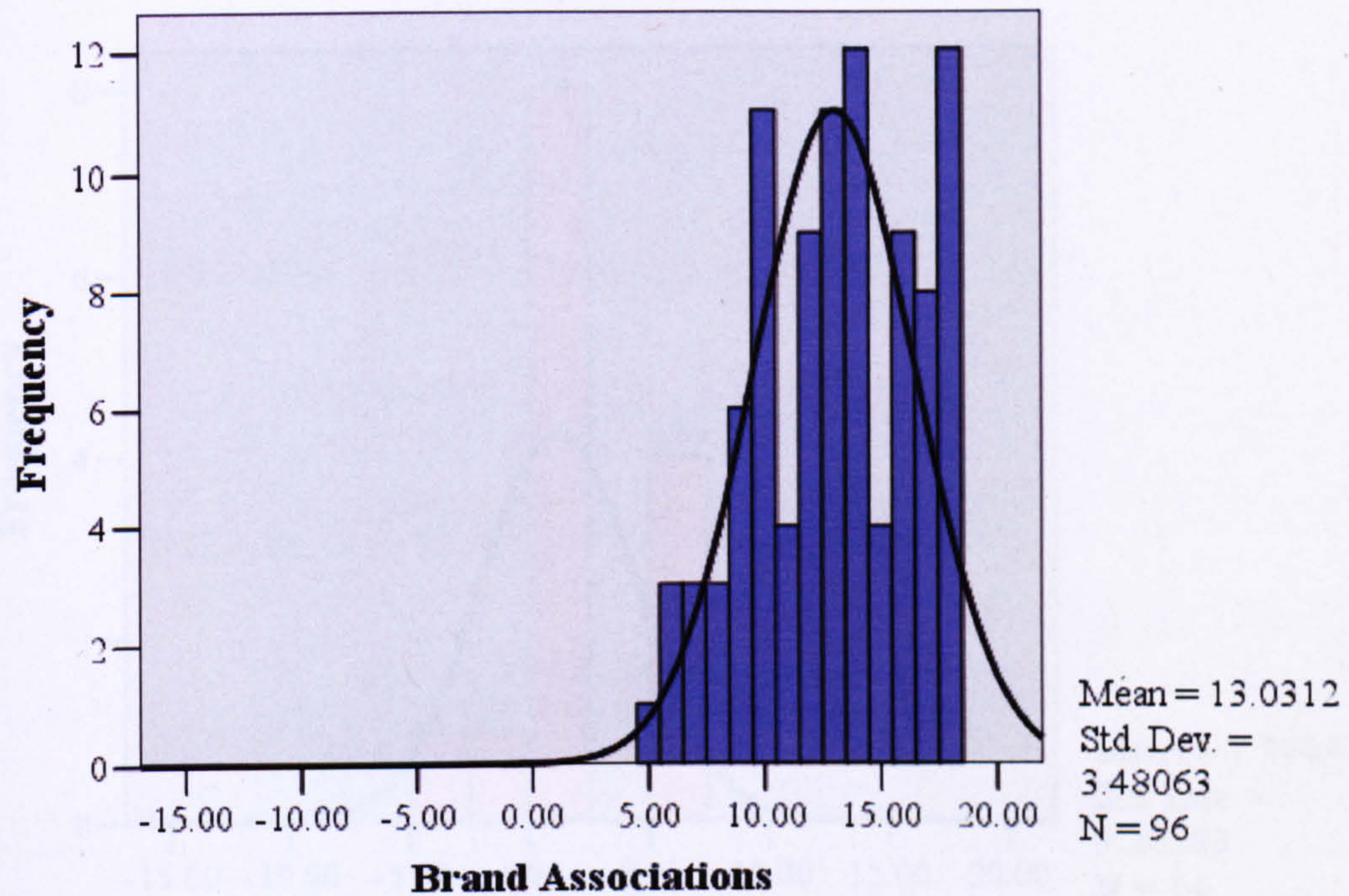
only collected from these respondents). However, the strong clustering of responses in the “not applicable/don’t know” category is still an indicator of low levels of brand knowledge. The small sample size affects all results concerning the engage comparison sample. Therefore, while tests of statistical significance are included throughout this chapter, it must be borne in mind that cell sizes are, at times, limited.

Hypothesis H<sub>2</sub> stated that sports sponsorship would have a positive impact upon brand associations. Therefore, the corresponding null hypothesis tested was that there is no significant difference in mean brand associations scores for those exposed and those not exposed to sponsorship. Hypothesis H<sub>6</sub> stated that sports sponsorship would have a greater impact for sponsors offering sampling opportunities than for sponsors not offering product/service sampling to spectators. The corresponding null hypothesis suggests that there will be no difference in impact on brand equity elements between sponsors offering and sponsors not offering sampling opportunities.

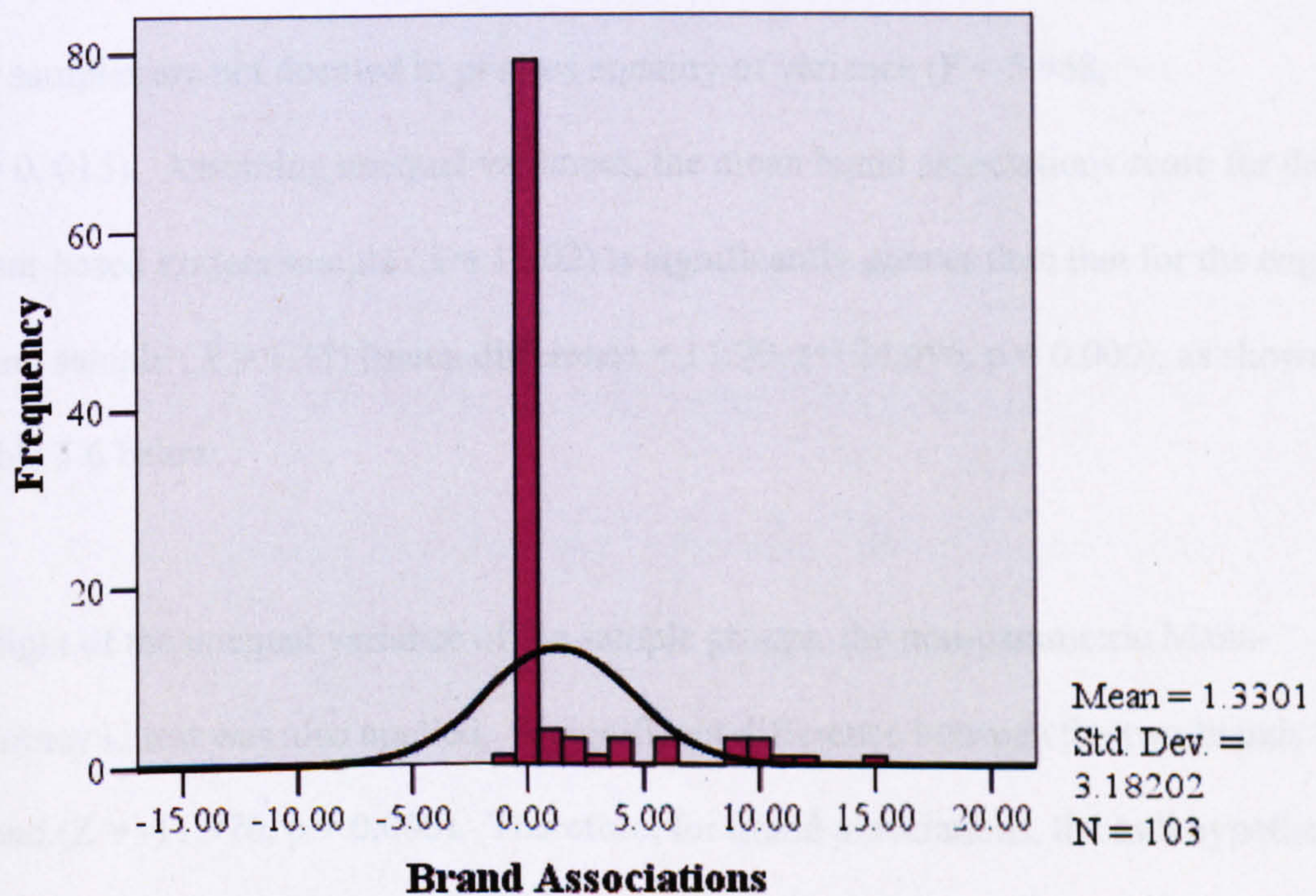
The overall brand associations scores for each sample group are illustrated in Figures 5.1 to 5.3 below.



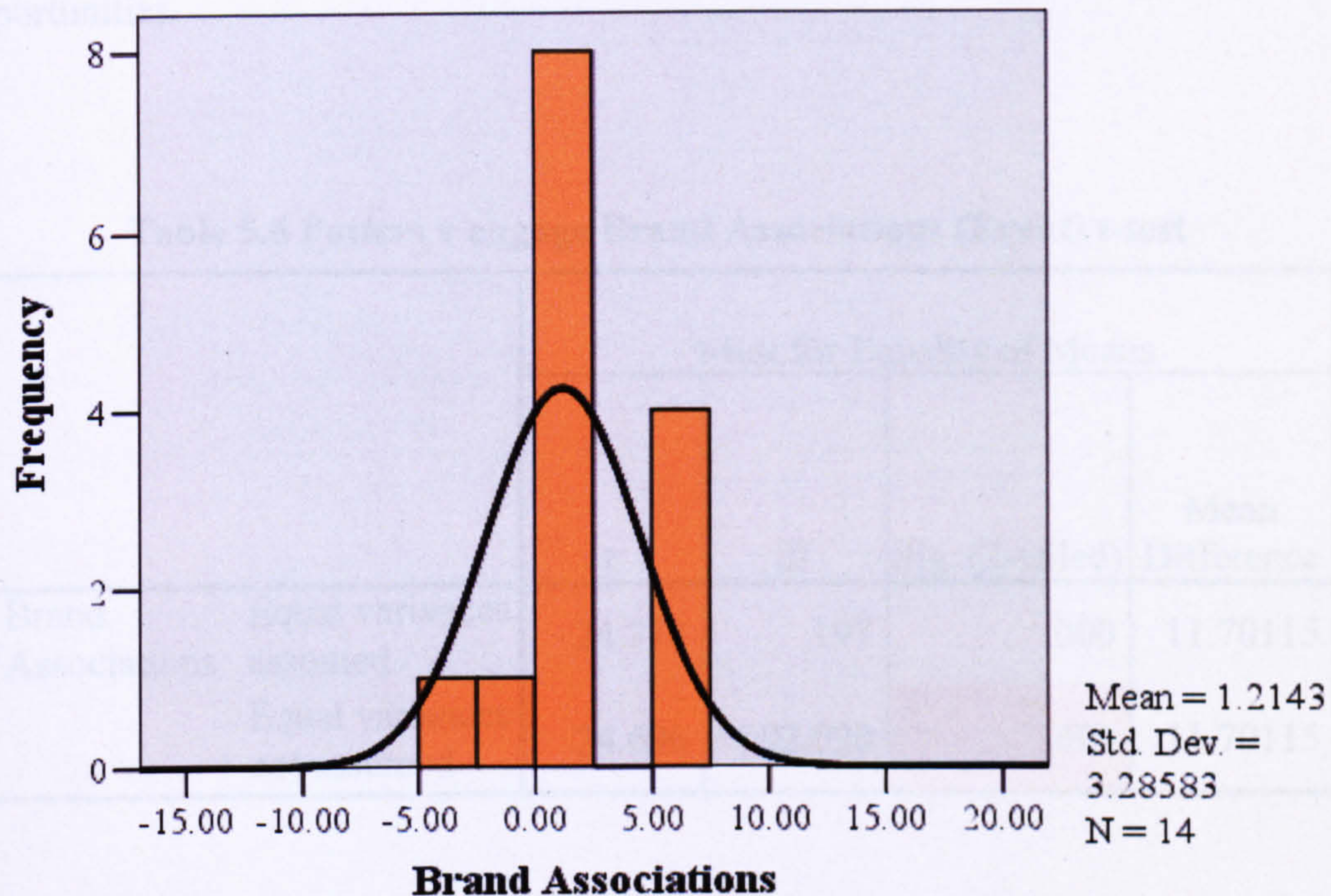
**Figure 5.1 Potters Cumulative Brand Associations Scores**



**Figure 5.2 engage Cumulative Brand Associations Scores (Event)**





**Figure 5.3 engage Cumulative Brand Associations Scores (Comparison)**

Comparing the event samples for Potters and engage, using Levene's Test (Field, 2005), the samples are not deemed to possess equality of variance ( $F = 5.968$ ,  $p = 0.015$ ). Assuming unequal variances, the mean brand associations score for the event-based Potters sample ( $\bar{x} = 13.03$ ) is significantly greater than that for the engage brand sample ( $\bar{x} = 1.33$ ) (mean difference = 11.70,  $t = 24.696$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ), as shown in Table 5.6 below.

In light of the unequal variance of the sample groups, the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test was also applied. A significant difference between the two brands was found ( $Z = -11.976$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ). Therefore, for brand associations, the null hypothesis is



rejected and hypothesis  $H_6$  is supported, with the sponsoring brand offering product trial/sampling opportunities scoring higher than the brand not offering such opportunities.

**Table 5.6 Potters v engage Brand Associations (Event) t-test**

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Brand Associations	Equal variances assumed	24.774	197	.000	11.70115
	Equal variances not assumed	24.696	192.090	<b>.000</b>	11.70115

Moving now to the results for the engage brand, examining the difference in scores between those exposed to the sponsorship at the event and the comparison group; using Levene's Test, equality of variance can be assumed ( $F = 0.528$ ,  $p = 0.469$ ). No significant difference was found between the mean brand associations scores for the two groups (event mean = 1.33, comparison mean = 1.21, mean difference = 0.12,  $t = 0.127$ ,  $p = 0.899$ ). The results of the t-test are shown below in Table 5.7.

The above findings were also supported by the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test, with no significant difference found between the two groups ( $Z = -0.306$ ,  $p = 0.759$ ). Therefore, in the case of engage, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected and thus hypothesis  $H_2$  is not supported.



**Table 5.7 engage Brand Associations t-test (Event-based v comparison sample)**

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Brand Associations	Equal variances assumed	.127	115	.899	.11581
	Equal variances not assumed	.124	16.491	.903	.11581

Respondents at the event were asked to state their level of agreement with one of the following statements:

1. Potters is an appropriate sponsor for the World Indoor Bowls Championships
2. engage is an appropriate sponsor for the Ladies World Matchplay Bowls

Among the Potters sample, 98% of respondents were in agreement with the above statement, while for engage, 64% of respondents felt that the brand was an appropriate sponsor for bowls. The impact of sponsor-event fit and the nature of the sponsorship on brand associations will be considered when examining hypothesis H<sub>2</sub>(a) in Chapter 8.

In line with the overall brand associations scores, significant differences were found using the independent samples t-test between the Potters and engage brands (event-based) on all of the individual brand associations dimensions, as shown in Table 5.8 below.



**Table 5.8 Individual Brand Associations Dimensions t-tests (Potters v engage event samples)**

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Trust	Equal variances assumed	19.660	210	.000	2.05164
	Equal variances not assumed	19.689	209.696	.000	2.05164
Different	Equal variances assumed	15.218	209	.000	1.78425
	Equal variances not assumed	14.961	170.364	.000	1.78425
Reason to Buy	Equal variances assumed	22.737	209	.000	2.14067
	Equal variances not assumed	22.560	191.888	.000	2.14067
Distinctive Personality	Equal variances assumed	20.180	210	.000	2.00472
	Equal variances not assumed	20.075	198.593	.000	2.00472
Worse Value	Equal variances assumed	15.951	208	.000	1.89053
	Equal variances not assumed	15.530	157.272	.000	1.89053
User Image	Equal variances assumed	17.689	212	.000	1.83443
	Equal variances not assumed	17.466	181.755	.000	1.83443

Significant differences on all dimensions between Potters and engage were also found using the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test (see appendix 12 for full tables).

Table 5.9 below presents the individual brand associations t-tests for engage (event-based versus comparison sample).



**Table 5.9 Individual Brand Associations Dimensions t-test (engage event-based v comparison)**

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Trust	Equal variances assumed	.589	120	.557	.12831
	Equal variances not assumed	.745	19.842	.465	.12831
Different	Equal variances assumed	-1.326	122	.187	-.25455
	Equal variances not assumed	-1.197	15.652	.249	-.25455
Reasons to Buy	Equal variances assumed	-.119	121	.905	-.02163
	Equal variances not assumed	-.088	14.550	.931	-.02163
Distinctive Personality	Equal variances assumed	.172	121	.864	.03342
	Equal variances not assumed	.135	14.851	.894	.03342
Worse Value	Equal variances assumed	.992	123	.323	.18018
	Equal variances not assumed	.942	16.003	.360	.18018
User Image	Equal variances assumed	.976	123	.331	.17181
	Equal variances not assumed	.983	16.519	.340	.17181

Echoing the overall brand associations scores, no significant differences were found for engage between the event-based and comparison samples for any of the individual brand associations. Equally, no significant difference on any of the elements of brand associations was found using the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test.

### **5.10 Perceived Quality**

Perceived quality was measured using Likert scale questions asking respondents (both event- and non-event- based) to state their level of agreement with the following statements:

#### **Potters Holidays:**

1. Potters is of high quality;
2. Potters is a brand I respect;
3. Potters is a leader in leisure resorts;
4. Potters is a brand that is growing in popularity;
5. Potters offers innovative products and services.

#### **engage:**

1. engage is of high quality;
2. engage is a brand I respect;
3. engage is a leader in financial services;
4. engage is a brand that is growing in popularity;
5. engage offers innovative products and services.



Respondents were also asked to rate either Potters or engage in comparison with other leisure resorts or financial service providers respectively, on a 5-point scale from “the best” to “the worst.”

Tables 5.10 to 5.13 below summarise the responses to the above statements from the event-based samples for Potters and engage, while Tables 5.14 and 5.15 illustrate the responses from the engage comparison sample.

**Table 5.10 Potters Perceived Quality Dimensions (Event-based sample)**

	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Totally Agree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
	%	%	%	%
High Quality	2.9%	32.7%	64.4%	
Respect	8.8%	44.1%	46.1%	1.0%
Leader	14.7%	38.2%	44.1%	2.9%
Popularity	14.7%	52.0%	30.4%	2.9%
Innovative	22.2%	41.4%	32.3%	4.0%

**Table 5.11 Potters comparison with other leisure resorts (Event-based sample)**

	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid The Best	33	32.4	32.4
One of the Best	56	54.9	87.3
About the Same	5	4.9	92.2
Don't Know/Not Applicable	8	7.8	100.0
Total	102	100.0	
Missing	5		
Total	107		

As with the brand associations, the Potters brand scores highly on all dimensions of perceived quality. Notably, 97% of respondents either agreed or totally agreed with the statement that Potters was of high quality, while innovation achieved the lowest agreement score with 74% at least in agreement that Potters offers innovative products/services. As shown above in Table 5.11, 87% of respondents believed Potters to be at least one of the best leisure resorts compared with its competitors. These results indicate a strongly positive perception of quality for the Potters brand among event-based respondents.

**Table 5.12 engage Perceived Quality Dimensions (Event-based sample)**

	Totally Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Totally Agree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
	%	%	%	%	%	%
High Quality			10.0%	6.4%	4.5%	79.1%
Respect	.9%		7.3%	6.4%	4.5%	80.9%
Leader			3.7%	10.2%	.9%	85.2%
Popularity		.9%	2.7%	12.7%	.9%	82.7%
Innovative			1.8%	8.1%		90.1%

**Table 5.13 engage comparison with other financial services providers  
(Event-based sample)**

	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid One of the Best	11	10.2	10.2
About the Same	7	6.5	16.7
Don't Know/Not Applicable	90	83.3	100.0
Total	108	100.0	
Missing	7		
Total	115		

**Table 5.14 engage Perceived Quality Dimensions (Comparison sample)**

	Totally Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
	%	%	%	%	%
High Quality	7.1%		21.4%	7.1%	64.3%
Respect	7.1%		21.4%	7.1%	64.3%
Leader	7.1%	14.3%	14.3%		64.3%
Popularity			21.4%	7.1%	71.4%
Innovative		14.3%	14.3%		71.4%

**Table 5.15 engage comparison with other financial services providers  
(Comparison sample)**

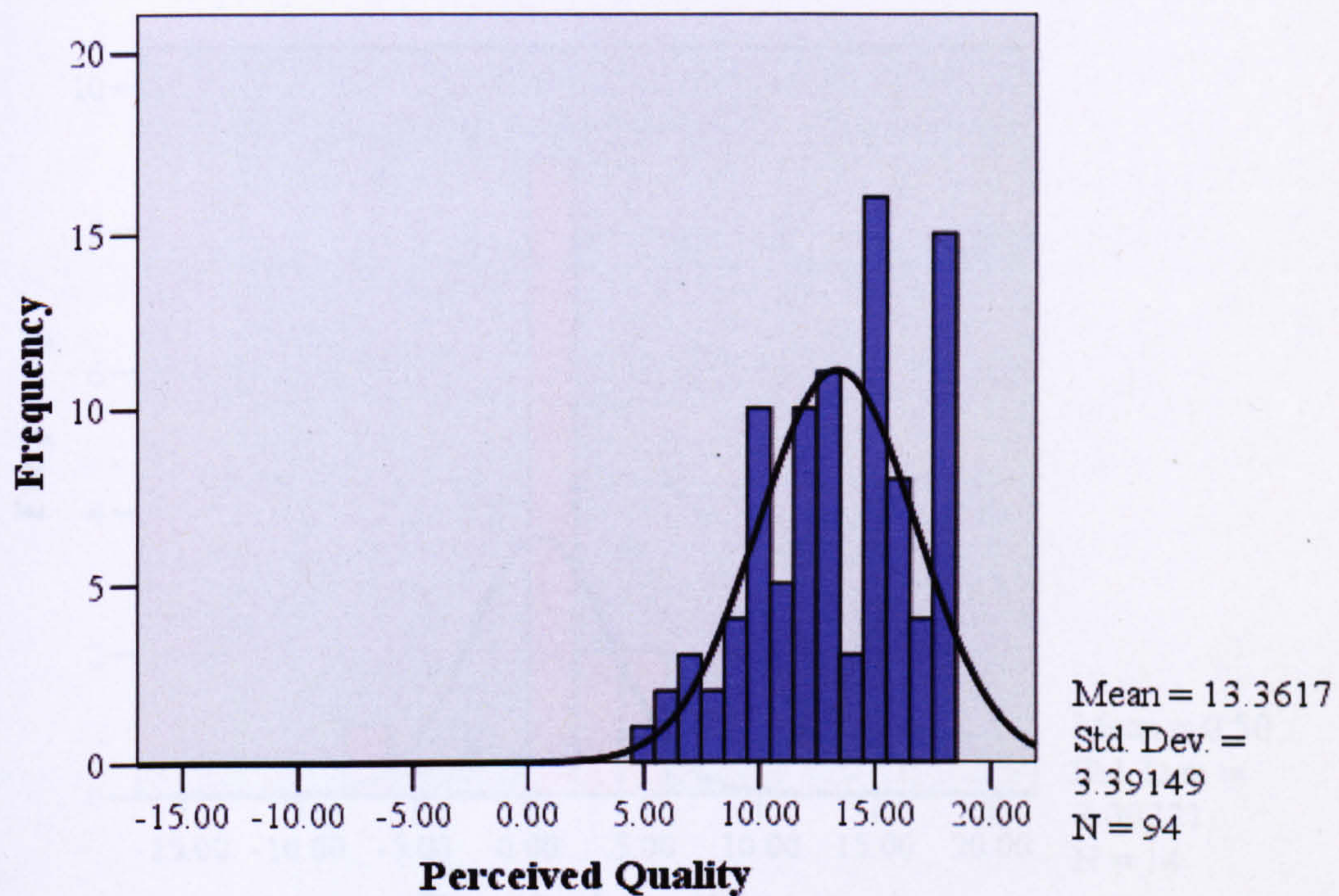
		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	The Worst	1	7.1	7.1
	Don't Know/ Not Applicable	13	92.9	100.0
	Total	14	100.0	
Missing (not aware of brand)		266		
Total		280		

Again, the results for engage both among the event-based and comparison samples cluster in the “not applicable/don’t know” category. This indicates a lack of knowledge and opinion about the brand, which inhibits the development of consumer-based brand equity.

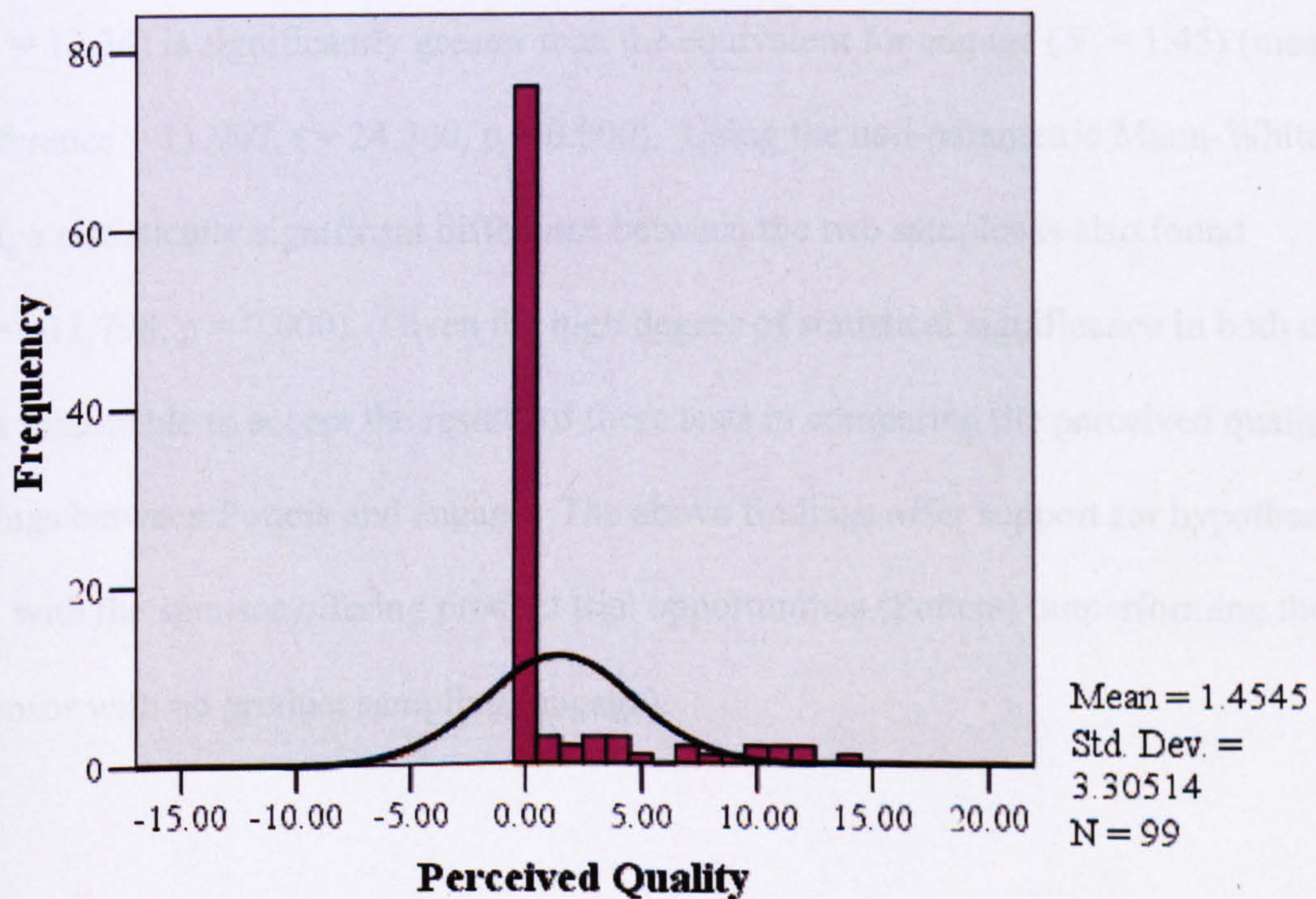
The overall perceived quality scores for each sample are shown in Figures 5.4 to 5.6 below.



**Figure 5.4 Potters Cumulative Perceived Quality Scores**



**Figure 5.5 engage Cumulative Perceived Quality Scores (Event)**





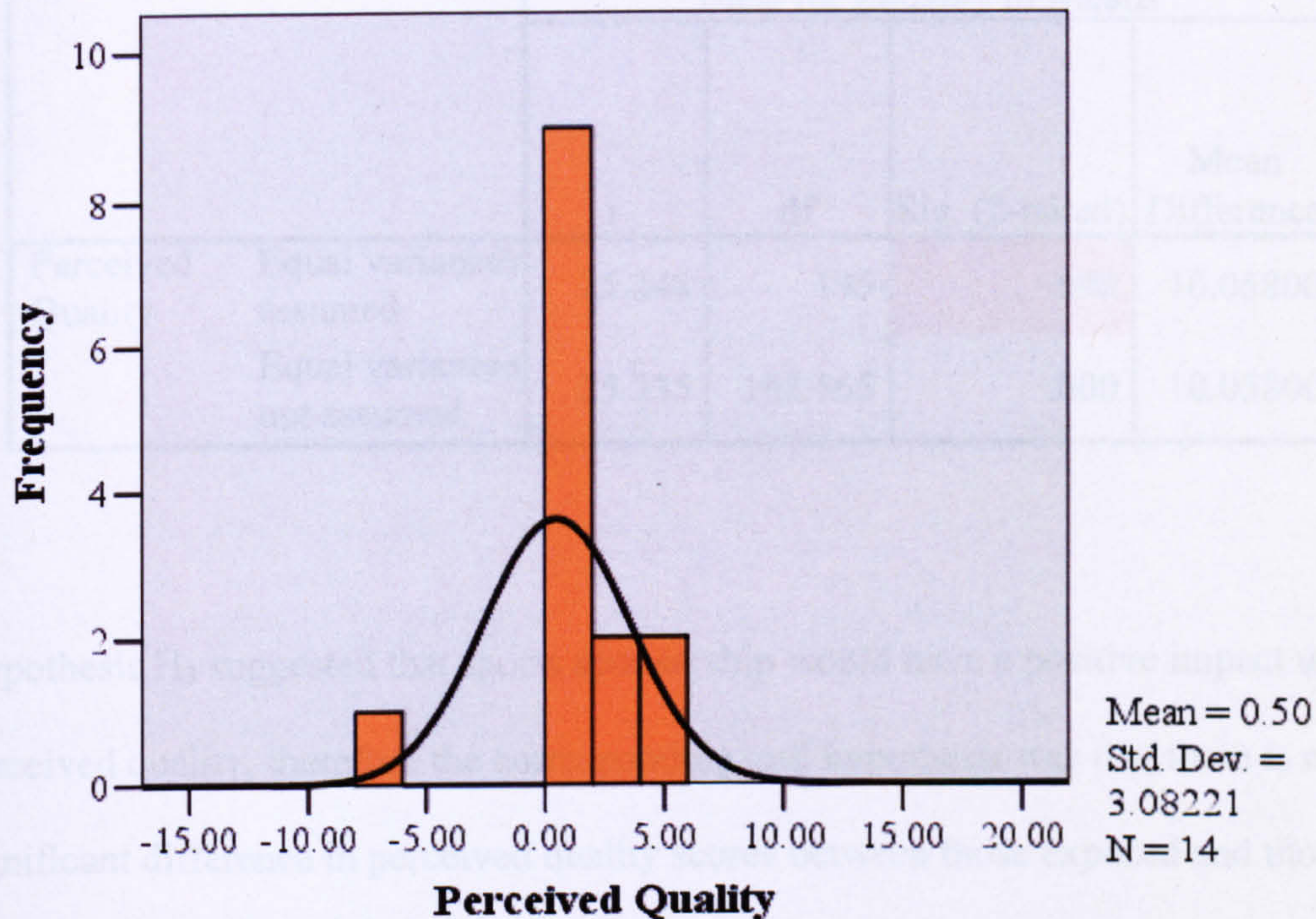
**Figure 5.6 engage Cumulative Perceived Quality Scores (Comparison)**

Table 5.16 below indicates that the mean score from the event sample for Potters ( $\bar{x} = 13.36$ ) is significantly greater than the equivalent for engage ( $\bar{x} = 1.45$ ) (mean difference = 11.907,  $t = 24.700$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ). Using the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test, a statistically significant difference between the two samples is also found ( $Z = -11.798$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ). Given the high degree of statistical significance in both cases, it is reasonable to accept the results of these tests in comparing the perceived quality ratings between Potters and engage. The above findings offer support for hypothesis  $H_6$ , with the sponsor offering product trial opportunities (Potters) outperforming the sponsor with no product sampling (engage).



**Table 5.16 Potters v engage (Event) Perceived Quality t-test**

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Perceived Quality	Equal variances assumed	25.248	195	<b>.000</b>	10.05800
	Equal variances not assumed	25.235	193.565	.000	10.05800

Hypothesis H<sub>3</sub> suggested that sports sponsorship would have a positive impact upon perceived quality, therefore the corresponding null hypothesis was that there is no significant difference in perceived quality scores between those exposed and those not exposed to the sponsorship.

The mean perceived quality score for engage among the event-based sample ( $\bar{x} = 1.45$ ) was higher than among the comparison sample ( $\bar{x} = 0.50$ ), however, this difference was not found to be statistically significant (mean difference = 0.955,  $t = 1.019$ ,  $p = 0.310$ ). Therefore, in this case, the null hypothesis of no significant difference between the sample groups is not rejected and no support is found for hypothesis H<sub>3</sub>.

The relative rating of engage against other financial services providers demonstrated a higher mean score for the event-based sample ( $\bar{x} = 0.27$ ) than for the comparison group



( $\bar{x} = -0.14$ ). This difference achieved statistical significance at  $p < 0.05$  (mean difference = 0.411,  $t = 2.316$ ,  $p = 0.022$ ).

A significant difference between the sample groups on the dimension of comparison with competitors is also found using the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test ( $Z = -2.179$ ,  $p = 0.029$ ). However, the magnitude of the mean scores for comparison with competitors (0.27 and -0.14 respectively, measured on a scale from -2 to +3) is very low, indicating low relative perceptions of quality. As such, while a statistically significant difference exists, the difference has no real substantive meaning in the wider context of this study. Therefore, while sponsorship appears to have a moderate impact upon perception of the brand relative to its competitors, this result does not extend to the overall measure of perceived quality. In this case there is no support for hypothesis  $H_3$ .

Table 5.17 below shows that, in line with the overall perceived quality scores, Potters scored significantly higher than engage among the event-based sample on each individual element of perceived quality. Similarly, significant differences between the scores for Potters and engage on each perceived quality dimension were found using the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test (see appendix 12 for full tables).



**Table 5.17 Individual Perceived Quality Dimensions t-tests (Potters v engage event samples)**

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
High Quality	Equal variances assumed	23.963	212	.000	2.25175
	Equal variances not assumed	24.210	193.297	.000	2.25175
Respect	Equal variances assumed	19.488	210	.000	2.03476
	Equal variances not assumed	19.624	207.580	.000	2.03476
Leader	Equal variances assumed	19.111	208	.000	1.96678
	Equal variances not assumed	19.014	197.299	.000	1.96678
Popularity	Equal variances assumed	17.591	210	.000	1.79804
	Equal variances not assumed	17.577	208.080	.000	1.79804
Innovative	Equal variances assumed	18.792	208	.000	1.84002
	Equal variances not assumed	18.375	166.842	.000	1.84002

In comparing the engage brand on perceived quality between the event-based sample and the comparison group (see Table 5.18 below), a small significant difference was found on the dimension of leadership, with a mean score of 0.27 among the event-based sample and -0.14 among the comparison group (mean difference = 0.411,  $t = 2.103$ ,  $p = 0.038$ ). Using the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test, no significant difference was found between the event-based and comparison samples on the dimension of leadership ( $Z = -1.883$ ,  $p = 0.060$ ).



As with the dimension of comparison to competitors, the actual scores are very low among both sample groups, indicating a low perception of quality. Therefore, while the event-based sample evaluated the engage brand as a leader statistically significantly higher than did the comparison group, the generalised low scores for the brand mean that such findings are not substantively significant.

**Table 5.18 Individual Perceived Quality Dimensions t-tests (engage event-based v comparison samples)**

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
High Quality	Equal variances assumed	.651	122	.516	.14935
	Equal variances not assumed	.596	15.762	.559	.14935
Respect	Equal variances assumed	.441	122	.660	.10390
	Equal variances not assumed	.414	15.945	.685	.10390
Leader	Equal variances assumed	2.103	120	<b>.038</b>	.41138
	Equal variances not assumed	1.905	15.724	.075	.41138
Popularity	Equal variances assumed	-.277	122	.782	-.05714
	Equal variances not assumed	-.312	17.795	.759	-.05714
Innovative	Equal variances assumed	1.137	123	.258	.18018
	Equal variances not assumed	1.144	16.514	.269	.18018



### **5.11 Brand Loyalty**

Brand loyalty was measured using Likert scale questions asking respondents to state their level of agreement with the following statements:

#### **Potters:**

1. I feel loyal to Potters;
2. I was satisfied with Potters the last time I visited;
3. I would recommend Potters to my friends and family;
4. I would be willing to pay a higher price at Potters than at other leisure resorts;
5. When I am looking for a leisure break, I will consider Potters.

Respondents were also asked whether they were currently staying at Potters Leisure Resort, the reason for their stay, whether they had stayed there before and whether they intended to visit Potters again.

#### **engage:**

1. I feel loyal to engage;
  2. I was satisfied with engage the last time I purchased a product or service from the company;
  3. I would recommend engage to my friends and family;
  4. I intend to purchase products/services from engage in the future;
-

5. I would be willing to pay a higher price for engage products/services over other competing brands;
6. When I am looking for a financial services provider, I will consider engage.

65% of respondents to the event-based Potters questionnaire were staying at Potters Leisure Resort, with the remainder visiting for the day. 43% of respondents had previously stayed at the resort, indicating a high level of repeat patronage. Tables 5.19 and 5.20 outline the reasons for the current stay and future visit intentions.

**Table 5.19 Reason for current stay at Potters leisure resort**

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	To watch bowls	60	56.6
	Non-bowls related holiday	4	3.8
	Bowls and holiday	5	4.7
	Not applicable	37	34.9
	Total	106	100.0
Missing		1	
Total		107	

**Table 5.20 Potters future visit intentions**

	Yes	No
	%	%
Visit again to watch bowls	92.6%	7.4%
Visit again for a holiday	46.3%	53.7%

Over half (57%) of respondents reported visiting Potters purely to watch the bowls event, indicating that the use of sponsorship in the form of venue provision is an effective tool for Potters to increase guest numbers. The level of attachment to bowls is

very strong, with 93% of respondents reporting that they would visit Potters again to watch bowls. 46% of respondents also reported an intention to visit Potters again for a holiday (not related to the World Indoor Bowls Championships). Therefore, the exposure of spectators to the Potters Leisure Resort in the context of the bowls event is an effective tool to increase visitor numbers throughout the year. As such, the sponsorship is impacting positively upon intention to visit Potters (an attitudinal element of brand loyalty).

Table 5.21 below indicates the results for the Potters brand on the other dimensions of brand loyalty.

**Table 5.21: Potters Brand Loyalty Dimensions**

	Totally Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Totally Agree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Loyal		1.0%	28.7%	33.7%	33.7%	3.0%
Satisfied		2.0%	3.0%	33.0%	51.0%	11.0%
Recommend			2.9%	39.8%	52.4%	4.9%
Higher Price	1.0%	13.6%	34.0%	34.0%	14.6%	2.9%
Consider		2.9%	2.9%	52.4%	40.8%	1.0%

In general, as with the other elements of brand equity, the results for Potters cluster at the positive end of the scale (“agree” or “totally agree”). However, there is less support for the dimension of “willingness to pay a higher price”. This is unsurprising as paying a price premium is considered as a higher order, behavioural element of brand loyalty,



expressing a greater commitment to the brand than the other, attitudinal elements measured.

None of the event-based respondents were engage customers, while only one respondent in the comparison sample reported owning any engage products or services. Tables 5.22 and 5.23 report the results of the brand loyalty dimensions for engage among the event-based and comparison samples.

**Table 5.22 engage Brand Loyalty Dimensions (Event-based sample)**

	Totally Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Totally Agree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Loyal	.9%	3.6%	12.7%	4.5%	1.8%	76.4%
Satisfied			4.6%	2.8%		92.6%
Recommend			6.6%	6.6%	.9%	85.8%
Intend to Purchase		.9%	15.2%	3.6%		80.4%
Higher Price		3.6%	8.1%	4.5%		83.8%
Consider	.9%	.9%	.9%	11.8%		85.5%

**Table 5.23 engage Brand Loyalty Dimensions (Comparison sample)**

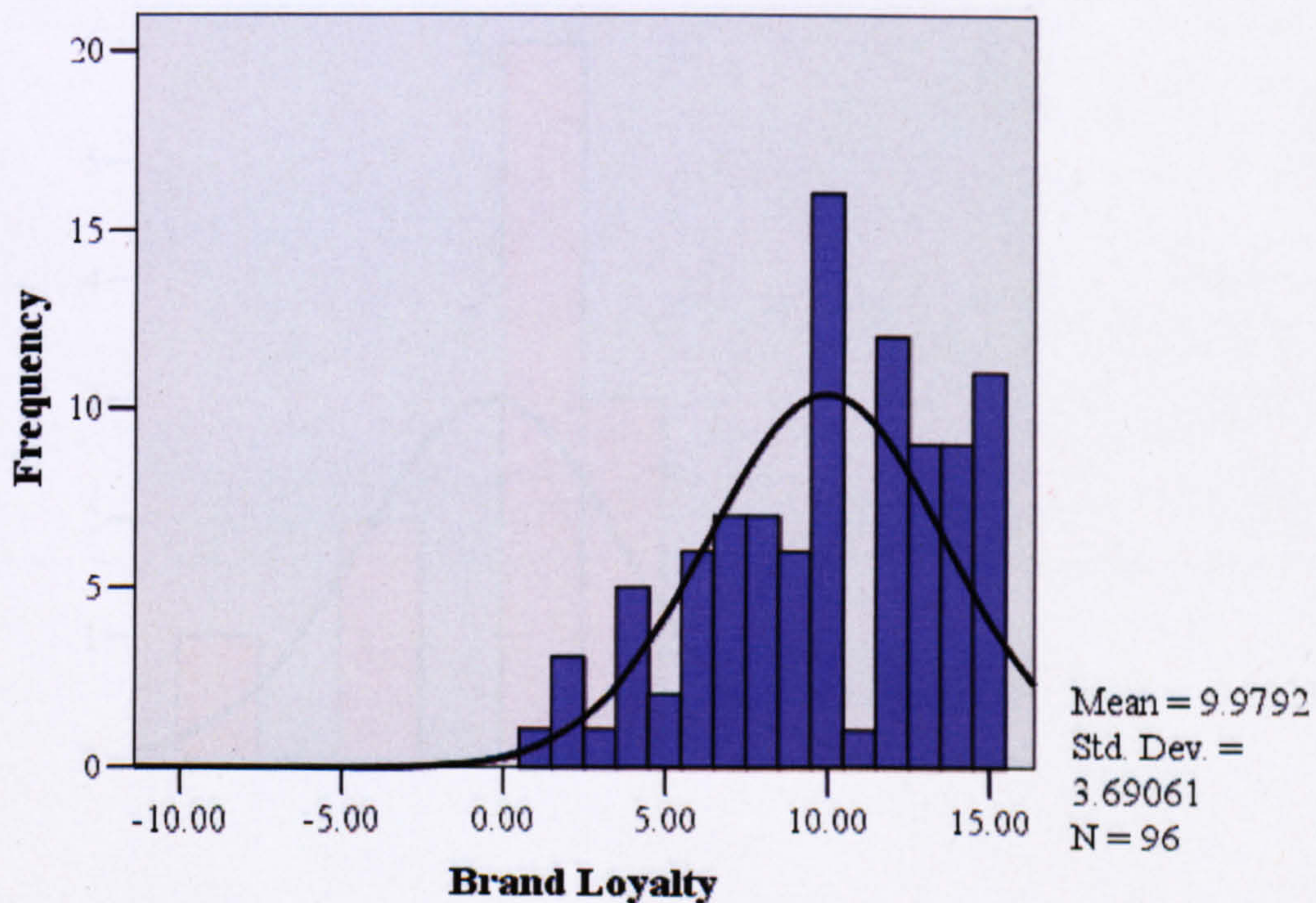
	Totally Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
	%	%	%	%	%
Loyal	7.7%	15.4%	23.1%		53.8%
Satisfied		7.1%	21.4%		71.4%
Recommend	7.7%	7.7%	23.1%		61.5%
Intend to Purchase	14.3%	7.1%	28.6%		50.0%
Higher Price	21.4%	21.4%	28.6%		28.6%
Consider	14.3%	21.4%	14.3%	14.3%	35.7%



As with brand associations and perceived quality, the results for engage (both sample groups) cluster in the “not applicable/don’t know” category, indicating a lack of brand knowledge or attachment. However, among the comparison sample, while 29% of respondents selected “not applicable/don’t know” in response to the behavioural element of paying a price premium, 43% disagreed with this statement, indicating an unwillingness to pay more for engage products/services.

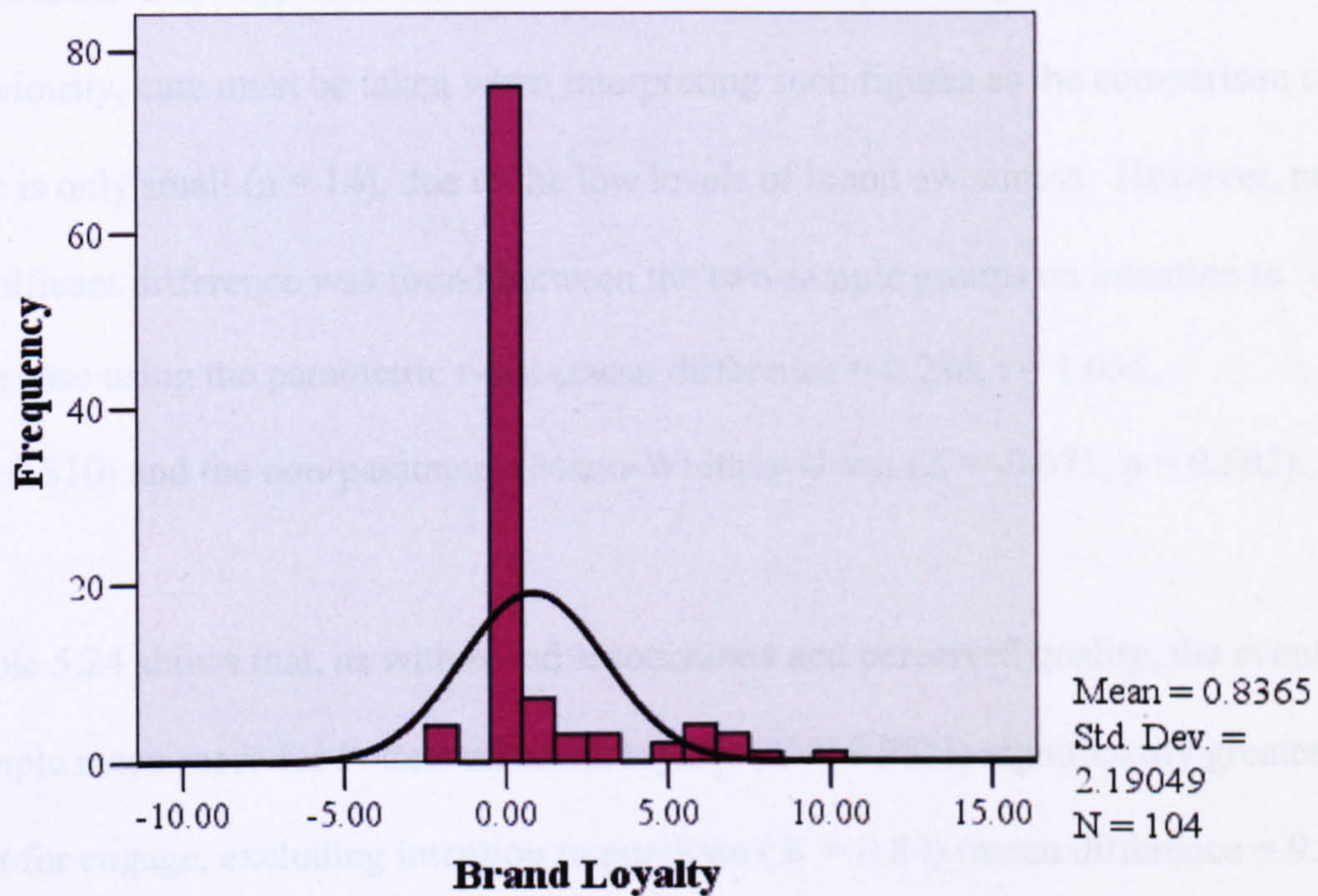
Figures 5.7 to 5.9 below illustrate the cumulative brand loyalty scores for Potters (event sample) and engage (event and comparison samples). For the purposes of comparison, as Potters respondents were not asked to state their intention to visit in the future in the same manner as engage respondents were asked to report intention to purchase, the intention to purchase dimension is not included in the graphs below.

**Figure 5.7 Potters Cumulative Brand Loyalty Scores**

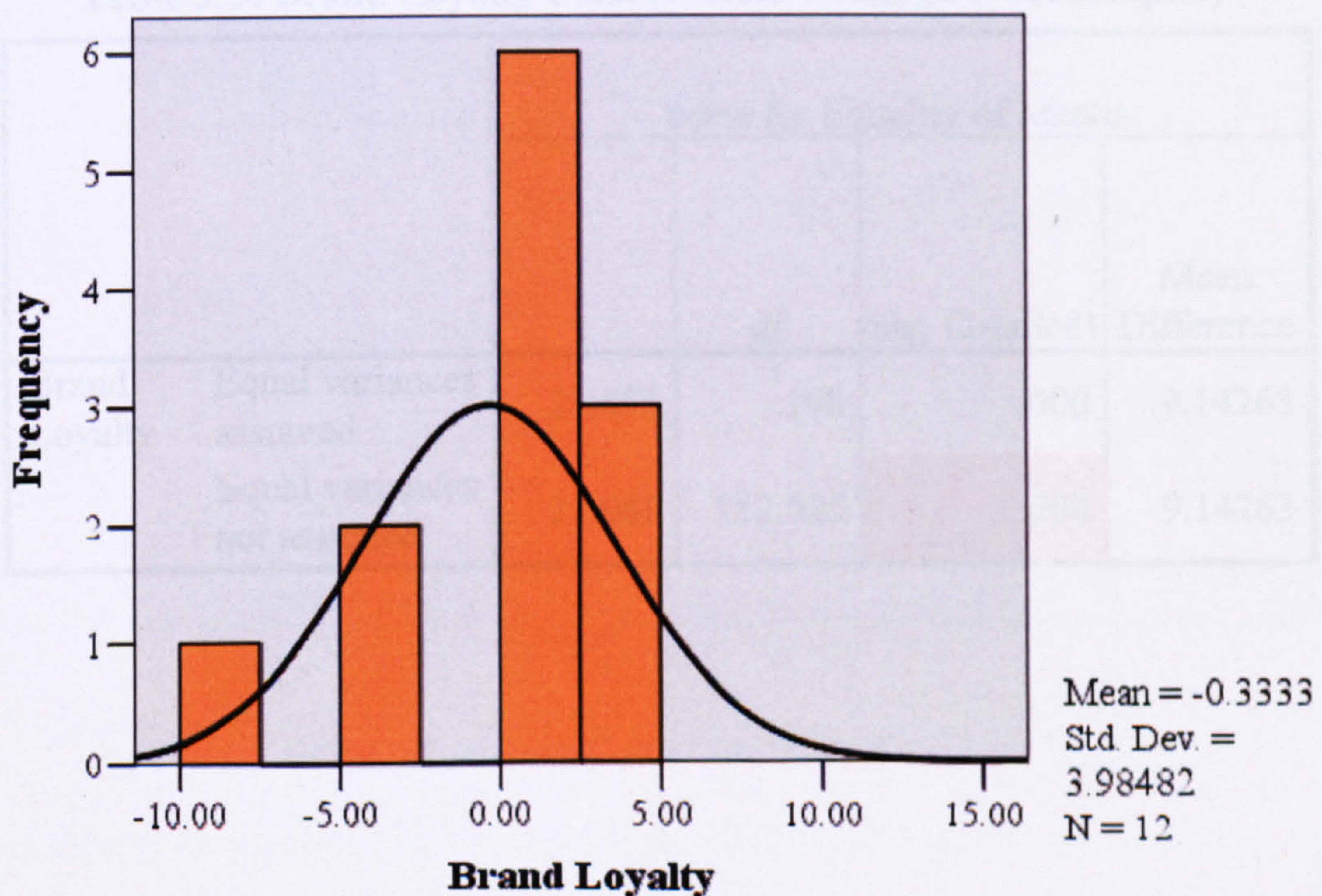




**Figure 5.8 engage Cumulative Brand Loyalty Scores (Event)**



**Figure 5.9 engage Cumulative Brand Loyalty Scores (Comparison)**





Among the engage event sample, the mean intention to purchase score was 0.21 (on a scale from -2 to +3), while the mean score for the comparison group was -0.07.

Obviously, care must be taken when interpreting such figures as the comparison sample size is only small ( $n = 14$ ), due to the low levels of brand awareness. However, no significant difference was found between the two sample groups on intention to purchase using the parametric t-test (mean difference = 0.286,  $t = 1.055$ ,  $p = 0.310$ ) and the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test ( $Z = -0.671$ ,  $p = 0.502$ ).

Table 5.24 shows that, as with brand associations and perceived quality, the event-based sample mean score for Potters on brand loyalty ( $\bar{x} = 9.98$ ) is significantly greater than that for engage, excluding intention to purchase ( $\bar{x} = 0.84$ ) (mean difference = 9.143,  $t = 21.085$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ).

**Table 5.24 Brand Loyalty t-test (Potters v engage event samples)**

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Brand Loyalty	Equal variances assumed	21.495	198	.000	9.14263
	Equal variances not assumed	21.085	152.005	<b>.000</b>	9.14263



The above result is also echoed in the Mann-Whitney U test ( $Z = -11.949$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ).

Once more, support is found for hypothesis  $H_6$  concerning the beneficial impact of sponsors offering product trial opportunities.

Hypothesis  $H_4$  stated that sports sponsorship would have a positive impact upon brand loyalty. The corresponding null hypothesis was that there is no significant difference in brand loyalty between those exposed and those not exposed to sponsorship. Table 5.25 shows that, as with the previous elements of consumer-based brand equity, for engage there is no statistically significant difference between the mean brand loyalty scores for the event-based ( $\bar{x} = 0.84$ ) and the comparison ( $\bar{x} = -0.33$ ) samples (mean difference = 1.170,  $t = 1.000$ ,  $p = 0.338$ ). The t-test result is mirrored in the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test ( $Z = -0.525$ ,  $p = 0.600$ ). Therefore, the null hypothesis is not rejected and no support is found for hypothesis  $H_4$ .

**Table 5.25 Brand Loyalty t-test (engage event v comparison samples)**

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Brand Loyalty	Equal variances assumed	1.584	114	.116	1.16987
	Equal variances not assumed	1.000	11.779	.338	1.16987

Hypothesis  $H_{4a}$  suggested that the impact of sponsorship would be greater for attitudinal elements of brand loyalty (feeling loyal, satisfaction with previous purchase,



recommendation to friends/family, intention to purchase and consideration for next purchase) and lesser for behavioural elements (willingness to pay a higher price). Table 5.26 below shows the results of t-tests for the individual brand loyalty elements comparing the Potters and engage event samples, while Table 5.27 presents the results for the engage event and comparison samples.

**Table 5.26 Individual Brand Loyalty Dimensions t-tests (Potters v engage event samples)**

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Loyal	Equal variances assumed	15.524	209	.000	1.74221
	Equal variances not assumed	15.358	188.080	.000	1.74221
Satisfied	Equal variances assumed	19.189	206	.000	2.09815
	Equal variances not assumed	18.627	122.834	.000	2.09815
Recommend	Equal variances assumed	22.668	207	.000	2.17164
	Equal variances not assumed	22.591	193.458	.000	2.17164
Higher Price	Equal variances assumed	9.131	212	.000	1.16584
	Equal variances not assumed	8.899	136.636	.000	1.16584
Consider	Equal variances assumed	19.767	211	.000	2.05366
	Equal variances not assumed	19.661	200.696	.000	2.05366



In the case of Potters and engage, it is unsurprising that a significant difference is found on all brand loyalty dimensions, attitudinal and behavioural. A significant difference is also found on all dimensions using the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test (see appendix 12 for full tables). The overall level of brand loyalty for Potters is substantially larger than for engage, therefore this is mirrored across all dimensions.

**Table 5.27 Individual Brand Loyalty Dimensions t-tests (engage event-based v comparison samples)**

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Loyal	Equal variances assumed	1.387	121	.168	.29510
	Equal variances not assumed	1.187	13.983	.255	.29510
Satisfied	Equal variances assumed	-.357	120	.722	-.04101
	Equal variances not assumed	-.278	14.801	.785	-.04101
Recommend	Equal variances assumed	1.221	117	.224	.22642
	Equal variances not assumed	.968	13.669	.350	.22642
Higher Price	Equal variances assumed	2.773	123	.006	.49228
	Equal variances not assumed	1.580	13.705	.137	.49228
Consider	Equal variances assumed	1.313	122	.192	.28961
	Equal variances not assumed	.838	14.012	.416	.28961

Using Levene's test, equal variance cannot be assumed for any of the variables in Table 5.27 above, therefore no statistically significant difference is found between the event-based and comparison samples for engage on any individual dimension of brand loyalty. These findings are supported by the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test, which found no significant difference between the event and comparison samples on any individual element of brand loyalty (see appendix 12 for full tables). Consequently, no support is found for hypothesis H<sub>4</sub>(a).

The overall mean scores for brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty for the three sample groups are shown below in Table 5.28. The mean scores for brand loyalty are lower than those for either brand associations or perceived quality for the engage brand among both the event-based and comparison samples. In the case of Potters, the brand loyalty mean score is based on the five variables cited above, while brand associations and perceived quality both contain six dimensions. As such the mean brand loyalty score for Potters was adjusted as follows: the brand loyalty score was divided by five to produce a mean score per variable. This mean score was then added to the overall brand loyalty score. The upwards adjustment therefore facilitated the comparison of brand loyalty scores with those for brand associations and perceived quality. Similarly, for engage, the intention to purchase variable was included in the cumulative brand loyalty score for this analysis in order to achieve a comparable six variables for brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty.

**Table 5.28 Mean scores for Brand Equity Elements**

	Potters (event)	engage (event)	engage (comparison)
Brand Associations	13.031	1.330	1.214
Perceived Quality	11.274	1.216	.643
Brand Loyalty	11.975 <sup>a</sup>	1.029 <sup>b</sup>	-.500 <sup>b</sup>

a. Adjusted upwards as explained above (original value = 9.98)

b. Including "intention to purchase"

Hypothesis H<sub>5</sub> stated that sports sponsorship would have a lesser impact on brand loyalty than on brand associations and perceived quality. The null hypothesis tested was that there is no difference in the impact of sponsorship between brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty.

Using a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), a statistically significant difference was found between the mean brand loyalty scores and the mean brand associations ( $F = 14.468$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ) and perceived quality scores ( $F = 19.885$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ) for the Potters brand, the engage brand among the event sample (brand loyalty - brand associations:  $F = 39.913$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ; brand loyalty – perceived quality:  $F = 32.177$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ) and the engage brand among the comparison sample (brand loyalty – brand associations:  $F = 9.539$ ,  $p = 0.008$ ; brand loyalty – perceived quality:  $F = 35.675$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ). However, given the fact that the effect for engage is seen across both those exposed and those not exposed to the sponsorship, the difference in mean scores could be attributed to the status of brand loyalty as a higher order element of brand equity,



rather than merely exposure to the sponsorship. Consequently, no support is found for hypothesis H<sub>5</sub>. The implications of these results will be discussed fully in Chapter 8.

As shown above in Table 5.28, for Potters the mean brand loyalty score is higher than that for perceived quality. Therefore, for Potters, while there is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores, the overall direction is not as predicted, thus no support is found for hypothesis H<sub>5</sub>. Nonetheless, as outlined above, the mean brand loyalty score for Potters was adjusted upwards based on the mean score of five variables, whereas that for engage was computed based on the reported six variables. Consequently, the higher mean score for brand loyalty for Potters may be a result of the statistical adjustment, which assumes that the mean scores on the five brand loyalty dimensions can be extrapolated to create a six-variable concept.

### **5.12 Impact of Sponsorship Awareness among Comparison Sample**

Although the comparison sample contained respondents not directly exposed to the sponsorship at the event, as outlined in section 5.7 above, 79% of those aware of the engage brand were aware of some sponsorship activity by the company. However, only 7% of those respondents were aware of the bowls sponsorship, contrasted with 57% aware of the Super League title sponsorship (see section 4.6.2 in Chapter 4). The prominence of Super League sponsorship awareness is likely to be a result of greater media coverage (including television) of rugby league than bowls.

The mean scores of those aware of engage sponsorship were higher than those of respondents not aware of the sponsorship for brand associations (aware = 1.36, not aware = 0.67,  $t = 0.314$ ,  $p = 0.759$ ), perceived quality (aware = 0.91, not aware = -1.00,  $t = 0.500$ ,  $p = 0.665$ ) and brand loyalty (aware = 0.20, not aware = -3.0,  $t = 0.526$ ,  $p = 0.688$ ), however none of these differences were statistically significant.

As with all data on the engage brand, care is required when interpreting the above figures due to the small sample size of respondents aware of the brand. Therefore, while knowledge of engage sponsorship activities appears to have a small impact upon the elements of brand equity among the comparison sample, the difference is not significant, indicating that mere knowledge of a sponsorship is not sufficient to build brand equity.

### **5.13 Impact of Customer Status**

Section 5.6 above explained that by the nature of attending the event, all spectators were customers of Potters. However, within the event-based sample, 65% of respondents were actually staying at the Potters Leisure Resort, while the remaining 35% were visiting for the day to watch the bowls. Therefore, while both groups experienced the Potters brand, it is logical to imply that those staying at the resort would have had a greater trial experience than those simply visiting for the day.



The mean scores for brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty were higher for respondents staying at Potters Leisure Resort than for those visiting for the day, however these differences were only significant for brand associations (mean difference = 1.872,  $t = 2.630$ ,  $p = 0.010$ ) and brand loyalty (mean difference = 1.856,  $t = 2.621$ ,  $p = 0.010$ ). Thus, unsurprisingly brand equity is higher among customers who have had a more extensive product experience.

### **5.14 Sponsorship and Brand Preference**

Event-based respondents to the Potters questionnaire were asked to respond to the following question:

- Potters sponsors the World Indoor Bowls Championships. Knowing this, how has your opinion of the brand changed?

Responses were recorded on a 5-point scale from “like a lot more” to “like a lot less”.

Event-based and comparison sample respondents to the engage questionnaire were asked to respond to the following question:

- engage sponsors the Ladies World Matchplay Bowls. Knowing this, how has your opinion of the brand changed?

Responses were recorded on a 5-point scale from “like a lot more” to “like a lot less”.

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Both the Potters and engage event-based samples were also asked to respond to the following question:

- Please state your agreement with the following statement: I would choose a brand which sponsors bowls over one which does not.

Responses were recorded on a 5-point scale from “totally agree” to “totally disagree”.

Table 5.29 below indicates that 55% of respondents claimed to like the Potters brand at least a little more upon knowing of the bowls sponsorship. 46% of event-based respondents claimed to like engage at least a little more with knowledge of the sponsorship of bowls.

**Table 5.29 Sponsorship brand image change (Potters v engage event samples)**

			Event Title		Total
			World Bowls	Ladies Bowls	
Sponsorship brand image change	Like a lot less	Count	0	1	1
		% within Event Title	.0%	1.9%	.6%
	Like a little less	Count	0	1	1
		% within Event Title	.0%	1.9%	.6%
	Like the same as before	Count	46	27	73
		% within Event Title	44.7%	50.0%	46.5%
	Like a little more	Count	19	12	31
		% within Event Title	18.4%	22.2%	19.7%
	Like a lot more	Count	38	13	51
		% within Event Title	36.9%	24.1%	32.5%
Total	Count	103	54	157	
	% within Event Title	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	



Table 5.30 below illustrates that there was no impact upon brand image among the comparison sample for engage given the knowledge of the brand's bowls sponsorship. In contrast, 46% of event-based respondents reported liking engage at least a little more as a result of knowing about the bowls sponsorship.

**Table 5.30 Sponsorship brand image change (engage event-based v comparison samples)**

			Event Title		Total
			Ladies Bowls	engage Comparison	
Sponsorship brand image change	Like a lot less	Count	1	0	1
		% within Event Title	1.9%	.0%	1.5%
	Like a little less	Count	1	0	1
		% within Event Title	1.9%	.0%	1.5%
	Like the same as before	Count	27	11	38
		% within Event Title	50.0%	100.0%	58.5%
	Like a little more	Count	12	0	12
		% within Event Title	22.2%	.0%	18.5%
	Like a lot more	Count	13	0	13
		% within Event Title	24.1%	.0%	20.0%
Total	Count	54	11	65	
	% within Event Title	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

Table 5.31 below indicates that 58% of respondents at the bowls event (Potters and engage respondents combined) were in agreement with the statement that they would choose a brand which sponsors bowls over one which does not. Therefore, in addition to the support for the claims of sponsorship to change brand image, these results indicate that sponsorship may also have an influence over consumer choice.

**Table 5.31 Would choose bowls sponsors over competitors**

		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Agree	41	26.3	26.3
	Agree	49	31.4	57.7
	Neither agree nor disagree	49	31.4	89.1
	Disagree	11	7.1	96.2
	Totally Disagree	6	3.8	100.0
	Total	156	100.0	
Missing		66		
Total		222		

### **5.15 Conclusion**

This chapter has presented the results from the research conducted at the World Indoor Bowls Championships for two sponsors: Potters Holidays and engage, along with the comparison sample group not at the event (for engage only). Following the presentation of demographic data on the samples, the chapter examined each element of brand equity along with sponsorship awareness. Support was found for hypothesis H<sub>1</sub> relating to brand awareness in the case of engage, with a significantly higher number of event-based respondents than respondents not directly exposed to the sponsorship being aware of the brand.

No significant difference was found between the two sample groups for engage (event-based and comparison) on the dimensions of brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty, therefore no support was found for hypotheses H<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>3</sub> and H<sub>4</sub>. In the comparison of Potters and engage, Potters scored significantly higher on brand



associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty, thus hypothesis H<sub>6</sub> was supported, with the sponsor offering product trial opportunities gaining higher scores. However, in making this judgement, it is important to note that the presence of product trial was not the only difference between Potters and engage, therefore other factors, such as length of sponsorship and age of brand could have acted upon the results. This argument will be pursued further in Chapter 8, in the discussion of the results and their implications.

The overall mean scores for engage were significantly lower for brand loyalty than for either brand associations or perceived quality. However, this effect was consistent across both the event-based and comparison samples. Therefore, no support was found for hypothesis H<sub>5</sub>.

The implications of the results presented here will be discussed in Chapter 8, in the context of all of the events studied. The following chapter will discuss the results for the Norwich Union Grand Prix athletics sponsorship, with data collected at events held in Birmingham in February 2007 and Sheffield in July 2007.

## **Chapter 6: Results – Grand Prix Athletics**

### **6.1 Introduction**

The aim of this chapter is to present the results of data collected at the Norwich Union Indoor Grand Prix athletics event in Birmingham on Saturday 17<sup>th</sup> February 2007 and the Norwich Union Grand Prix (outdoor) athletics event in Sheffield on Sunday 15<sup>th</sup> July 2007. In addition to the event-based data, a questionnaire was sent out to a random sample of members of a voluntary organisation of which the author is a member and who represent the wider population who were not attending the athletics events.

Comparative analysis of the two respondent groups (event- and non event-based) on the demographic variables of gender, age and household income will be presented below. Data collected from the comparison group not at the event will be presented in the same manner as that for the event-based sample. The data from the two athletics events are combined to produce one overall event-based sample. The two event-based samples are combined in order to facilitate the use of cross-tabulation by securing an adequate sample size. As will be further explained below, no significant differences were found between the two event-based samples on any of the variables examined, therefore there appears no statistical limitation to combining the data.

The chapter will begin with a brief overview of the two athletics events and the Norwich Union brand before proceeding to present both descriptive and inferential



statistics for the two respondent groups around the themes of sponsorship awareness and brand equity (brand awareness, brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty). The data will be presented on a variable by variable basis in the same format as that adopted in Chapter 5. A full discussion of the implications of the results will be included in Chapter 8.

## **6.2 Athletics Sponsorship**

Athletics sponsorship is dominated by Norwich Union, which sponsors seven major UK events, along with the Great Britain & Northern Ireland team (Norwich Union, 2007a). Other corporate sponsors of UK Athletics are: adidas, SPAR, Scholl, Heidsieck & Co Monopole, Vonage, Aqua-Pura, STAR TRAC, Polar, Powerbreathe and Alfa Romeo (UK Athletics, 2007). Additionally, the well-known London Marathon is sponsored by Flora. Athletics was the 6<sup>th</sup> most sponsored sport in the UK in 2005 in terms of number of companies and number of deals (Intel, 2006).

## **6.3 Event Information**

The Norwich Union Indoor Grand Prix is one of the largest indoor athletics events in the United Kingdom, attracting a strong field of athletes from around the world. The event took place at the National Indoor Arena in Birmingham, with an on-site audience of 5,546. The event was televised live on the national terrestrial channel BBC1 for three hours between 2.30pm and 5.30pm.

The Norwich Union Grand Prix (outdoor) is also one of the largest UK-based athletics meetings, with an international field of athletes competing in both track and field disciplines. The event was held at the Don Valley Stadium in Sheffield, with an on-site audience of 7,718. The event was also televised live on BBC2.

#### **6.4 The Norwich Union Brand**

Norwich Union is part of the AVIVA Group, the fifth largest insurance group worldwide and the leading insurance services provider in the United Kingdom (Norwich Union, 2007b). The main activities of Norwich Union are general insurance, long-term savings and fund management (Norwich Union, 2007c).

Norwich Union is the number one sponsor of UK athletics (Norwich Union, 2007a).

The company began sponsoring athletics in 1999 and has since extended its commitment to the sport until 2012, signing a 6 year deal worth £50 million (£8.3 million per year) in 2006 (Intel, 2006). At both events where data was collected, the profile of Norwich Union was very strong, with a large number of hoardings around the arenas and in all spectator areas. In addition to this, the sponsorship was leveraged on-site through the distribution of “goodie bags” containing branded merchandise, event-related free gifts (such as clapping hands) and product information.

Beyond the venues, the Norwich Union athletics sponsorship is comprehensively leveraged through associated development programmes and roadshows. 20% of Norwich Union’s sponsorship investment is in grassroots athletics development

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programmes such as Star:track, Shine:awards and Sports:hall (Norwich Union, 2007d). The integration of the grassroots and elite sponsorship reinforces the commitment of Norwich Union to athletics as fans are likely to be exposed to the brand in both a participation and spectator capacity. The importance of sponsorship leverage in building consumer-based brand equity is discussed in Chapter 8.

### **6.5 Demographic Data**

Data was collected at the Norwich Union Indoor Grand Prix ( $n = 134$ ) and Norwich Union Grand Prix (outdoor) ( $n = 72$ ) (combined event-based sample  $n = 206$ ) and via a postal questionnaire to a group of respondents not present at the athletics events ( $n = 141$ ). 284 postal questionnaires were sent out, with 144 returned, of which 141 yielded useable data. The response rate for the comparison group was thus 49.6%.

49% of respondents at the events were female, compared with 38% among the comparison group. A broad spread of ages was obtained in both samples, with 29% and 26% aged under 35 at the events and in the comparison group respectively. 44% of event-based respondents and 37% of the comparison group reported a household income below £30000. Chi-square tests were carried out on the variables of gender, age and household income. A significant difference was found between the two groups for gender ( $\chi^2 (1) = 4.066, p = 0.044$ ), age ( $\chi^2 (5) = 20.295, p = 0.001$ ) and household income ( $\chi^2 (5) = 14.622, p = 0.012$ ). However, there is no evidence in the extant literature to suggest that demographic variables impact substantially upon brand equity judgements.

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31% of event-based respondents were existing customers of Norwich Union, while 46% had never owned any of the company's products or services. Among the comparison group, 37% were existing customers, with 37% having never been a Norwich Union customer. No significant difference was found between the customer status of the two groups ( $\chi^2(2) = 3.226, p = 0.199$ ). Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that the impact of customer status is controlled across the two groups.

## **6.6 Sponsorship Awareness**

As explained in Chapter 3, the construct of awareness can be broken into recall and recognition, with the first brand name recalled being referred to as top-of-mind-awareness (TOMA). Table 6.1 below outlines TOMA for athletics sponsors among the event-based sample. Norwich Union was the first sponsor named by 78% of respondents, indicating very strong awareness of the sponsorship.

**Table 6.1 Sponsorship Top-of-mind Awareness**

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Norwich Union	161	78.2
Nike	11	5.3
adidas	9	4.4
Other	16	7.8
None	9	4.4
Total	206	100.0



Aided awareness (recognition) for Norwich Union was 92% (Table 6.2 below), with Flora (a prominent sponsor of premier UK athletics event the London Marathon) the next highest at 77%. Many sponsors achieved high aided sponsorship awareness levels, however this is likely to be due to the presence of track-side signage within the arenas where the data collection took place.

**Table 6.2 Aided Sponsor Recognition**

	Yes	
	Count	%
Norwich Union	190	92.2%
Flora	124	60.2%
adidas	103	50.0%
Lucozade	93	45.1%
Nike	87	42.2%
SPAR	70	34.0%
Standard Life	31	15.0%
Direct Line	17	8.3%
Cadbury's	15	7.3%

Awareness not just of the sponsorship but of Norwich Union as title sponsor of the Grand Prix athletics was also very high (95%), indicating a strong link between the event and the sponsor – a necessary prerequisite for any image transfer to occur.

In contrast, among the comparison group, only 38% of respondents were aware of any sponsorship by Norwich Union. However, of those aware of sponsorship, 89% named athletics as a sport sponsored by Norwich Union. Therefore, while the unaided sponsorship recall for the brand is generally not very high, among those who were

aware of sponsorship, the association with athletics was very strong. This indicates the prominence of athletics within the sponsorship portfolio of Norwich Union, undoubtedly aided by the television coverage of seven major athletics events sponsored by Norwich Union throughout the year (Norwich Union, 2007a).

Unsurprisingly, sponsorship awareness is much higher among the event-based sample than the comparison group, thus supporting the contention that sponsorship of a sporting property can aid brand visibility. However, sponsorship awareness is only a preliminary measure towards more general brand awareness. Therefore, the chapter will now continue with an examination of the results for brand awareness from the two samples.

### **6.7 Brand Awareness**

Hypothesis H<sub>1</sub> suggested that sports sponsorship would have a positive impact upon brand awareness, with a greater proportion of event-based respondents being aware of the Norwich Union brand than respondents in the comparison group. Using the concept of falsification outlined in Chapter 4, the corresponding null hypothesis was that there would be no significant difference in brand awareness between those exposed and those not exposed to the sponsorship.

As the number one UK provider of general insurance and long-term savings (Norwich Union, 2007c), Norwich Union commands a very high profile within the financial services marketplace. Thus, it is unsurprising that brand awareness levels are extremely



high for both the event-based (99%) and comparison (98%) samples. No significant difference in name awareness was found between the indoor athletics and outdoor athletics event-based samples ( $\chi^2(1) = 1.347, p = 0.246$ ), thus supporting the use of a combined sample group.

Brand awareness, as discussed in Chapter 3, does not simply comprise mere knowledge of the existence of the brand, but also requires an association between the brand and the appropriate product/service category, in this case financial services. As shown in Table 6.3 below, insurance was the most frequently first cited product association for both those at the events (78%) and those in the comparison sample (84%), while only 5% and 4% were unable to name any product/service associated with Norwich Union, among the event-based and comparison samples respectively. Therefore, in line with the high levels of name awareness, the Norwich Union brand also enjoys high levels of brand awareness in terms of correct category associations among both sample groups.

**Table 6.3 First Product Association \* Sample Group Crosstabulation**

			Sample Group		Total
			Event-based	Comparison	
First Product Association	Insurance	Count	160	119	279
		% within Sample Group	77.7%	84.4%	80.4%
	Other Financial Services	Count	35	17	52
		% within Sample Group	17.0%	12.1%	15.0%
	Other	Count	11	5	16
		% within Sample Group	5.3%	3.5%	4.6%
Total	Count	206	141	347	
	% within Sample Group	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

There is no significant difference in name awareness scores ( $\chi^2(1) = 0.222, p = 0.637$ ) or product associations ( $\chi^2(3) = 7.547, p = 0.056$ ) between the two groups, thus in this case the null hypothesis is not rejected and consequently there is no support for hypothesis H<sub>1</sub>. Once again, no significant difference was found between the indoor and outdoor athletics event samples on the variable of product associations ( $\chi^2(3) = 4.632, p = 0.201$ ). The brand awareness results are unsurprising in the context of Norwich Union as a market leader and a company which engages in extensive marketing communications, including frequent prime-time television advertising.

As mentioned in Chapter 5, Aaker's (1996) brand equity measurement tool contains an indication of whether a respondent has an opinion about the brand in question as part of the wider brand awareness measure. Brand opinion was measured using a Likert scale from "totally agree" (score = 3) to "totally disagree" (score = -2). The mean score for the event-based sample was 1.16, which was significantly higher than the mean score of 0.71 among the comparison sample (mean difference = 0.451,  $t = 3.515, p = 0.001$ ).

While both mean scores are low, more respondents in the event-based than comparison sample claimed to have an opinion about the Norwich Union brand, indicating that sponsorship may contribute to the formation of brand opinions/attitudes.

## **6.8 Brand Associations**

In line with the data collection instrument outlined in Chapter 4, brand associations were measured using Likert scale questions asking respondents (both event- and non-event-based) to state their level of agreement with the following statements:

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1. I trust Norwich Union;
2. Norwich Union is different from other brands of financial services;
3. There are definite reasons to buy products/services from Norwich Union rather than other providers;
4. The Norwich Union brand has a distinctive personality;
5. Norwich Union offers worse value for money than other brands;
6. I have a clear image of the type of person who would use Norwich Union products/services.

As discussed in Chapter 4, the individual responses to these questions were summed to produce a single brand associations score.

Table 6.4 below summarises the responses to the individual questions provided by the event-based respondents, while Table 6.5 considers the results of the comparison sample.

**Table 6.4 Brand Associations (Event-based Sample)**

	Totally Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Totally Agree	Don't Know/Not Applicable
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Trust	.5%	3.0%	43.8%	36.5%	5.9%	10.3%
Different	1.0%	12.1%	59.8%	10.1%	1.0%	16.1%
Reasons to Buy	2.0%	8.4%	51.0%	18.3%	3.5%	16.8%
Distinctive Personality	.5%	8.0%	40.5%	33.5%	4.5%	13.0%
Worse Value	.5%	3.0%	46.5%	22.8%	4.0%	23.3%
User Image	2.0%	9.5%	51.2%	13.9%	2.5%	20.9%

**Table 6.5 Brand Associations (Comparison)**

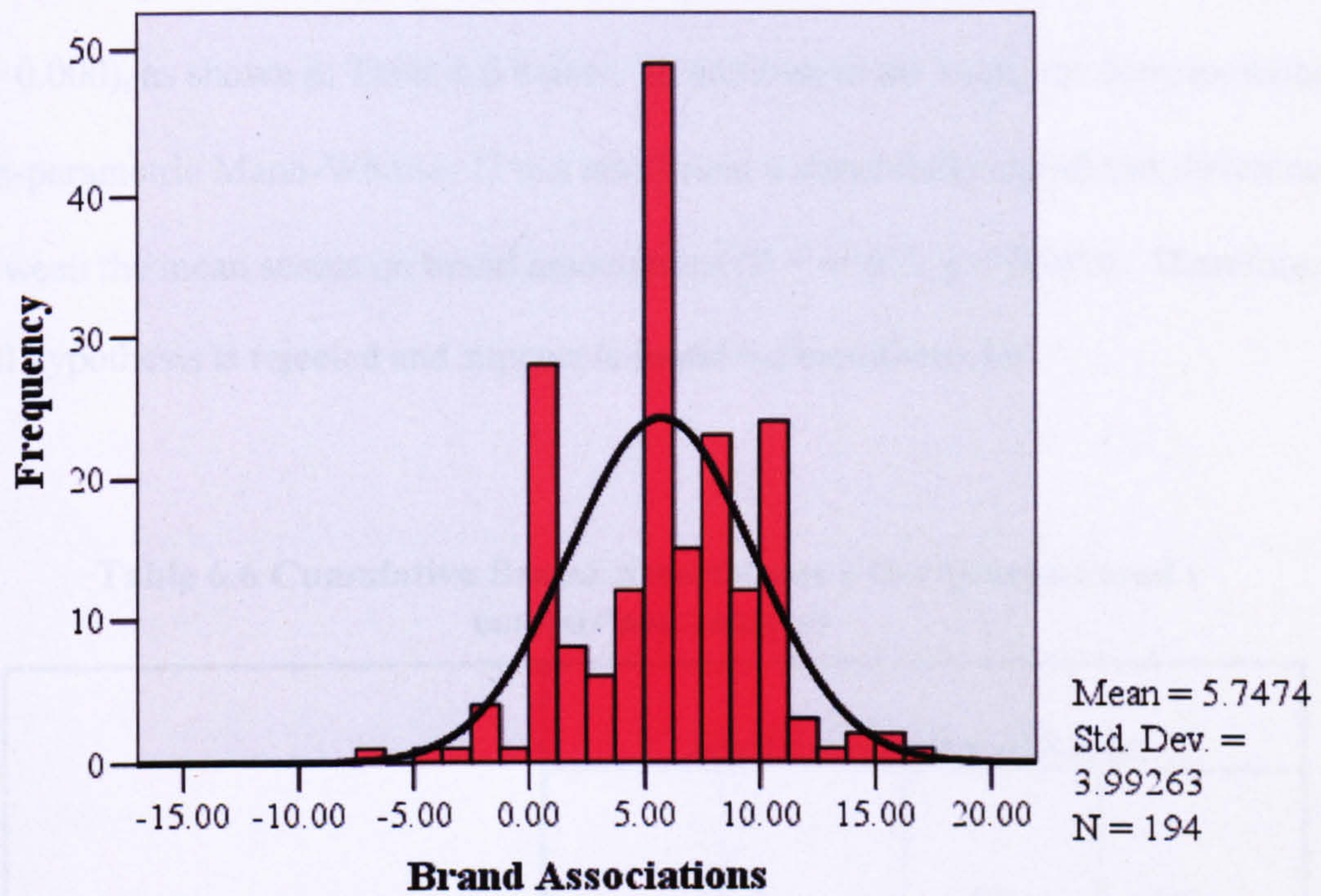
	Totally Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Totally Agree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Trust	1.4%	2.9%	41.3%	38.4%	5.8%	10.1%
Different	2.9%	21.3%	51.5%	5.9%	.7%	17.6%
Reasons to Buy	2.9%	15.3%	51.1%	10.9%	2.9%	16.8%
Distinctive Personality	.7%	16.8%	40.9%	23.4%	1.5%	16.8%
Worse Value	.7%	5.1%	47.1%	16.9%	1.5%	28.7%
User Image	2.2%	26.8%	37.7%	9.4%		23.9%

The responses cluster markedly around the central “neither agree nor disagree” option for both the event-based sample and the comparison group, indicating a level of indifference towards the Norwich Union brand. The overall brand associations scores for each sample group are illustrated in Figures 6.1 and 6.2 below. No significant difference in brand associations scores was found between the respondents at the two events (mean difference = -0.049,  $t = -0.082$ ,  $p = 0.935$ ), therefore it is deemed acceptable to combine the data for overall analysis purposes.

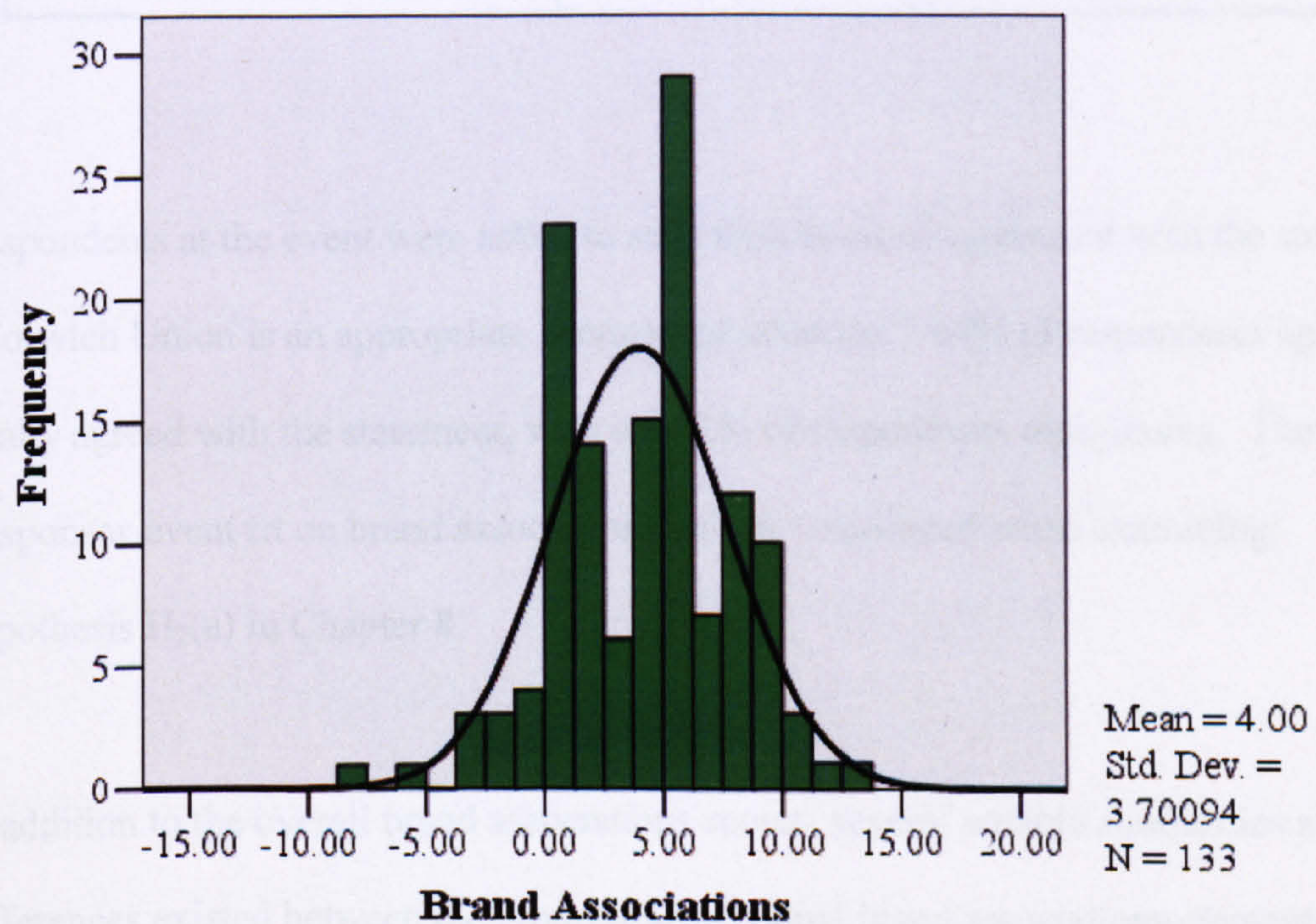
Hypothesis H<sub>2</sub> stated that sports sponsorship would have a positive impact upon brand associations. Therefore, the corresponding null hypothesis tested was that there is no significant difference between mean brand associations scores for those exposed and those not exposed to sponsorship.



**Figure 6.1 Cumulative Brand Associations Scores (Event)**



**Figure 6.2 Cumulative Brand Associations Scores (Comparison)**





The mean score for the event-based sample ( $\bar{x} = 5.75$ ) is significantly greater than that for the comparison group ( $\bar{x} = 4.00$ ) (mean difference = 1.75,  $t = 4.004$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ), as shown in Table 6.6 below. In addition to the t-test, the corresponding non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test also found a statistically significant difference between the mean scores on brand associations ( $Z = -4.013$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ). Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected and support is found for hypothesis  $H_2$ .

**Table 6.6 Cumulative Brand Associations t-test (Event-based v comparison sample)**

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Cumulative Brand Associations	Equal variances assumed	4.004	325	.000	1.74742
	Equal variances not assumed	4.061	297.251	.000	1.74742

Respondents at the event were asked to state their level of agreement with the statement: “Norwich Union is an appropriate sponsor for athletics.” 64% of respondents agreed or totally agreed with the statement, with only 2% of respondents disagreeing. The impact of sponsor-event fit on brand associations will be considered when examining hypothesis  $H_2(a)$  in Chapter 8.

In addition to the overall brand associations scores, several notable similarities and differences existed between the groups on individual brand associations elements.



The Norwich Union brand scored particularly highly on the element of trust with 42% of event-based respondents and 44% of the comparison group selecting “agree” or “totally agree” with the appropriate statement. Thus, as shown in Table 6.7 below, no significant difference was found between those exposed to the event sponsorship and those not (mean difference = -0.008,  $t = -0.083$ ,  $p = 0.934$ ). In the context of a financial services provider, trust is considered a very important attribute (Harrison, 2000), because not only are consumers entrusting their finances with the institution but equally, the long-term nature of many financial products makes them very difficult to evaluate pre-purchase. Therefore, extrinsic cues such as trustworthiness are used in the purchase decision. Consequently, a high score on the trust attribute represents a positive brand association for Norwich Union. The high score among both sample groups indicates that the sponsorship alone is not communicating the attribute of trust. This is most likely explained by the prominent market position of Norwich Union as a well-established brand rather than as the result of any individual marketing communication.

As shown below in Table 6.7, significant differences were found between the event-based sample and the comparison group on the dimensions of difference from competitors (mean difference = 0.306,  $t = 2.874$ ,  $p = 0.004$ ), reason to purchase (mean difference = 0.251,  $t = 2.217$ ,  $p = 0.027$ ), distinctive personality (mean difference = 0.383,  $t = 3.359$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ), value compared to competitors (mean difference = 0.213,  $t = 2.190$ ,  $p = 0.029$ ) and clear brand user image (mean difference = 0.478,  $t = 4.310$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ). Significant differences on the above mentioned brand associations dimensions were also found using the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test (see appendix 13 for full tables).

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**Table 6.7 Individual Brand Associations Dimensions t-tests (Event-based v comparison sample)**

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Trust	Equal variances assumed	.083	339	.934	.00832
	Equal variances not assumed	.082	281.787	.934	.00832
Different	Equal variances assumed	2.944	333	.003	.30609
	Equal variances not assumed	2.874	265.136	<b>.004</b>	.30609
Reason to purchase	Equal variances assumed	2.217	337	<b>.027</b>	.25060
	Equal variances not assumed	2.190	279.544	.029	.25060
Distinctive personality	Equal variances assumed	3.359	335	<b>.001</b>	.38277
	Equal variances not assumed	3.319	279.940	.001	.38277
Worse value than competitors	Equal variances assumed	2.190	336	<b>.029</b>	.21324
	Equal variances not assumed	2.201	294.728	.028	.21324
Clear user image	Equal variances assumed	4.356	337	.000	.47772
	Equal variances not assumed	4.310	283.284	<b>.000</b>	.47772

As outlined in Chapter 3, sponsorship is considered particularly useful for creating abstract image associations and differentiation, personality and user image all fit within this category, thus providing empirical support for the theoretical claims made about the role of sports sponsorship. The insurance market is dominated by price, with most purchase decisions made on the lowest available price from brands within the



consumer's consideration set. As such, these (intangible) associations may help to secure the brand's position in the consideration set.

### **6.9 Perceived Quality**

Perceived quality was measured using Likert scale questions asking respondents (both event- and non-event- based) to state their level of agreement with the following statements:

1. Norwich Union is of high quality;
2. Norwich Union is a brand I respect;
3. Norwich Union is a leader in financial services;
4. Norwich Union is a brand that is growing in popularity;
5. Norwich Union offers innovative products and services.

Respondents were also asked to rate Norwich Union in comparison with other financial services providers on a scale from "the best" to "the worst."

Tables 6.8 and 6.9 below summarise the responses to the individual questions provided by the event-based respondents, while Tables 6.10 and 6.11 consider the results of the comparison group. The results for both groups cluster in "neither agree nor disagree" and "agree", indicating an overall positive attitude towards the brand on quality dimensions. Similarly, 73% and 69% of respondents rated Norwich Union as better or

at least the same as competitors in the event-based and comparison samples respectively, thus emphasising the dominant market position of the brand.

Table 6.8 Perceived Quality (Event-based Sample)

	Totally Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Totally Agree	Don't Know/Not Applicable
	%	%	%	%	%	%
High Quality		1.0%	32.2%	49.0%	5.0%	12.9%
Respect	1.0%	3.5%	33.7%	48.5%	5.4%	7.9%
Leader	.5%	4.0%	39.2%	33.7%	7.0%	15.6%
Popularity		1.0%	42.3%	32.3%	2.0%	22.4%
Innovative	.5%	2.5%	51.7%	16.9%	2.5%	25.9%

Table 6.9 Comparison with other financial services providers  
(Event-based sample)

		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	The best	1	.5	.5
	One of the best	73	36.9	37.4
	About the same	71	35.9	73.3
	One of the worst	3	1.5	74.8
	Don't know	50	25.3	100.0
	Total	198	100.0	
Missing		8		
Total		206		



Table 6.10: Perceived Quality (Comparison)

	Totally Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Totally Agree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
	%	%	%	%	%	%
High Quality	.7%	2.2%	31.9%	47.8%	8.0%	9.4%
Respect	1.4%	3.6%	32.6%	48.6%	5.8%	8.0%
Leader	1.5%	9.5%	44.5%	23.4%	3.6%	17.5%
Popularity		2.9%	44.5%	21.2%		31.4%
Innovative		5.8%	50.7%	12.3%		31.2%

Table 6.11: Comparison with other financial services providers  
(Comparison)

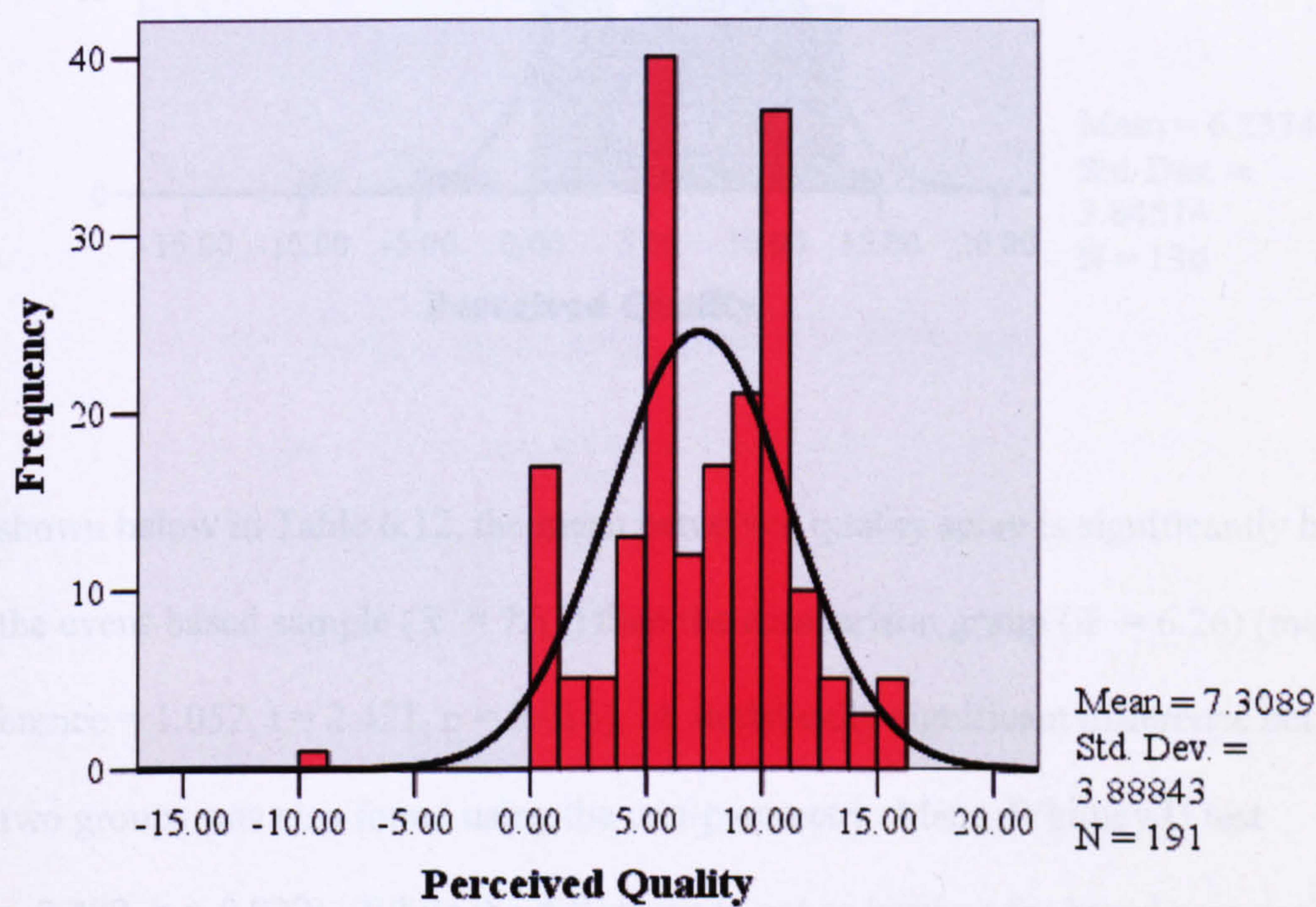
		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	One of the best	39	28.5	28.5
	About the same	55	40.1	68.6
	One of the worst	2	1.5	70.1
	The worst	1	.7	70.8
	Don't know	40	29.2	100.0
	Total	137	100.0	
Missing		4		
Total		141		

The overall perceived quality scores for each sample group are illustrated in Figures 6.3 and 6.4 below. As with brand awareness and brand associations, there was no significant difference in scores for perceived quality between the indoor and outdoor athletics event-based samples (mean difference = -0.408, t = -0.688, p = 0.492), therefore supporting the use of combined data.



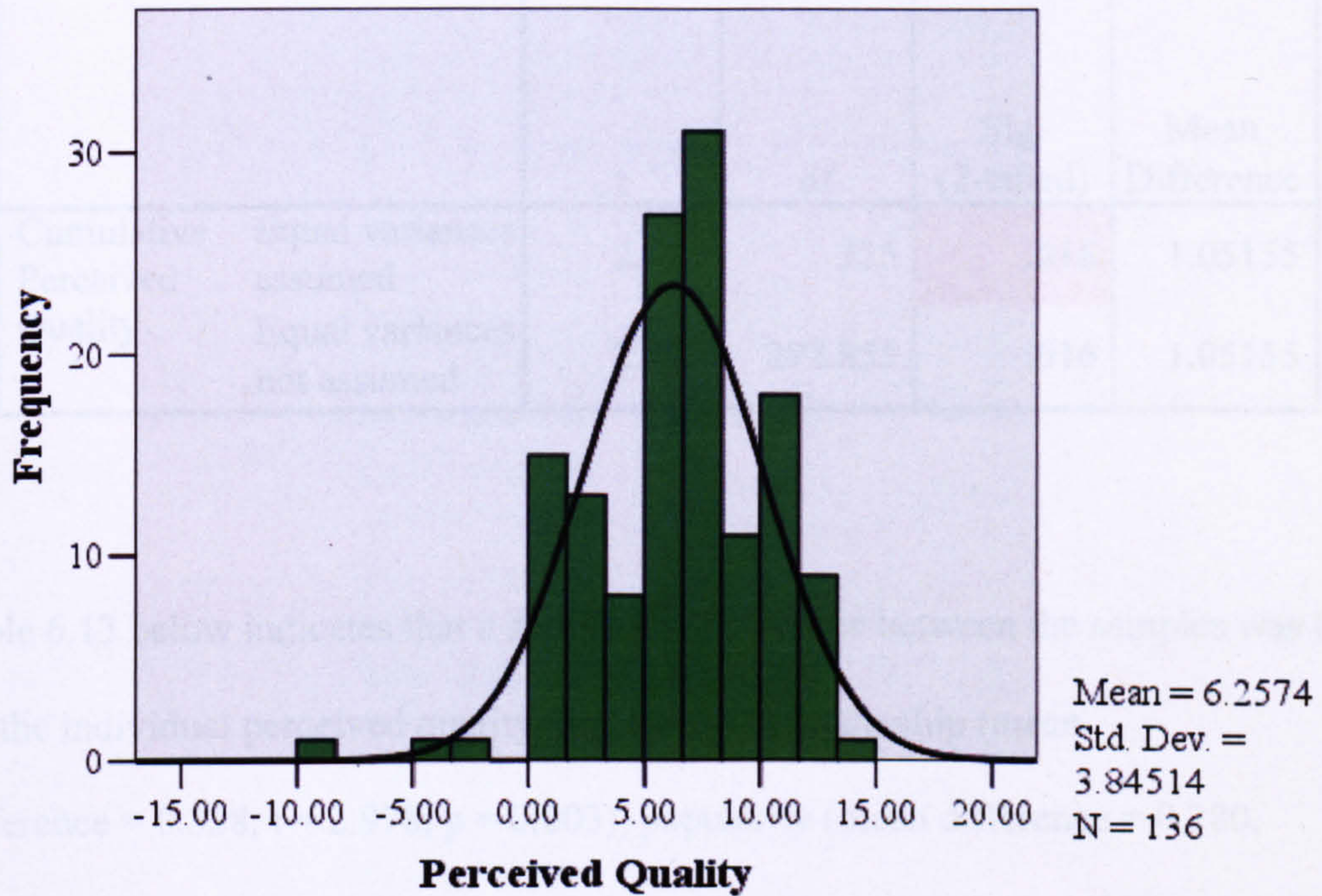
Hypothesis H<sub>3</sub> suggested that sports sponsorship would have a positive impact upon perceived quality, therefore the corresponding null hypothesis tested was that there is no significant difference in perceived quality scores between those exposed and those not exposed to the sponsorship.

Figure 6.3 Cumulative Perceived Quality Scores (Event)





**Figure 6.4: Cumulative Perceived Quality Scores (Comparison)**



As shown below in Table 6.12, the mean perceived quality score is significantly higher for the event-based sample ( $\bar{x} = 7.31$ ) than the comparison group ( $\bar{x} = 6.26$ ) (mean difference = 1.052,  $t = 2.421$ ,  $p = 0.016$ ). A statistically significant difference between the two groups was also found using the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test ( $Z = -2.282$ ,  $p = 0.022$ ). While the difference is not as large as for brand associations, the above results indicate a significant, positive impact of sponsorship exposure on perceived quality scores; therefore the null hypothesis is rejected and support is found for hypothesis  $H_3$ .



Table 6.12 Perceived Quality t-test (Event-based v comparison sample)

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Cumulative Perceived Quality	Equal variances assumed	2.421	325	.016	1.05155
	Equal variances not assumed	2.426	292.855	.016	1.05155

Table 6.13 below indicates that a significant difference between the samples was found for the individual perceived quality dimensions of leadership (mean difference = 0.328,  $t = 2.978$ ,  $p = 0.003$ ), popularity (mean difference = 0.280,  $t = 3.155$ ,  $p = 0.002$ ) and innovation (mean difference = 0.200,  $t = 2.279$ ,  $p = 0.023$ ). Statistically significant differences between the groups' scores on these dimensions were also found using the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test (see appendix 13 for full tables). The qualities of popularity and leadership are intangible associations commonly sought through image transfer from the sponsored property to the sponsor, thus such findings are consistent with the accepted role of sponsorship.



**Table 6.13 Individual Perceived Quality Dimensions t-tests (Event-based v comparison sample)**

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
High Quality	Equal variances assumed	-.400	338	.690	-.03767
	Equal variances not assumed	-.392	273.620	.696	-.03767
Respect	Equal variances assumed	.097	338	.922	.01004
	Equal variances not assumed	.097	286.243	.923	.01004
Leader	Equal variances assumed	2.978	334	<b>.003</b>	.32832
	Equal variances not assumed	2.942	279.880	.004	.32832
Popularity	Equal variances assumed	3.155	336	<b>.002</b>	.27999
	Equal variances not assumed	3.171	297.419	.002	.27999
Innovative	Equal variances assumed	2.279	337	<b>.023</b>	.19987
	Equal variances not assumed	2.309	307.330	.022	.19987
Comparison with Competitors	Equal variances assumed	1.662	333	.098	.15435
	Equal variances not assumed	1.660	291.780	.098	.15435

No significant difference was found between the two sample groups on the variable of comparison with competitors (mean difference = 0.154,  $t = 1.662$ ,  $p = 0.098$ ). However, as explained above, the Norwich Union brand was rated as equal to or better than competitors by 73% and 69% of respondents in the event-based and comparison samples respectively. These results suggest that the positive relative perception of the



brand is not related to the direct sponsorship exposure, but has likely built up over time through personal experience and other marketing communications.

As outlined in Chapter 3, brand awareness and brand associations (including perceived quality) are widely recognised as objectives of sponsorship and empirical support has been found here for the impact of sponsorship upon these variables. However, there is less consensus concerning behavioural elements of brand equity, notably brand loyalty. Therefore, the next section will examine the scores between the two sample groups on brand loyalty dimensions.

### **6.10 Brand Loyalty**

Brand loyalty was measured using Likert scale questions asking respondents (both event-based and comparison sample groups) to state their level of agreement with the following statements:

1. I feel loyal to Norwich Union;
2. I was satisfied with Norwich Union the last time I purchased a product or service from the company;
3. I would recommend Norwich Union to my friends and family;
4. I intend to purchase products/services from Norwich Union in the future;
5. I would be willing to pay a higher price for Norwich Union products/services over other competing brands;



6. When I am looking for a financial services provider, I will consider Norwich Union.

Table 6.14 below summarises the responses to the individual questions provided by the event-based respondents, while Table 6.15 considers the results of the comparison sample. Once again the results tend to cluster around “neither agree nor disagree” for both groups, however there are fewer responses indicating agreement for the elements of brand loyalty than for brand associations and perceived quality. Therefore, the overall assessment of loyalty is lower than that for the other components of brand equity.

Table 6.14 Brand Loyalty (Event-based Sample)

	Totally Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Totally Agree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Loyal	1.0%	15.5%	49.0%	13.0%	4.0%	17.5%
Satisfied	1.5%	3.0%	23.0%	40.0%	4.5%	28.0%
Recommend	1.0%	7.0%	44.3%	22.9%	3.5%	21.4%
Intend to Purchase	3.0%	7.5%	48.3%	18.4%	3.5%	19.4%
Higher Price	11.4%	39.3%	33.3%	4.5%	.5%	10.9%
Consider	2.0%	5.0%	20.3%	59.4%	5.4%	7.9%



**Table 6.15: Brand Loyalty (Comparison)**

	Totally Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Totally Agree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Loyal	11.6%	22.5%	44.2%	10.1%	.7%	10.9%
Satisfied	2.2%	2.2%	20.4%	43.8%	5.8%	25.5%
Recommend	3.6%	8.8%	40.1%	26.3%	2.2%	19.0%
Intend to Purchase	5.8%	13.0%	48.6%	10.1%	.7%	21.7%
Higher Price	22.6%	45.3%	19.0%	2.9%		10.2%
Consider	2.2%	7.2%	21.0%	59.4%	1.4%	8.7%

The overall brand loyalty scores for each sample group are illustrated in Figures 6.5 and 6.6 below. Once again, no significant difference was found between the two event-based samples (indoor and outdoor athletics) on the brand loyalty score variable (mean difference = 0.166,  $t = 0.252$ ,  $p = 0.801$ ).

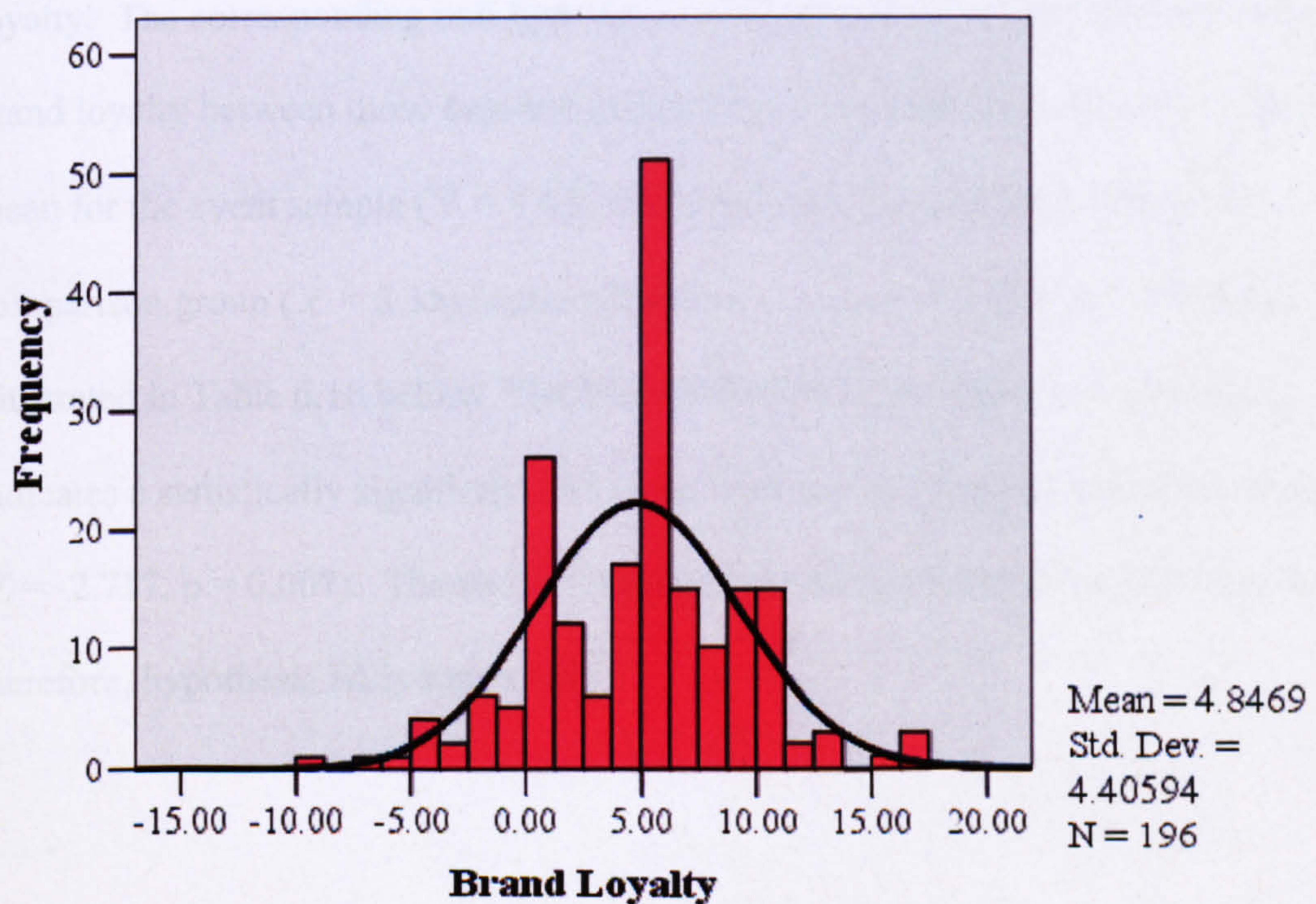
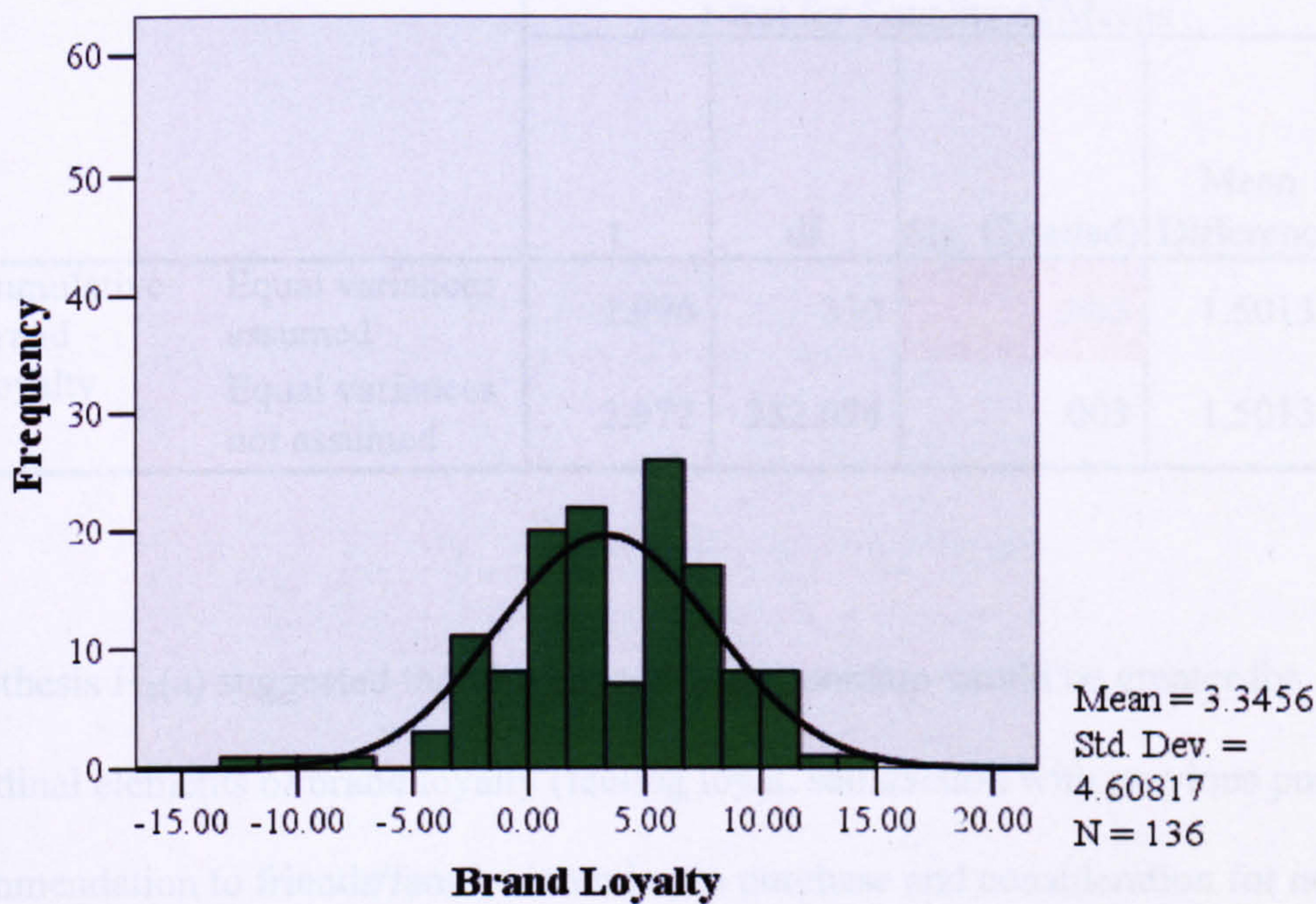
**Figure 6.5 Cumulative Brand Loyalty Scores (Event)**



Figure 6.6: Cumulative Brand Loyalty Scores (Comparison)



Hypothesis H<sub>4</sub> stated that sports sponsorship would have a positive impact upon brand loyalty. The corresponding null hypothesis was that there is no significant difference in brand loyalty between those exposed and those not exposed to sponsorship. The overall mean for the event sample ( $\bar{x} = 4.85$ ) was significantly higher than that for the comparison group ( $\bar{x} = 3.35$ ) (mean difference = 1.501,  $t = 2.996$ ,  $p = 0.003$ ), as illustrated in Table 6.16 below. The Mann-Whitney U non-parametric test also indicates a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups ( $Z = -2.717$ ,  $p = 0.007$ ). The above results lead to the rejection of the null hypothesis, therefore, hypothesis H<sub>4</sub> is supported.



Table 6.16 Cumulative Brand Loyalty t-test (Event-based v comparison sample)

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Cumulative Brand Loyalty	Equal variances assumed	2.996	330	.003	1.50135
	Equal variances not assumed	2.972	282.024	.003	1.50135

Hypothesis H<sub>4</sub>(a) suggested that the impact of sponsorship would be greater for attitudinal elements of brand loyalty (feeling loyal, satisfaction with previous purchase, recommendation to friends/family, intention to purchase and consideration for next purchase) than for behavioural elements (willingness to pay a higher price). Table 6.17 below shows the results of t-tests for the individual brand loyalty elements.

Statistically significant differences between the sample groups were found for feeling loyal (mean difference = 0.485, t = 3.740, p = 0.000), intention to purchase (mean difference = 0.357, t = 3.109, p = 0.002) and willingness to pay a higher price (mean difference = 0.473, t = 3.746, p = 0.000). However, the mean scores concerning willingness to pay a higher price for Norwich Union products/services were -0.18 for the event sample and -0.66 for the comparison group, indicating an unwillingness to pay a price premium among both sample groups. As such, while the difference on this variable is statistically significant, in the context of contributing to building consumer-based brand equity, the finding is not substantively significant as exposure to the



athletics sponsorship is not creating a willingness to pay a higher price for Norwich Union products/services. In the financial services sector, which is heavily dominated by price-led consumer decision making, such a result is unsurprising.

**Table 6.17 Individual Brand Loyalty Dimensions t-tests (Event-based v comparison sample)**

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Loyal	Equal variances assumed	3.867	336	.000	.48486
	Equal variances not assumed	3.740	258.662	<b>.000</b>	.48486
Satisfied	Equal variances assumed	-.716	335	.474	-.08478
	Equal variances not assumed	-.712	286.053	.477	-.08478
Recommend	Equal variances assumed	.734	336	.464	.08331
	Equal variances not assumed	.718	268.898	.474	.08331
Intend to Purchase	Equal variances assumed	3.109	337	<b>.002</b>	.35713
	Equal variances not assumed	3.094	289.745	.002	.35713
Higher Price	Equal variances assumed	3.708	336	.000	.47285
	Equal variances not assumed	3.746	302.234	<b>.000</b>	.47285
Consider	Equal variances assumed	1.211	338	.227	.13926
	Equal variances not assumed	1.203	288.123	.230	.13926



Statistically significant differences were also found using the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test on the dimensions of loyalty ( $Z = -3.185$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ), intention to purchase ( $Z = -2.972$ ,  $p = 0.003$ ) and willingness to pay a higher price ( $Z = -3.676$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ). Therefore, support is found for hypotheses  $H_4(a)$ , with a significant difference between the two groups being found on two attitudinal brand loyalty measures, while sponsorship exposure does not appear to be having any commercially meaningful impact upon behavioural loyalty.

Hypothesis  $H_5$  indicated that sports sponsorship would have a lesser impact upon brand loyalty than on brand associations and perceived quality. The corresponding null hypothesis tested was that there is no significant difference between the mean scores for brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty.

The overall mean scores for brand loyalty (event = 4.85, comparison = 3.35) were lower than for either brand associations (event = 5.75, comparison = 4.00) or perceived quality (event = 7.31, comparison = 6.26). Using a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), a statistically significant difference was found between the mean brand loyalty scores and the mean brand associations ( $F = 12.631$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ) and perceived quality scores ( $F = 11.280$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ) among the event-based sample. A statistically significant difference was also found for the event-based sample using the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test (brand loyalty – brand associations:  $\chi^2(23) = 111.421$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ; brand loyalty – perceived quality:  $\chi^2(22) = 98.742$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ).



However, a statistically significant difference was found between the mean brand equity dimension scores for the comparison group (brand loyalty - brand associations:

$F = 6.547, p = 0.000$ ; brand loyalty – perceived quality:  $F = 10.239, p = 0.000$ ).

Similarly, significant differences were found using the Kruskal-Wallis test (brand loyalty – brand associations:  $\chi^2(21) = 71.245, p = 0.000$ ; brand loyalty – perceived quality:  $\chi^2(22) = 82.974, p = 0.000$ ). Therefore, while the mean brand loyalty score is lower than those for brand associations and perceived quality among respondents exposed to the sponsorship, the effect is also seen among those not exposed to sponsorship. For that reason, it is possible that the difference in mean scores is attributable to brand loyalty's position as a higher order element of brand equity, rather than as a result of exposure to the athletics sponsorship.

In the case of Norwich Union, a significant difference was found between the two sample groups on brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty, therefore it appears that sponsorship is not impacting differentially on any one element, but rather, is contributing to overall increased consumer-based brand equity. As such, no support is found for hypothesis  $H_5$ .

### **6.11 Impact of Customer Status**

As reported in section 6.5, no significant difference was found between the event-based and comparison samples in terms of customer status. It is therefore reasonable to assume that such a variable is controlled across the two groups. However, it is possible that customer status is impacting upon brand equity scores within the sample groups.



As evidenced in Tables 6.18 and 6.19 below, significant differences were found within both sample groups between those respondents who were currently customers of Norwich Union and those who have never been a customer of the brand, with customers achieving higher scores on all variables. It appears, therefore, that there is a generalised trend for customers to rate a brand more favourably on the customer-based brand equity components than do non-customers.

**Table 6.18 Customer status impact on brand equity scores t-test (Event-based sample: customers v non-customers)**

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Cumulative Brand Associations	Equal variances assumed	5.756	147	.000	3.60622
	Equal variances not assumed	5.602	108.571	.000	3.60622
Cumulative Perceived Quality	Equal variances assumed	7.467	144	.000	4.34953
	Equal variances not assumed	7.957	142.498	.000	4.34953
Cumulative Brand Loyalty	Equal variances assumed	7.855	149	.000	4.95275
	Equal variances not assumed	7.613	112.782	.000	4.95275



**Table 6.19 Customer status impact on brand equity scores t-test (Comparison sample: customers v non-customers)**

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Cumulative Brand Associations	Equal variances assumed	4.155	93	.000	3.03191
	Equal variances not assumed	4.163	91.240	.000	3.03191
Cumulative Perceived Quality	Equal variances assumed	4.536	96	.000	3.40816
	Equal variances not assumed	4.536	92.031	.000	3.40816
Cumulative Brand Loyalty	Equal variances assumed	5.454	96	.000	4.58083
	Equal variances not assumed	5.407	79.617	.000	4.58083

In this study, the effect was found across both respondents exposed to sponsorship at events and those not present at the events. As such, while customer status may explain some variation in individual brand equity scores, its effect is consistent among both sample groups. Therefore, the claims made above that sponsorship is contributing to consumer-based brand equity still hold and the results are not deemed to be confounded by the intervening variable of customer status.

While the above figures indicate that the effect of customer status is controlled across the two groups, Tables 6.20 and 6.21 below examine whether the sponsorship is impacting differently on customers and non-customers.



**Table 6.20 Impact of sponsorship on brand equity for customers  
(Event-based v comparison sample)**

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Cumulative Brand Associations	Equal variances assumed	3.219	103	<b>.002</b>	2.46491
	Equal variances not assumed	3.230	101.157	.002	2.46491
Cumulative Perceived Quality	Equal variances assumed	2.696	105	<b>.008</b>	1.79944
	Equal variances not assumed	2.613	82.274	.011	1.79944
Cumulative Brand Loyalty	Equal variances assumed	2.488	106	<b>.014</b>	2.17917
	Equal variances not assumed	2.438	91.209	.017	2.17917

**Table 6.21 Impact of sponsorship on brand equity for non-customers  
(Event-based v comparison sample)**

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Cumulative Brand Associations	Equal variances assumed	3.054	137	<b>.003</b>	1.89061
	Equal variances not assumed	3.141	100.096	.002	1.89061
Cumulative Perceived Quality	Equal variances assumed	1.321	135	.189	.85807
	Equal variances not assumed	1.375	111.605	.172	.85807
Cumulative Brand Loyalty	Equal variances assumed	2.996	139	<b>.003</b>	1.80725
	Equal variances not assumed	3.091	110.455	.003	1.80725



Separating the respondents into customers and non-customers of Norwich Union, the customers at the events had significantly higher scores than customers in the comparison sample on the dimensions of brand associations (mean difference = 2.465,  $t = 3.219$ ,  $p = 0.002$ ), perceived quality (mean difference = 1.799,  $t = 2.696$ ,  $p = 0.008$ ) and brand loyalty (mean difference = 2.180,  $t = 2.488$ ,  $p = 0.014$ ). However, among non-customers, while the mean scores among the event-based sample were higher than those for the comparison sample on all three dimensions, the difference was only significant for brand associations (mean difference = 1.891,  $t = 3.054$ ,  $p = 0.003$ ) and brand loyalty (mean difference = 1.807,  $t = 2.996$ ,  $p = 0.003$ ). Nonetheless, using the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test, a significant difference was found between the event-based and comparison sample perceived quality scores for non-customers ( $Z = -2.006$ ,  $p = 0.045$ ). Therefore, in the case of Norwich Union, sponsorship exposure is impacting positively on brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty for both customers and non-customers.

In terms of brand loyalty, a significant difference was found between customers exposed to the sponsorship and customers in the comparison sample for the mean scores on the dimensions of expressed loyalty (mean difference = 0.511,  $t = 2.408$ ,  $p = 0.018$ ), intention to purchase (mean difference = 0.535,  $t = 2.614$ ,  $p = 0.010$ ) and willingness to pay a higher price (mean difference = 0.572,  $t = 2.386$ ,  $p = 0.019$ ). Significant differences were also found between non-customers exposed and non-customers not exposed to the sponsorship on these same variables (loyalty: mean difference = 0.604,  $t = 3.421$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ; intention to purchase: mean difference = 0.441,  $t = 2.860$ ,  $p = 0.005$ ; willingness to pay higher price: mean difference = 0.482,

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$t = 2.601, p = 0.010$ ). Therefore, sponsorship appears to be impacting in the same way on customers and non-customers of Norwich Union with regards to attitudinal and behavioural brand loyalty. However, as discussed above in section 6.10, the mean scores on the dimension of willingness to pay a higher price for customers and non-customers in both the event-based and comparison samples were negative, therefore the differences are not of substantive importance in the context of building consumer-based brand equity.

### **6.12 Impact of Sponsorship Awareness among Comparison Sample**

Although the comparison sample contained respondents not directly exposed to the sponsorship at the event, as outlined in section 6.6, 38% were aware of some sponsorship activity by Norwich Union, of which 89% correctly identified athletics. Such findings are likely to be a result of the television coverage of athletics events sponsored by Norwich Union and leverage activities associated with the sponsorship.

Using an independent samples t-test, no significant difference was found between the scores of those aware and those unaware of Norwich Union sponsorship on the variables of brand associations (mean difference = 0.827,  $t = 1.256, p = 0.212$ ), perceived quality (mean difference = 0.749,  $t = 1.101, p = 0.273$ ) or brand loyalty (mean difference = 0.263,  $t = 0.321, p = 0.749$ ).

It appears that while direct exposure to sponsorship led to significantly higher scores for brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty, such an effect is not achieved

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by merely being aware of the sponsorship without being directly exposed to the stimuli at the event. Gaining television coverage to reach a wider audience than on-site spectators is frequently cited as an objective of sponsorship (Abratt, Clayton and Pitt, 1987; Head, 1981), therefore these findings may impact upon sponsorship decision making and selection strategies.

### **6.13 Sponsorship and Brand Preference**

Members of both sample groups were asked to respond to the following question:

- Norwich Union sponsors the Grand Prix athletics. Knowing this, how has your opinion of the brand changed?

Responses were recorded on a 5-point scale from “like a lot more” to “like a lot less”.

Event-based respondents were also asked:

- Please state your agreement with the following statement: I would choose a brand which sponsors athletics over one which does not.

Responses were recorded on a 5-point scale from “totally agree” to “totally disagree”.

As shown below in Table 6.22, 46% of event-based respondents claimed to like the Norwich Union brand at least a little more as a result of the sponsorship, compared to

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32% of respondents not present at the event. Therefore, it appears that exposure to sponsorship has a moderate impact upon brand liking, which, as explained in Chapter 3, is an element of the hierarchy of effects model used to explain how marketing communications move consumers through to purchase.

Table 6.22 Sponsorship brand image change \* Sponsorship exposure Crosstabulation

			Sample Group		Total
			Event-based	Comparison	
Sponsorship brand image change	Like a lot more	Count	34	7	41
		% within Sample Group	16.9%	5.5%	12.5%
	Like a little more	Count	58	34	92
		% within Sample Group	28.9%	26.8%	28.0%
	Like the same as before	Count	108	86	194
		% within Sample Group	53.7%	67.7%	59.1%
	Like a lot less	Count	1	0	1
		% within Sample Group	.5%	.0%	.3%
Total	Count	201	127	328	
	% within Sample Group	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

Table 6.23 below indicates that 36% of respondents in the event sample agreed that they would purchase products/services from a sponsor of athletics over a competitor in the same market.



Table 6.23 Would choose athletics sponsor over competitors

		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Agree	8	4.0	4.0
	Agree	64	32.0	36.0
	Neither agree nor disagree	93	46.5	82.5
	Disagree	28	14.0	96.5
	Totally Disagree	7	3.5	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	
Missing		6		
Total		206		

The above two findings, while only indicating a moderate level of liking and preference for the brand, indicate that sponsorship is impacting upon consumer attitudes.

**6.14 Conclusion**

This chapter has presented the results from research conducted at two Norwich Union Grand Prix athletics events along with the comparison sample group not at the events. Following the presentation of demographic data on the two samples, the chapter examined each element of brand equity along with sponsorship awareness. No support was found for hypothesis H<sub>1</sub> relating to brand awareness; however, as a market leader, Norwich Union enjoys very high awareness among both sample groups, therefore there was little scope for improving awareness scores through sponsorship. Nevertheless, the event sample demonstrated very high title sponsorship awareness, thus forging a strong link between the sponsor and the sport, which is a necessary prerequisite for image transfer.

A significant difference was found between the two sample groups on the dimensions of brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty, with the event-based sample having a higher mean score in all cases. As such, the findings support hypotheses H<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>3</sub> and H<sub>4</sub>. Some support was also found for hypothesis H<sub>4a</sub>, with sponsorship having a significant impact upon two attitudinal elements of brand loyalty. The overall mean scores were significantly lower for brand loyalty than for either brand associations or perceived quality for both the event-based and comparison samples. Therefore, hypothesis H<sub>5</sub> was not supported.

The following chapter will discuss the results for the Natwest Pro40 cricket sponsorship, with data collected at two matches in August and September 2007.



## **Chapter 7: Results – Pro40 Cricket**

### **7.1 Introduction**

The aim of this chapter is to present the results of data collected at the Natwest Pro40 one-day cricket matches between Nottinghamshire and Northamptonshire at Trent Bridge, Nottingham on Sunday 12<sup>th</sup> August 2007 and between Lancashire and Nottinghamshire at Old Trafford, Manchester on Sunday 2<sup>nd</sup> September 2007. In addition to the event-based data, a questionnaire was sent out to a sample of individuals not present at the cricket events, as outlined in section 4.7.3 in Chapter 4.

Data collected from the comparison group not at the event will be presented in the same manner as that for the event-based sample. The data from the two cricket events were combined to produce one overall event-based sample. The two event-based samples were combined in order to facilitate the use of cross-tabulation by securing an adequate sample size.

The chapter will begin with a brief overview of the cricket events and the Natwest brand before proceeding to present both descriptive and inferential statistics for the two respondent groups around the themes of sponsorship awareness and brand equity (brand awareness, brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty). The presentation of data in this chapter follows the same pattern as that used in Chapters 5 and 6, with the data presented on a variable-by-variable basis, comparing the event-based and

comparison samples. A full discussion of the implications of the results will be included in Chapter 8.

**7.2 Cricket Sponsorship**

Within the UK there are numerous commercial sponsors associated with the sport of cricket. Table 7.1 below outlines the sponsors currently involved in cricket. The implications of the large volume of sponsors will be addressed in Chapter 8:

**Table 7.1 Cricket sponsors**

<b>Team/Competition</b>	<b>Sponsor</b>
England	Vodafone
Domestic Test Matches	nPower
One-day International Series	Natwest
Pro40 Competition	
County Championship	LV
Domestic one-day Competition	Friends Provident
Twenty20 Cup	Clydesdale Bank
Twenty20 Cup	Yorkshire Bank
Twenty20 Cup	Tote Sport

*Source: ECB (2007a)*

In addition to the above mentioned sponsors, there are also team sponsors for each individual county, along with national partners and suppliers and brands involved in grassroots cricket sponsorship. Mintel (2006) reports that cricket was the third most sponsored sport in the UK in 2005, behind only football and rugby union.



### **7.3 Event Information**

The Natwest Pro40 event is a one-day cricket league competition (RBS, 2007a), played by first class English county teams in two divisions. The teams with the highest points scores are the winners of the first and second divisions respectively, with promotion and relegation also taking place between the divisions (ECB, 2007b).

The two matches at which data was collected were played on Sunday afternoons in Nottingham and Manchester respectively. Selected Natwest Pro40 matches throughout the season were televised live on satellite sports channels, however neither of the matches at which data was collected were broadcast on television.

### **7.4 The Natwest Brand**

Since 2000, Natwest has been part of the Royal Bank of Scotland Group, the second largest bank in the UK and Europe (Natwest, 2007a). Natwest is a high street bank, offering a full range of financial products and also providing business and commercial banking services (Natwest, 2007b).

Natwest has been involved in English one-day cricket since 1981. The brand currently sponsors the one-day international Natwest Series and, since 2006 has been the title sponsor of the Natwest Pro40 one-day league (RBS, 2007a). In addition to the competition sponsorship, Natwest also sponsors cricket programmes on SKY television, which reinforces the brand name for television viewers.

At the cricket events studied, no leverage activity was in evidence, with the only discernible Natwest material being hoardings around the grounds and verbal mentions by the match announcers. However, Natwest leverages its sponsorship through grassroots activities, such as interactive kids cricket roadshows (RBS, 2007b) which encourage young people to get involved with the sport.

### **7.5 Demographic Data**

Data was collected at the Natwest Pro40 matches between Nottinghamshire and Northamptonshire ( $n = 81$ ) and Lancashire and Nottinghamshire ( $n = 25$ ) (combined event-based sample  $n = 106$ ) and via a postal questionnaire to a group of respondents not present at the cricket events ( $n = 102$ ). 120 postal questionnaires were sent out, with 102 returned, all of which yielded useable data. The response rate for the comparison group was thus 85%.

72% of respondents at the events were male, compared with 43% among the comparison group. A broad spread of ages was obtained in both samples, with 33% and 36% aged between 18 and 44 at the events and in the comparison group respectively. 51% of event-based respondents and 56% of the comparison group reported a household income in excess of £30000. Chi-square tests were carried out on the variables of gender, age and household income. A significant difference was found between the two groups for gender ( $\chi^2(1) = 18.160, p = 0.000$ ), while no significant difference was found for age ( $\chi^2(5) = 9.628, p = 0.086$ ) and household income



( $\chi^2(5) = 3.437$ ,  $p = 0.633$ ). However, as reported previously, there is no evidence in the extant literature to suggest that demographic variables impact substantially upon brand equity judgements.

As in Chapters 5 and 6, it is reasonable to expect that certain brand equity elements (particularly awareness and to some extent loyalty) will differ between customers and non-customers of a brand. 26% of event-based respondents were existing customers of Natwest, while 59% had never owned any of the company's products or services.

Among the comparison group, 27% were existing customers, with 60% having never been a Natwest customer. Therefore, no significant difference was found between the customer status of the two groups ( $\chi^2(2) = 0.083$ ,  $p = 0.959$ ). Consequently, it is reasonable to assume that the impact of customer status is controlled across the two sample groups.

### **7.6 Sponsorship Awareness**

Sponsorship awareness can be measured at several levels, as outlined in Chapter 3.

Table 7.2 below outlines top-of-mind awareness (TOMA) for cricket sponsors among the event-based sample. The most frequently cited sponsor was Natwest (37%),

however in total, 20 different brands were named as the first recalled cricket sponsor.

The cricket sponsorship marketplace is very cluttered, with international series and trophies, domestic leagues and cup competitions and international and domestic teams all sponsored by different brands. Therefore, it is very difficult for one particular sponsor to stand out in such a crowded environment.

**Table 7.2 Sponsorship Top-of-mind Awareness**

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Natwest	39	36.8
Vodafone	17	16.0
nPower	12	11.3
LV	6	5.7
Other	24	22.6
None	8	7.5
Total	106	100.0

Table 7.3 below shows aided recognition of cricket sponsors. nPower, the sponsor of the England international test series, was the most prominent sponsor (85%), followed by Natwest (81%) and Vodafone, the England team sponsor (73%). Interestingly, 42% of respondents believed Cornhill to be a cricket sponsor. The company used to be a prominent sponsor of English cricket, however the brand is no longer involved in cricket sponsorship. This finding suggests that an association between a sponsor and a sport can persist long after the official partnership is terminated.

**Table 7.3 Aided Sponsor Recognition**

	Yes	
	Count	%
nPower	90	84.9%
Natwest	86	81.1%
Vodafone	77	72.6%
Friends Provident	68	64.2%
LV	50	47.2%
Cornhill	44	41.5%
Norwich Union	28	26.4%
RBS	13	12.3%
Nike	2	1.9%



60% of event-based respondents correctly identified Natwest as the title sponsor of the Pro40 event, however 33% could not name the title sponsor. Therefore, while the sponsorship recognition score was high, the link between the brand and the specific event is not as strong.

48% of respondents in the comparison sample were aware of some sponsorship by Natwest, 88% of whom identified cricket as a sport sponsored by the brand. Therefore, while not as strong as among the event-based sample, Natwest scored relatively highly in terms of sponsorship awareness among those not directly exposed to the events. Such awareness is likely to be a result of prominent television coverage of both Pro40 and international matches sponsored by Natwest.

Awareness of the Natwest sponsorship is strong among the event-based sample and, to a lesser extent, the comparison sample. However, sponsorship awareness is only a preliminary stepping stone to brand awareness, including product associations. Therefore, the next section will discuss the brand awareness results for the two sample groups.

### **7.7 Brand Awareness**

Hypothesis H<sub>1</sub> suggested that sports sponsorship would have a positive impact upon brand awareness. As in Chapters 5 and 6, the corresponding null hypothesis tested was that there would be no significant difference in brand awareness between those exposed and those not directly exposed to the Natwest Pro40 sponsorship.

100% of respondents in both the event-based and comparison samples had heard of Natwest. Such a result is unsurprising given the high profile of Natwest as a bank with a large high street presence and also the volume of marketing activity, such as television advertising and poster campaigns, used to promote the brand. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not rejected and no support is found for hypothesis H<sub>1</sub>.

As outlined in section 3.3.3 of Chapter 3, brand awareness goes beyond name awareness to include knowledge of the product category in which a brand operates. Table 7.4 below indicates that banking was the most frequently cited product/service association named by both the event-based (90%) and comparison (71%) samples.

**Table 7.4 First Product Association \* Sample Group Crosstabulation**

			Sample Group		Total
			Cricket	Comparison	
First Product Association	Banking	Count	95	72	167
		% within Sample Group	89.6%	70.6%	80.3%
	Financial Products/Service:	Count	5	28	33
		% within Sample Group	4.7%	27.5%	15.9%
	Finance	Count	5	0	5
		% within Sample Group	4.7%	.0%	2.4%
	Sponsorship	Count	0	1	1
		% within Sample Group	.0%	1.0%	.5%
	None	Count	1	1	2
		% within Sample Group	.9%	1.0%	1.0%
Total	Count	106	102	208	
	% within Sample Group	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

Only 1% of respondents in both sample groups were unable to name a product/service association for Natwest. Such results indicate not only a high degree of brand name awareness but also strong product category knowledge for Natwest. In line with



Keller's (2003) view of brand knowledge as a necessary but not sufficient prerequisite for brand equity, the Natwest brand possesses a strong platform upon which to develop brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty.

When banking and other financial services were combined, no significant difference was found between the two sample groups in terms of Natwest product associations ( $\chi^2 (2) = 1.045, p = 0.593$ ). Such a lack of significance was to be expected as a result of the market prominence of Natwest as a long-established high street bank.

The final element of brand awareness is brand opinion, measured using the Likert scale question "I hold an opinion about the Natwest brand." The mean score for the event-based sample was 1.18, which was significantly higher than the mean score of 0.70 among the comparison sample (mean difference = 0.487,  $t = 2.921, p = 0.004$ ).

Agreement with the statement yielded a score of 2, while indifference (neither agree nor disagree) was scored as 1. Therefore, while both mean scores are low, more respondents in the event-based than comparison sample claimed to have an opinion about Natwest, which indicates that sponsorship appears to be having some impact upon the formation of brand attitudes.

### **7.8 Brand Associations**

In line with the data collection instrument outlined in Chapter 4, brand associations were measured using Likert scale questions asking respondents (both event- and non-event-based) to state their level of agreement with the following statements:

1. I trust Natwest;
2. Natwest is different from other brands of financial services;
3. There are definite reasons to buy products/services from Natwest rather than other providers;
4. The Natwest brand has a distinctive personality;
5. Natwest offers worse value for money than other brands;
6. I have a clear image of the type of person who would use Natwest products/services.

Table 7.5 below summarises the responses to the individual questions provided by the event-based respondents, while Table 7.6 considers the results of the comparison sample.

**Table 7.5 Brand Associations (Event-based Sample)**

	Totally Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Totally Agree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Trust	4.8%	2.9%	26.7%	45.7%	9.5%	10.5%
Different	4.9%	14.7%	54.9%	7.8%	3.9%	13.7%
Reasons to Buy	4.8%	11.4%	51.4%	12.4%	4.8%	15.2%
Distinctive personality	2.8%	8.5%	41.5%	25.5%	4.7%	17.0%
Worse Value	1.0%	6.7%	42.3%	20.2%	4.8%	25.0%
User Image	1.9%	12.5%	46.2%	10.6%	4.8%	24.0%



**Table 7.6 Brand Associations (Comparison Sample)**

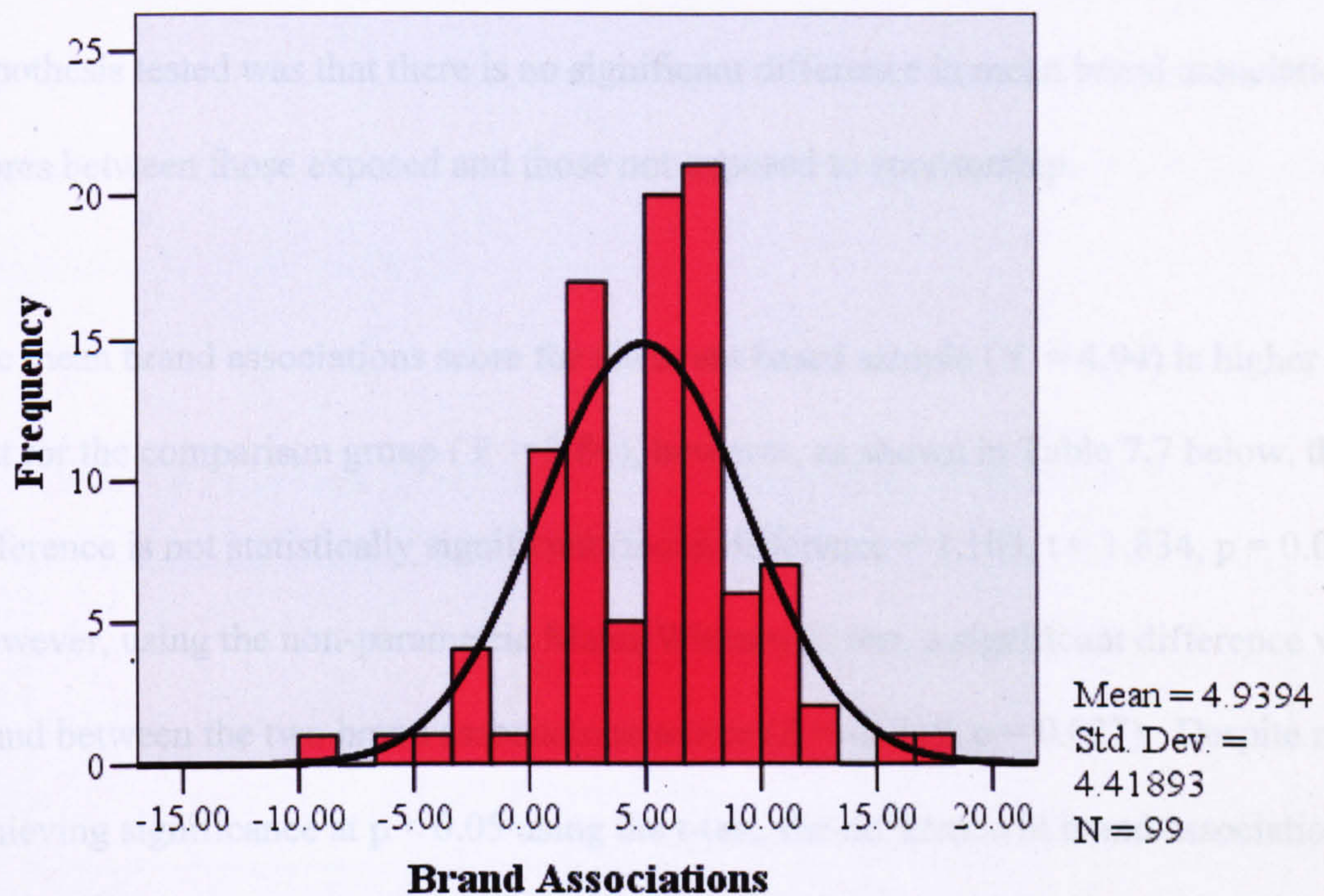
	Totally Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Totally Agree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Trust	1.0%	2.0%	34.7%	38.6%	5.9%	17.8%
Different	1.0%	23.0%	45.0%	4.0%	2.0%	25.0%
Reasons to Buy	3.9%	14.7%	51.0%	6.9%	2.0%	21.6%
Distinctive personality	2.9%	14.7%	36.3%	22.5%	2.0%	21.6%
Worse Value	1.0%	1.0%	41.2%	12.7%	4.9%	39.2%
User Image	5.0%	25.7%	38.6%	5.9%		24.8%

Responses among both sample groups cluster around “neither agree nor disagree” indicating a generalised neutrality of opinion concerning the Natwest brand. However, 46% of event-based respondents and 39% of those in the comparison sample agreed with the statement regarding trust, which, as discussed in section 6.8 in Chapter 6, is a vital attribute in the financial services sector. This can be seen as a positive brand association for Natwest.

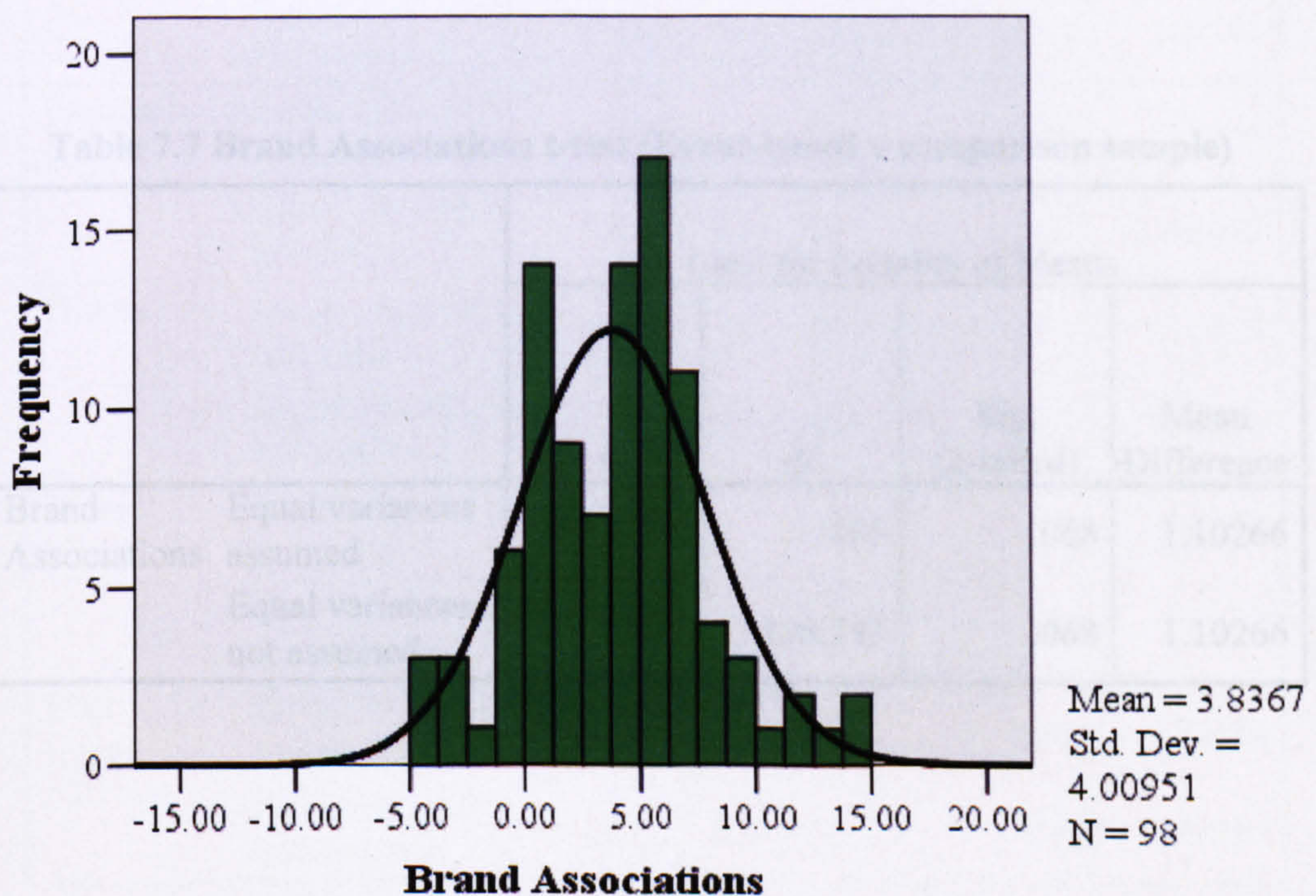
The overall brand associations scores for each sample group are illustrated in Figures 7.1 and 7.2 below.



**Figure 7.1 Cumulative Brand Associations Scores (Event)**



**Figure 7.2 Cumulative Brand Associations Scores (Comparison)**





Hypothesis H<sub>2</sub> stated that sports sponsorship would have a positive impact upon brand associations. Therefore, as with the bowls and athletics cases, the corresponding null hypothesis tested was that there is no significant difference in mean brand associations scores between those exposed and those not exposed to sponsorship.

The mean brand associations score for the event based sample ( $\bar{x} = 4.94$ ) is higher than that for the comparison group ( $\bar{x} = 3.84$ ), however, as shown in Table 7.7 below, this difference is not statistically significant (mean difference = 1.103,  $t = 1.834$ ,  $p = 0.068$ ). However, using the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test, a significant difference was found between the two brand associations scores ( $Z = -2.218$ ,  $p = 0.027$ ). Despite not achieving significance at  $p < 0.05$  using the t-test, the difference in brand associations scores is approaching significance ( $p = 0.068$ ). Therefore, combined with the significant difference found using the Mann-Whitney U test, the null hypothesis can be tentatively rejected, thus offering some support for hypothesis H<sub>2</sub>.

**Table 7.7 Brand Associations t-test (Event-based v comparison sample)**

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Brand Associations	Equal variances assumed	1.834	195	.068	1.10266
	Equal variances not assumed	1.834	193.543	.068	1.10266



As shown below in Table 7.8, in addition to the overall brand associations scores, a significant difference was found between the two sample groups on the dimension of user image (event mean = 0.66, comparison mean = 0.15, mean difference = 0.504,  $t = 3.429$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ). This result was also echoed by the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test ( $Z = -3.178$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ).

**Table 7.8 Individual Brand Associations Dimensions t-test (Event-based v comparison sample)**

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Trust	Equal variances assumed	.115	195	.908	.01721
	Equal variances not assumed	.116	183.400	.908	.01721
Different	Equal variances assumed	1.332	195	.184	.19841
	Equal variances not assumed	1.333	192.408	.184	.19841
Reason to Buy	Equal variances assumed	.965	195	.336	.14646
	Equal variances not assumed	.966	193.296	.335	.14646
Distinctive	Equal variances assumed	.932	195	.353	.14409
	Equal variances not assumed	.932	194.939	.353	.14409
Worse Value	Equal variances assumed	.680	195	.498	.09297
	Equal variances not assumed	.680	193.245	.497	.09297
User Image	Equal variances assumed	3.429	195	<b>.001</b>	.50350
	Equal variances not assumed	3.430	194.811	.001	.50350



As discussed above, the Natwest brand scored highly on the dimension of trust among both sample groups. The difference between the two groups on this variable was not found to be statistically significant (mean difference = 0.017,  $t = 0.115$ ,  $p = 0.908$ ), therefore it appears that the association of trust is not being developed by the cricket sponsorship, but rather by some other means, such as advertising. Although not found to be significant using the t-test, a significance difference was found between the event-based and comparison samples on the dimension of difference from competitors ( $Z = -1.995$ ,  $p = 0.046$ ), using the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test.

Respondents at the events were asked to state their level of agreement with the statement: “Natwest is an appropriate sponsor for cricket”. 72% of respondents agreed or totally agreed with the statement, while 4% of respondents disagreed. The impact of sponsor-event fit on brand associations will be considered when examining hypothesis  $H_2(a)$  in Chapter 8.

### **7.9 Perceived Quality**

Perceived quality was measured using Likert scale questions asking respondents (both event- and non-event-based) to state their level of agreement with the following statements:

1. Natwest is of high quality;
2. Natwest is a brand I respect;
3. Natwest is a leader in financial services;

4. Natwest is a brand that is growing in popularity;
5. Natwest offers innovative products and services.

Respondents were also asked to rate Natwest in comparison with other financial services providers on a scale from “the best” to “the worst.”

Tables 7.9 and 7.10 below summarise the responses provided by the event-based respondents, while Tables 7.11 and 7.12 consider the results of the comparison sample.

**Table 7.9 Perceived Quality (Event-based Sample)**

	Totally Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Totally Agree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
	%	%	%	%	%	%
High Quality	2.8%	.9%	25.5%	49.1%	8.5%	13.2%
Respect	5.7%	1.0%	31.4%	45.7%	8.6%	7.6%
Leader	4.7%	1.9%	36.8%	38.7%	4.7%	13.2%
Popularity	3.8%	5.7%	42.5%	22.6%	1.9%	23.6%
Innovative	3.8%	4.8%	45.7%	21.0%		24.8%

**Table 7.10 Comparison with other financial services providers (Event-based Sample)**

	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid The best	3	2.8	2.8
One of the best	26	24.5	27.3
About the same	43	40.6	67.9
One of the worst	4	3.8	71.7
The worst	2	1.9	73.6
Don't know	28	26.4	100.0
Total	106	100.0	



**Table 7.11 Perceived Quality (Comparison Sample)**

	Totally Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Totally Agree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
	%	%	%	%	%	%
High Quality		5.0%	36.6%	39.6%	5.0%	13.9%
Respect	1.0%	2.9%	29.4%	48.0%	3.9%	14.7%
Leader	2.0%	5.9%	34.3%	34.3%	2.0%	21.6%
Popularity	2.0%	2.9%	44.1%	12.7%		38.2%
Innovative	1.0%	6.9%	41.2%	13.7%		37.3%

**Table 7.12 Comparison with other financial services providers (Comparison Sample)**

	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid One of the best	20	19.6	19.6
About the same	47	46.1	65.7
The worst	1	1.0	66.7
Don't know	34	33.3	100.0
Total	102	100.0	

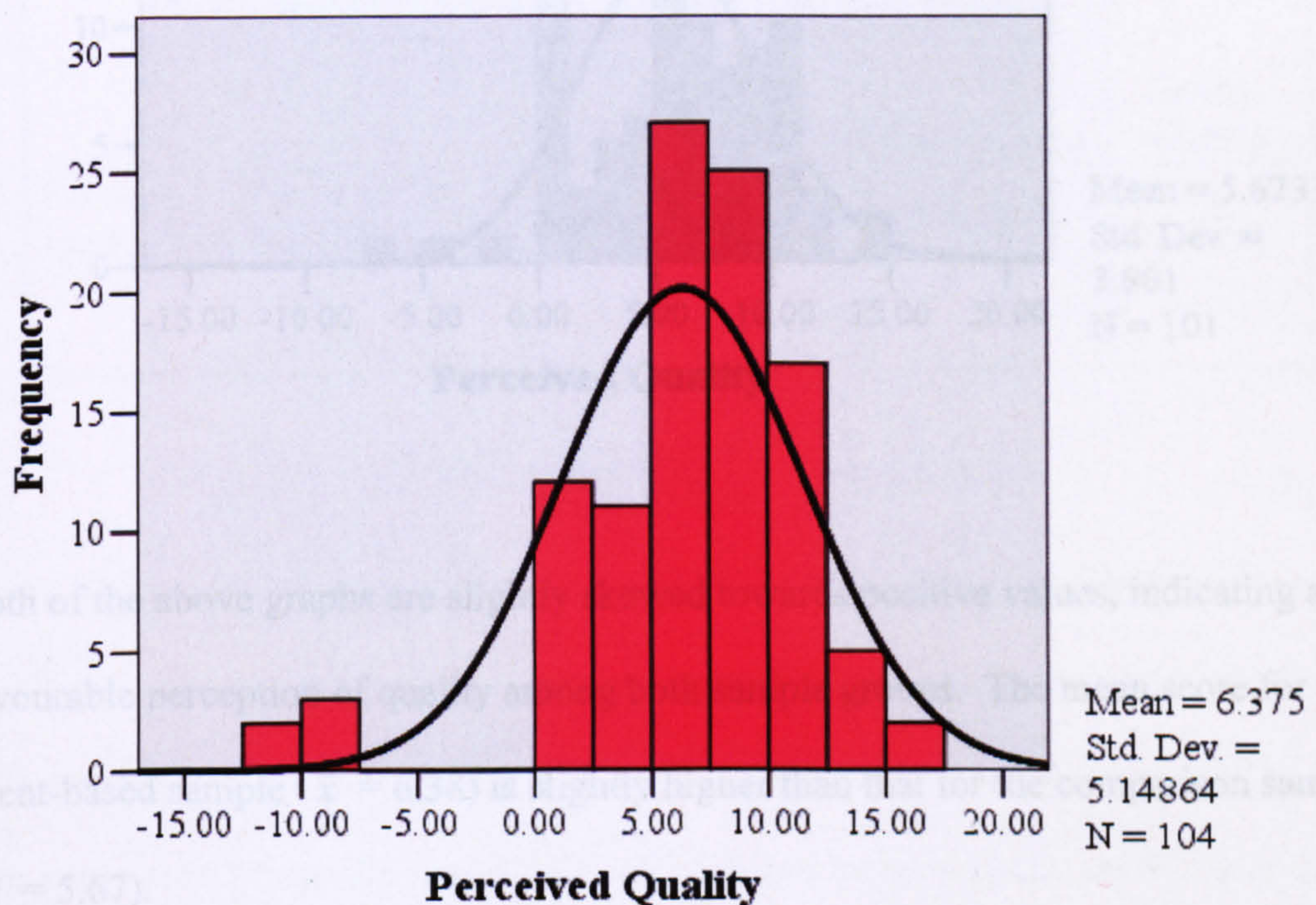
The results for the event-based sample and the comparison sample cluster in the “agree” and “neither agree nor disagree” categories, indicating an overall moderately positive attitude towards the Natwest brand. The dimensions of high quality and respect score particularly highly. In conjunction with the brand associations dimension of trust, respect can be seen as a valuable association for a financial services brand such as Natwest, as it is important to be seen as a reputable organisation in order to build consumer confidence in the brand, particularly in times of financial uncertainty or instability. 27% of event-based and 20% of comparison sample respondents reported



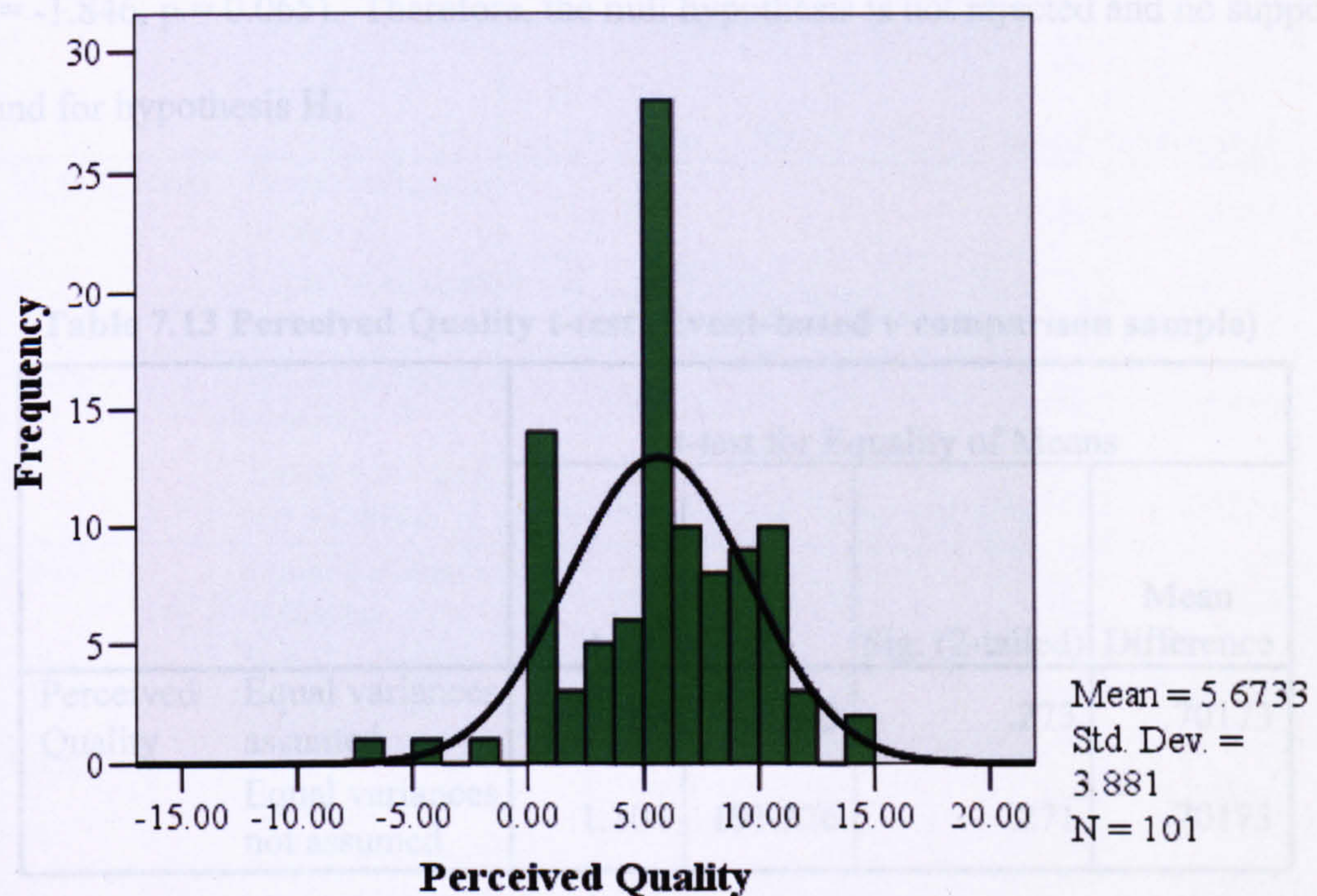
Natwest as at least one of the best brands in the financial services sector, indicating a moderately strong relative perception of the brand vis-à-vis its competitors.

Figures 7.3 and 7.4 below illustrate the overall perceived quality scores for the two sample groups.

**Figure 7.3 Cumulative Perceived Quality Scores (Event)**





**Figure 7.4 Cumulative Perceived Quality Scores (Comparison)**

Both of the above graphs are slightly skewed towards positive values, indicating a favourable perception of quality among both sample groups. The mean score for the event-based sample ( $\bar{x} = 6.38$ ) is slightly higher than that for the comparison sample ( $\bar{x} = 5.67$ ).

Hypothesis  $H_3$  suggested that sports sponsorship would have a positive impact upon perceived quality, therefore the corresponding null hypothesis tested was that there is no significant difference in perceived quality scores between those exposed and those not exposed to the sponsorship. As shown below in Table 7.13, although the mean score for the event-based sample was higher than that for the comparison sample, the difference was not found to be statistically significant (mean difference = 0.702,



$t = 1.100, p = 0.273$ ). Similarly, no significant difference was found between the two scores on perceived quality using the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test ( $Z = -1.846, p = 0.065$ ). Therefore, the null hypothesis is not rejected and no support is found for hypothesis  $H_3$ .

**Table 7.13 Perceived Quality t-test (Event-based v comparison sample)**

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Perceived Quality	Equal variances assumed	1.100	203	.273	.70173
	Equal variances not assumed	1.104	191.326	.271	.70173

Table 7.14 below indicates that, in line with the overall perceived quality score, no significant difference was found between the two sample groups on any of the individual perceived quality dimensions. These findings were also supported by the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test, which failed to find significant differences between the two groups on any dimension of perceived quality (see appendix 14 for full tables).



**Table 7.14 Individual Perceived Quality Dimensions t-tests (Event-based v comparison sample)**

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
High Quality	Equal variances assumed	1.205	203	.230	.16565
	Equal variances not assumed	1.206	202.056	.229	.16565
Respect	Equal variances assumed	.065	203	.948	.00952
	Equal variances not assumed	.065	197.969	.948	.00952
Leader	Equal variances assumed	1.108	203	.269	.16346
	Equal variances not assumed	1.109	202.929	.269	.16346
Popularity	Equal variances assumed	1.194	203	.234	.15480
	Equal variances not assumed	1.198	196.250	.232	.15480
Innovative	Equal variances assumed	1.221	203	.224	.15565
	Equal variances not assumed	1.223	200.863	.223	.15565
Comparison with Competitors	Equal variances assumed	.434	203	.665	.05265
	Equal variances not assumed	.435	196.537	.664	.05265

In failing to reject the null hypothesis, the above results indicate that the Natwest Pro40 cricket sponsorship is not contributing to a higher perception of quality for the brand.

### **7.10 Brand Loyalty**

Brand loyalty was measured using Likert scale questions asking respondents (both event-based and comparison sample groups) to state their level of agreement with the following statements:

1. I feel loyal to Natwest;
2. I was satisfied with Natwest the last time I purchased a product or service from the company;
3. I would recommend Natwest to my friends and family;
4. I intend to purchase products/services from Natwest in the future;
5. I would be willing to pay a higher price for Natwest products/services over other competing brands;
6. When I am looking for a financial services provider, I will consider Natwest.

Table 7.15 below summarises the responses to the individual questions provided by the event-based respondents, while Table 7.16 considers the results of the comparison sample.



**Table 7.15 Brand Loyalty (Event-based Sample)**

	Totally Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Totally Agree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Loyal	4.8%	15.2%	38.1%	17.1%	7.6%	17.1%
Satisfied	2.8%	2.8%	24.5%	25.5%	7.5%	36.8%
Recommend	5.7%	3.8%	36.8%	26.4%	4.7%	22.6%
Intend to purchase	8.5%	9.4%	37.7%	15.1%	2.8%	26.4%
Higher Price	19.0%	36.2%	22.9%	3.8%	1.0%	17.1%
Consider	4.8%	3.8%	20.0%	49.5%	5.7%	16.2%

**Table 7.16 Brand Loyalty (Comparison Sample)**

	Totally Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Totally Agree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Loyal	6.9%	23.5%	30.4%	8.8%	3.9%	26.5%
Satisfied	3.9%	5.9%	13.7%	30.4%	2.0%	44.1%
Recommend	3.9%	12.7%	30.4%	15.7%	2.9%	34.3%
Intend to Purchase	4.9%	21.6%	27.5%	11.8%	1.0%	33.3%
Higher Price	26.5%	50.0%	11.8%	1.0%		10.8%
Consider	3.1%	11.2%	19.4%	46.9%	3.1%	16.3%

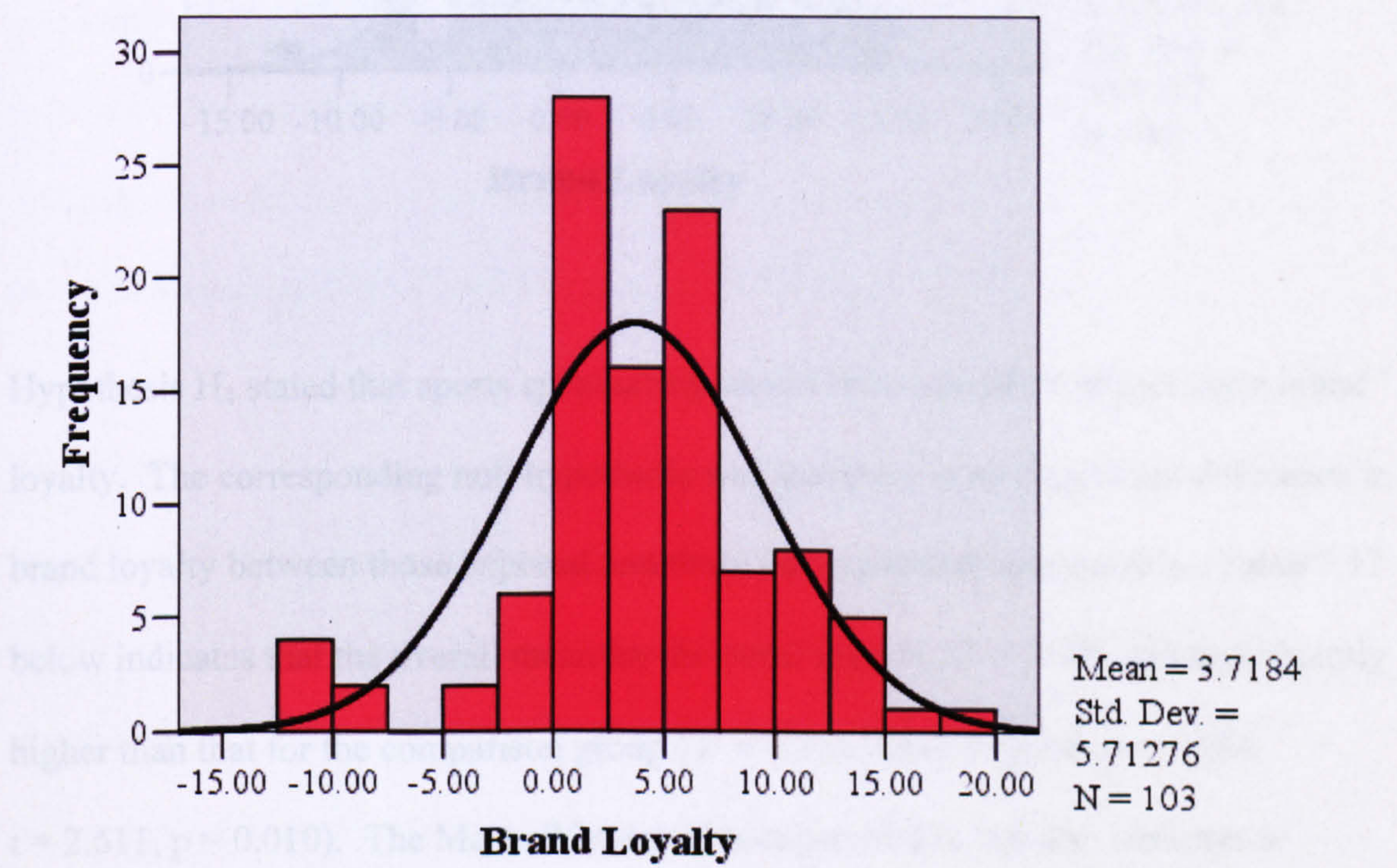
For both sample groups, the results cluster primarily around “neither agree nor disagree,” with some notable exceptions. 50% of event-based and 47% of comparison sample respondents agreed with the statement of intention to consider Natwest for future financial services purchases, indicating the brand’s place in the consideration set, which is an essential prerequisite to actual purchase. 50% of the comparison sample and 36% of event-based respondents disagreed with the statement of willingness to pay a higher price for Natwest products/services. Therefore, while the brand appears to



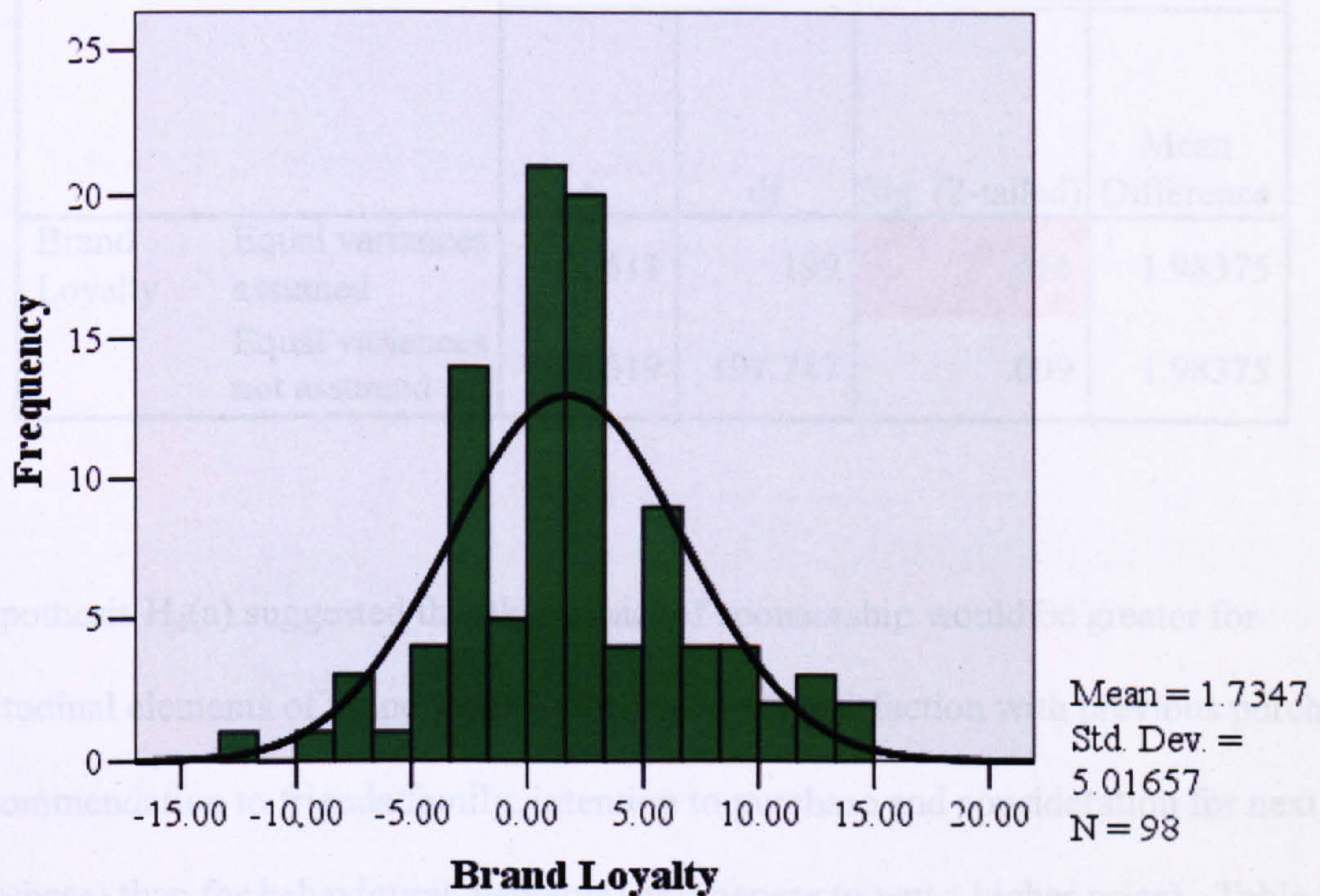
have entered the consideration set of a large number of respondents in both sample groups, there is a lack of support for a price premium, possibly due to the highly price-driven nature of financial services.

The overall brand loyalty scores for the two sample groups are illustrated in Figures 7.5 and 7.6 below.

**Figure 7.5 Cumulative Brand Loyalty Scores (Event)**





**Figure 7.6 Cumulative Brand Loyalty Scores (Comparison)**

Hypothesis  $H_4$  stated that sports sponsorship would have a positive impact upon brand loyalty. The corresponding null hypothesis was that there is no significant difference in brand loyalty between those exposed and those not exposed to sponsorship. Table 7.17 below indicates that the overall mean for the event sample ( $\bar{x} = 3.72$ ) was significantly higher than that for the comparison group ( $\bar{x} = 1.73$ ) (mean difference = 1.984,  $t = 2.611$ ,  $p = 0.010$ ). The Mann-Whitney U non-parametric test also indicates a statistically significant difference between the means of the two sample groups ( $Z = -3.151$ ,  $p = 0.002$ ). Therefore, in the case of Natwest, the null hypothesis is rejected and support is found for hypothesis  $H_4$ .



**Table 7.17 Brand Loyalty t-test (Event-based v comparison sample)**

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Brand Loyalty	Equal variances assumed	2.611	199	<b>.010</b>	1.98375
	Equal variances not assumed	2.619	197.747	.009	1.98375

Hypothesis H<sub>4</sub>(a) suggested that the impact of sponsorship would be greater for attitudinal elements of brand loyalty (feeling loyal, satisfaction with previous purchase, recommendation to friends/family, intention to purchase and consideration for next purchase) than for behavioural elements (willingness to pay a higher price). Table 7.18 below shows the results of t-tests for the individual brand loyalty elements.

The mean scores for the event-based sample were higher than those for the comparison sample on all individual dimensions (see appendix 14 for full tables). A statistically significant difference between the groups' scores was found on the attitudinal dimensions of expressed loyalty (mean difference = 0.435,  $t = 2.478$ ,  $p = 0.014$ ) and recommendation to friends/family (mean difference = 0.365,  $t = 2.272$ ,  $p = 0.024$ ) and the behavioural dimension of willingness to pay a higher price (mean difference = 0.520,  $t = 3.381$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ). However, the mean scores for willingness to pay a higher price were -0.39 and -0.91 among the event-based and comparison samples respectively. The negative mean scores for both groups indicate an unwillingness to pay a higher price for Natwest products and services. Therefore, while the difference is



statistically significant, in terms of building brand loyalty and, more generally, brand equity, this finding is not substantively significant.

**Table 7.18 Individual Brand Loyalty Dimensions t-tests (Event-based v comparison sample)**

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Loyal	Equal variances assumed	2.478	199	<b>.014</b>	.43521
	Equal variances not assumed	2.479	198.791	.014	.43521
Satisfied	Equal variances assumed	1.313	199	.191	.21102
	Equal variances not assumed	1.312	198.089	.191	.21102
Recommend	Equal variances assumed	2.272	199	<b>.024</b>	.36457
	Equal variances not assumed	2.273	198.853	.024	.36457
Intend to Purchase	Equal variances assumed	1.808	199	.072	.29057
	Equal variances not assumed	1.810	198.989	.072	.29057
Higher Price	Equal variances assumed	3.364	199	.001	.51981
	Equal variances not assumed	3.381	194.360	<b>.001</b>	.51981
Consider	Equal variances assumed	.954	199	.341	.16257
	Equal variances not assumed	.954	197.939	.341	.16257



The above findings are supported by the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test, which found a significant difference between the two groups on the dimensions of expressed loyalty ( $Z = -2.851$ ,  $p = 0.004$ ), recommendations to friends/family ( $Z = -2.771$ ,  $p = 0.006$ ) and willingness to pay a higher price ( $Z = -2.937$ ,  $p = 0.003$ ). Therefore, direct exposure to the sponsorship has had a larger impact on some elements of attitudinal brand loyalty and a lesser impact upon the behavioural element, thus some support is found for hypothesis H<sub>4</sub>(a).

Hypothesis H<sub>5</sub> indicated that sports sponsorship would have a lesser impact upon brand loyalty than on brand associations and perceived quality. The corresponding null hypothesis tested was that there is no significant difference between the mean scores for brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty.

The overall mean scores for brand loyalty (event = 3.72, comparison = 1.73) were lower than for either brand associations (event = 4.94, comparison = 3.84) or perceived quality (event = 6.38, comparison = 5.67). Using a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), a statistically significant difference was found between the mean brand loyalty scores and the mean brand associations ( $F = 9.124$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ) and perceived quality scores ( $F = 13.050$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ) among the event sample. These findings were also mirrored in the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test for the event-based sample (brand loyalty – brand associations:  $\chi^2(23) = 63.630$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ; brand loyalty – perceived quality:  $\chi^2(23) = 62.932$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ).



However, the mean brand loyalty score was also found to be significantly lower than those for brand associations and perceived quality among the comparison group (brand loyalty - brand associations:  $F = 6.294$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ; brand loyalty – perceived quality:  $F = 6.580$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ). Statistically significant differences were also found for the comparison group using the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test (brand loyalty – brand associations:  $\chi^2(21) = 57.960$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ; brand loyalty – perceived quality:  $\chi^2(22) = 60.842$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ).

While the mean scores for those exposed to the Natwest sponsorship were lower for brand loyalty than for brand associations and perceived quality, this effect is generalised across both sample groups. Consequently, it is feasible that the results merely reflect the status of brand loyalty as a higher order element of brand equity, rather than the difference being attributed to sponsorship exposure. In light of the above results, no support is found for hypothesis H<sub>5</sub>.

### **7.11 Impact of Customer Status**

As reported in section 7.5, no significant difference was found between the event-based and comparison samples in terms of customer status. It is therefore reasonable to assume that such a variable is controlled across the two groups.

Tables 7.19 and 7.20 below indicate that significant differences were found within both the event-based and comparison groups between those respondents who were currently



Natwest customers and those who have never purchased products or services from the brand, with customers achieving higher scores on all variables. Therefore, as with Norwich Union in Chapter 6, there is a trend among respondents in the event-based and comparison groups for Natwest customers to rate the brand more favourably in terms of brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty. As such, while customer status may impact upon individual scores within the two sample groups, the effect is controlled across those exposed and those not directly exposed to the sponsorship. Consequently, the findings presented in this chapter concerning the impact of sponsorship on brand equity are not being contaminated by the intervening variable of customer status and reported differences can be attributed to the independent variable, that is, sponsorship exposure.

**Table 7.19 Customer status impact on brand equity scores t-test  
(Event-based Sample: customers v non-customers)**

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Brand Associations	Equal variances assumed	4.104	81	<b>.000</b>	4.01103
	Equal variances not assumed	3.935	41.576	.000	4.01103
Perceived Quality	Equal variances assumed	2.766	81	<b>.007</b>	3.07586
	Equal variances not assumed	2.582	39.358	.014	3.07586
Brand Loyalty	Equal variances assumed	6.490	81	<b>.000</b>	6.76483
	Equal variances not assumed	5.778	35.969	.000	6.76483



**Table 7.20 Customer status impact on brand equity scores t-test  
(Comparison Sample: customers v non-customers)**

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Brand Associations	Equal variances assumed	3.762	79	<b>.000</b>	2.90714
	Equal variances not assumed	3.179	32.853	.003	2.90714
Perceived Quality	Equal variances assumed	4.621	79	<b>.000</b>	3.23643
	Equal variances not assumed	5.109	59.301	.000	3.23643
Brand Loyalty	Equal variances assumed	6.219	79	.000	5.47429
	Equal variances not assumed	5.047	30.790	<b>.000</b>	5.47429

Using independent samples t-tests, the impact of sponsorship exposure on both customers and non-customers of Natwest was tested. Among the Natwest customers, event-based respondents had a significantly higher mean score than respondents in the comparison sample for brand loyalty (mean difference = 3.308,  $t = 2.338$ ,  $p = 0.023$ ).

Using the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test, a significant difference was also found on the dimension of brand associations ( $Z = -2.030$ ,  $p = 0.042$ ). Similarly, for non-customers, the event-based respondents scored significantly higher than those not exposed to the sponsorship on the dimensions of brand associations (mean difference = 1.271,  $t = 2.050$ ,  $p = 0.043$ ) and brand loyalty (mean difference = 1.942,



$t = 3.064, p = 0.003$ ). Thus, in line with the overall findings reported above, sponsorship exposure had a positive impact on brand associations and brand loyalty for both customers and non-customers of Natwest (see appendix 14 for full tables).

On the individual dimensions of brand loyalty, event-based Natwest customers scored significantly higher than customers in the comparison sample for expressed loyalty (mean difference = 1.079,  $t = 3.238, p = 0.002$ ) and willingness to pay a higher price (mean difference = 0.778,  $t = 2.261, p = 0.028$ ). A significantly higher score for non-customers in the event based sample compared with those not exposed to the sponsorship was found on the dimensions of expressed loyalty (mean difference = 0.393,  $t = 2.244, p = 0.027$ ), recommendation to friends/family (mean difference = 0.433,  $t = 2.856, p = 0.005$ ), purchase intention (mean difference = 0.357,  $t = 2.253, p = 0.026$ ) and willingness to pay a higher price (mean difference = 0.401,  $t = 2.216, p = 0.029$ ). Therefore, sponsorship exposure is impacting on more attitudinal loyalty dimensions for non-customers than for customers of Natwest.

### **7.12 Impact of Sponsorship Awareness among Comparison Sample**

Although not directly exposed to the Natwest Pro40 sponsorship at the events, as outlined in section 7.6 above, 48% of respondents in the comparison sample were aware of some sponsorship activity by Natwest, of which 88% correctly identified cricket. Given the high profile of Natwest as a sponsor not only of Pro40 cricket, but also



international test matches, such sponsorship awareness and associations are likely to be a result of prominent media coverage of the sport.

Table 7.21 below illustrates that no significant difference was found, using an independent samples t-test, between the mean scores for brand associations (mean difference = 0.776,  $t = 0.957$ ,  $p = 0.341$ ) and brand loyalty (mean difference = 0.653,  $t = 0.642$ ,  $p = 0.522$ ) for those aware and those unaware of Natwest sponsorship. However, a statistically significant difference was found on the dimensions of perceived quality (mean difference = 1.734,  $t = 2.290$ ,  $p = 0.024$ ), with those aware of sponsorship having a mean score of 6.6 compared with a mean score of 4.8 among those not aware of any Natwest sponsorship.

**Table 7.21 Impact of Sponsorship Awareness on Brand Equity Elements  
(Comparison sample: aware v not aware)**

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Brand Associations	Equal variances assumed	.957	96	.341	.77551
	Equal variances not assumed	.957	94.533	.341	.77551
Perceived Quality	Equal variances assumed	2.290	99	<b>.024</b>	1.73428
	Equal variances not assumed	2.292	98.394	.024	1.73428
Brand Loyalty	Equal variances assumed	.642	96	.522	.65306
	Equal variances not assumed	.642	95.793	.522	.65306



It appears that knowledge of sponsorship activity may contribute to an increase in the perception of quality of a brand. However, by sub-dividing the comparison sample into those aware and those not aware of sponsorship, the sub-group sizes were reduced to 48 and 53 respectively. Therefore, care is required in interpreting moderately statistically significant differences between such relatively small samples.

### **7.13 Sponsorship and Brand Preference**

Respondents were asked to answer the following questions:

- Natwest is a sponsor of one day cricket. Knowing this, how has your opinion of the brand changed?

Responses were recorded on a 5-point scale from “like a lot more” to “like a lot less”.

- Please state your agreement with the following statement: I would choose a brand which sponsors cricket over one which does not. (Event-based sample only)

Responses were recorded on a 5-point scale from “totally agree” to “totally disagree”.

Table 7.22 below shows that 29% of event-based respondents reported liking the Natwest brand at least a little more as a result of knowing about the cricket sponsorship, compared with 18% among the comparison sample. 24% of event-based respondents at



least agreed with the statement that they would choose a brand from an organisation which sponsored cricket over one which did not (Table 7.23 below). However, 30% were in disagreement with this statement, indicating that sponsorship awareness does not appear to be positively impacting upon brand choice in this case.

Table 7.22 Sponsorship brand image change \* Sample Group Crosstabulation

			Sample Group		Total
			Cricket	Comparison	
Sponsorship brand image change	Like a lot more	Count	7	2	9
		% within Sample Group	6.7%	2.2%	4.6%
	Like a little more	Count	23	14	37
		% within Sample Group	22.1%	15.6%	19.1%
	Like the same as before	Count	72	72	144
		% within Sample Group	69.2%	80.0%	74.2%
	Like a lot less	Count	2	2	4
		% within Sample Group	1.9%	2.2%	2.1%
Total	Count	104	90	194	
	% within Sample Group	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

In line with the general trend of results presented above, in the case of Natwest, it appears that knowledge of sponsorship activity did not impact significantly upon reported brand liking or brand choice. However, prudence is required in interpreting such results as respondents may have a tendency to under-report the impact of sponsorship because they do not like to feel as though their behaviour is being affected by sponsorship exposure.



**Table 7.23 Would choose cricket sponsor over competitors**

	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Totally Agree	6	5.7	5.7
Agree	19	18.1	23.8
Neither agree nor disagree	49	46.7	70.5
Disagree	23	21.9	92.4
Totally Disagree	8	7.6	100.0
Total	105	100.0	
Missing	1		
Total	106		

### **7.14 Conclusion**

This chapter has presented the results from research conducted at two Natwest Pro40 cricket matches along with a comparison sample group not at the events. Firstly, a brief overview was given of the events and the Natwest brand before demographic data for the event-based and comparison samples was presented. The chapter then explored sponsorship awareness before moving on to examine the individual elements of brand equity. Finally, the chapter considered the impact of customer status on the brand equity findings before concluding with an examination of sponsorship and reported brand preference.

No support was found for hypothesis H<sub>1</sub> relating to brand awareness. However, the Natwest brand is well established within the UK banking sector and achieved 100% awareness among both sample groups. The event-based sample demonstrated strong sponsorship recognition for Natwest and cricket but the association between the brand



and the Pro40 event was more limited. This has implications for image transfer from the sponsored event to the sponsor, which will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 8.

The event-based sample had a higher mean score than the comparison sample on the dimensions of brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty, however this difference was only statistically significant for brand loyalty and moderately significant (using a non-parametric test) for brand associations. Therefore, some support was found for hypotheses H<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>4</sub>, while no support was found for hypothesis H<sub>3</sub>. The mean scores for certain elements of attitudinal brand loyalty were significantly higher for the event-based than the comparison sample, thus offering support for hypothesis H<sub>4</sub>(a). The overall mean scores for both samples were significantly lower for brand loyalty than for either brand associations or perceived quality. Therefore, no support was found for hypothesis H<sub>5</sub>.

This chapter, along with the previous two has presented the empirical results from this study. The following chapter will discuss these results in terms of the hypotheses postulated in Chapter 3 and in the light of the extant theory and literature presented in Chapters 2 and 3. As such, the contribution to knowledge of this thesis will be assessed.



## **Chapter 8: Discussion**

### **8.1 Introduction**

As a result of the review of extant literature and the selection of a conceptual framework for this study, hypotheses were proposed in Chapter 3, with the results of the empirical testing of these hypotheses outlined in Chapters 5, 6 and 7. Therefore, the purpose of this chapter is to discuss the empirical results with reference to the relevant literature reviewed in Chapters 2 and 3. Consequently, this chapter will analyse whether the hypotheses were supported by empirical evidence and discuss the results obtained. Thus, the substantive contribution to knowledge of this thesis will be presented through an examination of the contribution of sports sponsorship to consumer-based brand equity.

The chapter will follow the order in which the hypotheses were presented in Chapter 3, addressing the results from the different sponsorships on a variable by variable basis, beginning with sponsorship and brand awareness before examining brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty. Finally, the benefit of sponsorship offering product trial opportunities will be explored before a discussion of the differential impact of sports sponsorship exposure on customers and non-customers of the sponsoring brands. The chapter will conclude with a summary of the findings in relation to the hypotheses proposed.



## **8.2 Sponsorship Awareness**

The previous three chapters presented sponsorship awareness results for bowls, athletics and cricket respectively, indicating differential levels of awareness both across the various sponsors and sports. As with brand awareness (see section 3.3.4, Chapter 3), there exists a hierarchy of sponsorship awareness, with top-of-mind awareness (TOMA) considered as the pinnacle. This section will discuss the sponsorship awareness results and offer explanations for the differences in awareness between the sponsoring brands.

### ***8.2.1 Sponsorship TOMA***

Among the four brands (Potters, engage, Norwich Union and Natwest) for which sponsorship awareness was measured, the Norwich Union brand (athletics sponsorship) scored the highest in terms of TOMA, with 78% of event-based respondents citing the brand as the first named sponsor of athletics. This score, especially when considered against the TOMA scores of the other brands (Potters = 13%, engage = 16%, Natwest = 37%) was incredibly high, indicating a very strong link between the Norwich Union brand and athletics. Norwich Union is the number one sponsor of UK athletics, sponsoring the sport from grassroots to the elite level (Norwich Union, 2007a). As such, Norwich Union enjoys high visibility among athletics supporters, which could explain the strong link between the brand and the sport. While sponsorship awareness alone does not contribute to consumer-based brand equity, it plays a role in creating and maintaining brand visibility, thus reinforcing brand awareness. Therefore, the strong



sponsorship awareness for Norwich Union sets the brand up well for using the sponsorship as a platform upon which to build brand equity.

In the context of the wider brand equity scores achieved, surprisingly the lowest sponsorship TOMA score was achieved by Potters Holidays (13%). The nature of the Potters sponsorship, as a venue provider for the event, was different to that of the other sponsors in the study, which may account for the low awareness score. Sponsorship is typically associated with on-site signage or logos on competitor clothing, therefore it is feasible that spectators at the bowls event did not perceive venue provision to be a form of sponsorship. Nonetheless, as will be discussed below, recognition of Potters as a sponsor was high. Therefore, while venue provision may not generate sponsorship TOMA, spectators were aware of the support provided when prompted using sponsorship recognition techniques.

### ***8.2.2 Sponsorship recognition***

As with sponsorship TOMA, the highest recognition score was achieved by Norwich Union (92%), followed by Potters (87%) and Natwest (81%). As outlined in Chapters 6 and 7 respectively, Norwich Union and Natwest are very well-known, prominent brands within the UK. The studies discussed in section 3.6.1 in Chapter 3 by Johar and Pham (1999) and Pham and Johar (2001) found that prominent brands were more likely to be named as sponsors than less well-known brands. The empirical findings for Norwich Union and Natwest thus support these claims. However, there were differences in the general sponsorship recognition results between the athletics and cricket events. Aside

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from Norwich Union, no athletics sponsor achieved a recognition score of greater than 60% (Flora), while among the cricket event sample, the highest recognition score was achieved by nPower (85%), with other cricket sponsors Vodafone (73%) and Friends Provident (64%) also achieving high recognition. The distinction can thus be drawn between the sponsorship environments of the two sports, with athletics sponsorship being dominated by Norwich Union. Conversely, Natwest is one of many brands sponsoring cricket, resulting in a crowded marketplace where multiple brands are fighting for the consumer's attention. As will be discussed as a theme running through this chapter, the cluttered cricket sponsorship environment has serious consequences for the ability of individual sponsors to communicate their message and thus build consumer-based brand equity.

Unlike the established sponsoring brands, engage scored bowls sponsorship recognition of 51%, indicating that only half of respondents at the event actually recognised seeing any engage sponsorship activity. Unlike Norwich Union, engage is not a major sponsor, but rather was a sponsor of an individual competition within the wider World Indoor Bowls Championships (sponsored by Potters Holidays). As such, the engage sponsorship was dwarfed by that of Potters. Equally, the only visible engage sponsorship material was a small number of hoardings around the arena. Therefore, engage did not have the high level of visibility which other sponsors, notably Norwich Union, achieved through a large volume of on site signage and associated promotional materials such as free gifts and posters. This lack of visibility undoubtedly contributed to the low sponsorship recognition for engage. As a new brand, engage was using sponsorship (primarily rugby league but also bowls) to launch the brand name (engage,

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2007e), therefore gaining recognition was crucial in order to develop more general brand awareness. However, Koschler and Merz (1995) claim that sponsorship is used to push existing awareness (as evidenced by Norwich Union and Natwest), thus questioning its role as a sole marketing communications vehicle for a new brand. As will be discussed below, the relative failure to stimulate awareness had implications for the ability of the sponsorship to contribute to building brand equity for engage.

A final interesting result concerning sponsorship recognition was the finding that 42% of respondents at the cricket events believed Cornhill to be a sponsor of the sport. As discussed in section 3.6.1 of Chapter 3, Cornhill was a prominent sponsor of cricket in the 1970s and 1980s, although the brand is no longer associated with the sport. However, as suggested by Mason and Cochetel (2006) and Quester (1997), there is evidence that sponsors can enjoy a perceived association with sport even once the official relationship has ended. This may be a positive or negative benefit to the brand, depending upon the reasons for withdrawal of the sponsorship. As was noted above, sponsorship awareness is only a first step towards more general brand awareness, however it plays an important role in establishing a connection between the brand and the sponsored property, which is essential for image transfer to occur.

### ***8.2.3 Sponsorship awareness among comparison samples***

In contrast to the event-based samples, the brand scoring the highest level of sponsorship awareness among the comparison samples was engage. 79% of those aware of engage reported knowing that engage was involved in sponsorship. However,

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it is worth considering that only 5% of the comparison sample was actually aware of engage, therefore the number of respondents was very small. Of those respondents aware of some engage sponsorship, only 7% were aware of bowls sponsorship, while 57% were aware of the engage Super League rugby league sponsorship. Sponsorship was used as the primary communications vehicle to launch the engage brand, therefore with only 5% of the comparison sample being aware of the brand, it can be argued that the sole use of sponsorship was not an effective means of building awareness. This point will be elaborated upon below in section 8.3.1.

Among the comparison samples, 38% and 48% of respondents were aware of some sponsorship by Norwich Union and Natwest respectively. Among those aware of sponsorship, both brands scored high levels of association with the sports of athletics and cricket respectively. Therefore, while sponsorship awareness for the two brands is much lower in the comparison samples, among those aware of the sponsorship activity, there is a strong link between the brands and the sports. Television coverage of both athletics and cricket is likely to have fuelled such sponsorship awareness as both sports receive considerable exposure on either terrestrial or satellite television, along with print media coverage. However, knowledge of sponsorship among the comparison samples was not found to have a substantial impact upon wider elements of brand equity. It therefore, appears that for the sponsorship to impact beyond awareness, it is necessary for consumers to have some involvement with the event.



It is important to note that the above results refer to awareness of sponsorship of a sport, rather than a specific event. Therefore, the next section will discuss the findings from the event-based samples with relation to sponsorship of the specific events studied.

#### ***8.2.4 Event title sponsorship***

Once again, Norwich Union scored the highest level of title sponsorship awareness (95%), while only 60% of event-based respondents named Natwest as the title sponsor of Pro40 cricket. The athletics sponsorship domain in the UK is dominated by Norwich Union, with seven major athletics events in the UK (of which the events studied were two), being sponsored by the brand. Therefore, a very strong link has been forged between the Norwich Union brand and the athletics events. Such a link is necessary in order for image transfer to take place and, as evidenced by the results presented in Chapter 6, the Norwich Union brand benefited greatly from the link to athletics in terms of increased scores on brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty.

Unlike Norwich Union and Grand Prix athletics, only 60% of event-based respondents correctly named Natwest as the title sponsor of the Pro40 cricket competition.

Contrasted with the cricket sponsorship recognition score of 81%, the title sponsorship awareness was low. Once again, the poorer relative performance of Natwest in terms of title sponsorship awareness was hampered by the crowded cricket sponsorship environment, where multiple brands are involved in team and competition sponsorship at both domestic and international levels.



As explained in Chapter 7, Natwest not only sponsors the Pro40 competition, but also the one day international series. Therefore, while the association between the brand and the sport of cricket is high, the association between the brand and the Pro40 event is not as strong. A failure to forge a strong link between the sponsor and the sponsored event has implications for the ability of image transfer to take place and, as evidenced by the results presented in Chapter 7, Natwest did not benefit from the Pro40 sponsorship in the same way as did Norwich Union from the Grand Prix athletics sponsorship. Similarly, only 28% of event-based respondents correctly identified engage as the title sponsor of the Ladies World Matchplay bowls. The inability of sponsors to forge a strong link between their brand and the sponsored event is a theme which will be repeated throughout this chapter in offering an explanation for the results presented in Chapters 5, 6 and 7.

### **8.3 Brand Awareness**

Sponsorship can be seen as a means of creating brand visibility, which leads to more general brand awareness. As discussed throughout this thesis, brand awareness does not simply refer to brand name awareness but also to product class associations and possession of an opinion about the brand. Therefore, this section will discuss the findings for these three elements of brand awareness in turn.



### **8.3.1 Name awareness**

Hypothesis H<sub>1</sub> stated that sports sponsorship would positively impact on brand name awareness for all brands. No support was found for this hypothesis in the cases of Norwich Union and Natwest. However, both brands scored very highly on brand name awareness among both the event-based and comparison samples. Therefore, there was no scope for sponsorship to increase the brand name awareness levels. Howard and Crompton (2004) suggested that awareness is not a primary sponsorship objective for brands with already high awareness levels, therefore Norwich Union and Natwest were using the sponsorships not to build but to maintain awareness, as a platform from which to develop the other elements of consumer-based brand equity, such as brand associations. Consequently, it is important not to overstate the importance of such results as it is necessary to go beyond mere awareness in order to identify the impact of sponsorship on brand equity for established brands.

In the case of engage, support was found for hypothesis H<sub>1</sub>, with 51% of event-based respondents being aware of the brand, compared with only 5% among the comparison sample not exposed to the sponsorship. Thus, in line with much previous research (see for example Sandler and Shani, 1989; Hoek, Gendall and Theed, 1999), sponsorship was acting as a driver of brand name awareness. Brand awareness is particularly important for new brands (Farr, 1999; Franzen and Bouwman, 2001) such as engage, therefore it appears that sponsorship is achieving the first brand equity objective of brand name awareness.



As a newly launched brand, engage was starting from a very low base level of awareness. However, despite exposure to the brand via the event sponsorship, only half of event-based respondents had heard of the brand. As mentioned above in section 8.2.2, the engage on-site sponsorship was confined to a relatively small number of hoardings around the bowls arena. Chapter 2 explained that the most successful sponsorships are those which use a range of marketing communications tools to communicate the sponsorship (Kohl and Otter, 1985; Koschler and Merz, 1995; Crimmins and Horn, 1996). As discussed in Chapter 5, such exploitation for engage was not in evidence at the event, therefore although the sponsorship led to a significantly higher level of name awareness, the full utility of the sponsorship was not maximised as the message only reached half of the intended target audience.

The measure of brand awareness at the event took place very quickly after exposure to sponsorship stimuli bearing the brand name, thus there is no indication whether such increased awareness among the event-based sample would have persisted after the event (Sleight, 1989). As discussed in section 3.6.1 of Chapter 3, Keller (2003) claims that anything which creates visibility can contribute to brand awareness in terms of recognition (e.g. "have you heard of engage?"). However, the goal for brands should be to go beyond visibility (Joachimsthaler and Aaker, 1997) and to influence the strength and formation of brand associations (Keller, 1993).



### ***8.3.2 Product class associations***

Within hypothesis H<sub>1</sub>, it was suggested that the impact of sponsorship on broader brand awareness through product association would be greater for more established brands rather than new brands. This study comprised both established (Norwich Union and Natwest) and new (engage) brands. Ukman (2004) claims that sponsorship is not capable of communicating large volumes of product information. However, in the event-based sample, among those aware of the engage brand, 80% correctly identified financial services as the product class, compared with 39% in the comparison sample. Therefore, it appears that for those who were aware of the brand after exposure to the sponsorship, product class associations were transferred. However, on a more detailed level, the only financial service named in association with engage was insurance, which is only one of the products offered by the company. Therefore, while general product class associations were communicated through the engage bowls sponsorship, there was a lack of detailed knowledge being created, which impacted upon the creation of brand equity (see sections 8.4.1, 8.5.1 and 8.6.1 below).

In contrast, among the comparison sample, 46% of respondents aware of engage cited sports sponsorship as an association with engage. This finding supports the claim made above about the ability of sponsorship to create name awareness through increasing brand visibility. However, those citing sponsorship as an association were only aware of the brand name, probably in this case through seeing engage Super League rugby league (which was frequently broadcast on terrestrial and satellite television); they were not aware of the product class in which the brand operates, which prevents possible

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future trial, as no link is made between the product category or purchase occasion and the engage brand. Consequently, direct exposure to the sponsorship at the bowls event has contributed to a knowledge of product-class associations, while indirect exposure such as on television has not had the same impact upon creating product associations. For a new brand, name awareness and product category associations are crucial, therefore in the case of engage, the sponsorship has, only to a certain degree, contributed to greater overall brand awareness.

As with name awareness, no significant difference was found between the product associations for Norwich Union and Natwest among the event-based and comparison samples. As well-established brands, both scored highly in terms of correct product associations, indicating a strong overall level of brand awareness including knowledge of the appropriate product class. Consequently, no support was found for the above contention that the impact of sponsorship on product associations would be greater for established brands rather than new brands. The established brands did demonstrate a higher overall level of correct product associations than did engage, however as the high levels for Norwich Union and Natwest were consistent across those exposed and those not exposed to the sponsorship, no claim can be made for the use of sponsorship in building these associations.

Keller (1993) places brand awareness at the base of the brand equity hierarchy and while this study has not adopted a hierarchical view of consumer-based brand equity, it is logical to assume that brand awareness is a necessary but not sufficient prerequisite for brand equity (Keller, 2003). Therefore, both Norwich Union and Natwest had a

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strong awareness platform from which to build wider brand equity. Aaker (2002) claims that strong brands are managed for strategic awareness, that is, not simply being remembered, but being remembered for the right reasons. As such, having discussed the implications of the name awareness and product associations results, the next section will explore brand opinion, which can be seen as a bridge from mere awareness to broader brand associations.

### ***8.3.3 Brand opinion***

Brand opinion scores for Norwich Union and Natwest were significantly higher among those directly exposed to the respective sponsorships than among the comparison samples. This indicates that sponsorship contributed to the development of brand opinions. Exposure to the sponsor's brand name in the event context forged a stronger opinion of the brand in the minds of the spectators, possibly through the process of image transfer. However, the measure of brand opinion only considered strength and not direction of opinion, therefore it is impossible to know if the opinions created through sponsorship exposure were positive or negative. Nonetheless, as a bridge between name awareness and brand associations, both Natwest and Norwich Union have used sponsorship to build consumer opinions of the brands. The differential results in terms of brand associations for the two brands will be discussed below in section 8.4.1.

Unlike Natwest and Norwich Union, there was no significant difference in brand opinion scores for engage between the event-based and comparison samples. Equally,

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the mean brand opinion score for engage (0.41 for event-based sample) was the lowest among the three brands. The ability of sponsorship to build name association for engage was explained above, however the effect of the sponsorship was not carried to a deeper level, as no discernible impact was made in terms of brand opinion. As explained above, event-based respondents had only patchy knowledge of engage in terms of product associations. Therefore, the level of brand information communicated by the sponsorship (simple use of on-site signage) was not sufficient to build brand opinion as the overall level of brand knowledge was low.

As outlined in Chapter 5 and as will be discussed below, engage's bowls sponsorship had no discernible impact upon brand associations, perceived quality or brand loyalty. The inability of the engage sponsorship to go beyond creating name awareness can be attributed to the lack of brand knowledge communicated through the sponsorship activities. Keller (1993, p.2) defines consumer-based brand equity as the "differential impact of brand knowledge on consumer response to the marketing of the brand." The engage bowls sponsorship was a prime example of a brand using merely on-site signage and not leveraging the association through other promotional activities, thus failing to create sufficient brand knowledge to facilitate the development of higher order elements of brand equity. Such an approach can be contrasted with the Olympic sponsorship arena, with its clean venue policy, which forces sponsors to communicate their association with the Games through other means. Olympic sponsorship is viewed as a yardstick by which all other sponsorships can be measured, with Olympic sponsors reporting enormous benefits as a result of their sponsorship activities. While the profile of engage is very different from that of many Olympic sponsors, the role of leverage

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activities is seen to be a crucial factor in determining the success of a sponsorship in terms of contributing to brand building objectives.

Brand awareness creates a platform from which a brand can build consumer-based brand equity. Therefore, this chapter will now discuss the results obtained for the sponsoring brands in terms of brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty in order to assess the contribution of sports sponsorship to consumer-based brand equity.

#### **8.4 Brand Associations**

Sponsorship can aid brand awareness through gaining media coverage, however the effectiveness of the sponsorship is enhanced if spectators go beyond simple awareness and image transfer occurs (Roy and Cornwell, 2004). Keller (1993, p.2), in line with his definition of brand equity outlined above, claims that consumer-based brand equity occurs “when the consumer is familiar with the brand and holds some favorable, strong and unique brand associations in memory.” While Aaker (1991) does not place more importance on brand associations than any other element of brand equity, the volume of literature reviewed in Chapter 3 implies that brand associations have been a major focus of interest, particularly in terms of assessing the contribution of marketing communications.



### ***8.4.1 Overall brand associations***

As presented in Chapter 5, the mean brand associations score for engage among the event-based sample ( $\bar{x} = 1.33$ ) was marginally higher than that for the comparison sample ( $\bar{x} = 1.21$ ), however this difference was not found to be statistically significant. Therefore, no support was found for hypothesis H<sub>2</sub>, which stated that sports sponsorship would have a positive impact upon brand associations. Equally, the mean scores for both sample groups were very low, indicating a generalised lack of associations held about the engage brand. The brand was relatively new at the time of the data collection, therefore a low brand associations score among the comparison sample was perhaps to be expected, due to the limited exposure that respondents would have had to the brand. However, the low brand associations score among those exposed to the event sponsorship indicates that no associations were being transferred to the engage brand through the bowls sponsorship. Skildum-Reid (2003) questioned the marketing return from sponsorship where the only tool used is placing a logo in front of spectators. At the bowls event, this was the extent of engage's sponsorship, therefore, once again, the lack of leverage activities is likely to be a contributory factor to the paucity of brand associations transferred.

As indicated above, there was a lack of brand knowledge concerning the engage brand, therefore the condition of familiarity advocated by Keller (1993) was not present, even after exposure to sponsorship stimuli at the bowls event. Thus it appears that sponsorship is not able to create new associations where there is a lack of underlying brand knowledge. Section 3.3.3 of Chapter 3 outlined Aaker's (2002) analogy of

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brands as mental billboards; as explained above, the brand knowledge of engage was limited to the brand name and an association with financial services, therefore the brand's billboard was very small. To increase the brand presence in consumer memory, it is necessary to add further associations, which the bowls sponsorship did not achieve. As will be discussed further below, sponsorship did make a significant contribution to brand associations for established brands (Norwich Union and, to a lesser extent, Natwest). Therefore it is not sponsorship per se which is unable to deliver brand associations, but rather the existing brand knowledge conditions for engage which inhibited the transfer of associations to the brand.

A significant difference was found between the mean brand associations scores of the event-based and comparison samples for both Norwich Union and Natwest, thus offering support in these cases for hypothesis H<sub>2</sub>. Both of these established brands have existing stores of brand knowledge in the minds of consumers, therefore providing a strong base of existing associations on which the sponsorships can impact. It would appear that in order for lesser-known brands to benefit from sponsorship, it is necessary for them to have an existing base level of brand equity in terms of consumers having some knowledge of the brand.

Jones and Slater (2003) claimed that the role of advertising is primarily to reinforce what consumers already know about a brand. Therefore, it is possible that sponsorship works in the same manner, with the existing Norwich Union and Natwest brand associations being augmented by the sponsorship activity, thus contributing to the overall higher mean scores among the event-based samples. Both brands undertake

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other marketing communications activity, not just sports sponsorship, for example Norwich Union uses prominent television advertising to communicate product information. In September 2007, engage launched its first television commercial for over four years (engage, 2007f); therefore at the time of data collection, sponsorship was the primary marketing communications tool being used to launch the brand. The Norwich Union and Natwest sponsorships were just one of several brand communication vehicles being used, while engage relied heavily on sponsorship of bowls and rugby league. The empirical results from this research thus support the study by Fenton (2005) reported in section 3.6.2 of Chapter 3, which found that sponsorship was only one of a range of sources of information used in brand image formation. Thus, it appears that sponsorship is capable of building brand associations in conjunction with a range of other marketing communications tools, however as a stand alone vehicle, its effectiveness is vastly reduced.

#### ***8.4.2 Individual brand associations elements***

In line with the overall brand associations scores, no significant difference was found between the event-based and comparison samples for engage on any of the individual elements of the brand associations measure. Conversely, a significantly higher score for the event-based sample for Norwich Union was found on the variables of differentiation, reason to purchase, distinctive personality, value relative to competitors and user image. The view of Aaker (2002) discussed in section 3.3.6 of Chapter 3 indicated that differentiation from competitors is a key measure of brand associations. Therefore, the significant difference between the scores on this element for Norwich

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Union indicates that the athletics sponsorship was having a positive impact in terms of providing a point of differentiation from competitors. Product differentiation in the financial services (and particularly insurance) market is very difficult as there is a set standard of cover which most consumers want and, consequently, which most providers offer. Therefore in order to differentiate from competitors, brands need to develop intangible, image associations. Norwich Union's sponsorship of athletics offers such a point of differentiation, helping the brand to stand out from the crowd.

No significant difference was found in terms of differentiation between the two sample groups for Natwest, thus bringing the above claim into question. However, Norwich Union is the only financial services provider currently involved in top level athletics sponsorship, while Natwest is merely one of several financial services companies (e.g. Friends Provident, LV, Yorkshire Bank) involved in sponsorship of cricket competitions (ECB, 2007a). Therefore, while Norwich Union uses athletics sponsorship as a means of differentiation from competitors, the concentration of financial services providers involved in cricket means that this particular sponsorship vehicle is not a strong means of standing out within the industry.

The dimensions of personality and user image for which Norwich Union enjoyed a significantly higher score among event-based respondents are intangible image associations, while value in comparison with competitors and reason to purchase are more concrete in nature. Ukman (2004) claimed that sponsorship is useful for creating intangible associations, therefore some support is found here for that contention. In line with the above suggestion that sponsorship does not create new associations but rather

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enhances existing associations, it is implied in these findings that the athletics sponsorship enhanced the personality and user image associations for Norwich Union.

As outlined in Chapter 6, the associated leverage activities used by Norwich Union to exploit the athletics sponsorship included a link with grassroots development programmes along with promotional activities at the events, such as distributing free gifts. By using the athletics sponsorship as a launchpad for wider marketing communications activity, Norwich Union was able to disseminate a coherent message to consumers and reinforce the association with the sport. All such activities can help to build tangible and intangible brand associations, thus contributing to consumer-based brand equity. Therefore, as discussed above in section 8.3.3, the degree to which a sponsorship is leveraged can contribute greatly to the success of that sponsorship in terms of achieving its brand building and communications objectives.

As stated above, Norwich Union also obtained significantly higher scores among the event-based sample on the dimensions of reason to purchase and value for money. It is possible that the intangible associations developed through the sponsorship contributed to these more concrete associations, by differentiating the brand from competitors and thus securing the position of Norwich Union in the consumer's consideration set.

#### ***8.4.3 Brand associations and perceived sponsorship fit***

In line with the postulation by Speed and Thompson (2000) that a higher perceived fit between sponsor and event leads to a higher level of favourable response to the

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sponsorship, hypothesis H<sub>2</sub>(a) suggested that the impact of sponsorship on brand associations would be greater for brands which demonstrated a high degree of fit with the sponsored event. As discussed in section 3.6.2 of Chapter 3, there are several types of sponsor – event fit, including functional, demographic and symbolic (Smith, 2004). As financial services providers, Norwich Union, Natwest and engage do not exhibit functional fit with any of the events sponsored, therefore the link between the sponsors and the events is less evident to consumers. These three brands demonstrate demographic fit, with their target market segments matching the target audiences of the events.

In this study, perceived sponsor – event fit was measured by asking event-based respondents whether they believed the sponsor was appropriate for that event. The highest perceived fit was achieved by Natwest with 72% of respondents agreeing that Natwest was an appropriate sponsor of cricket, followed by Norwich Union and engage both with 64% for athletics and bowls respectively. The brand which achieved the greatest benefit in terms of brand associations was Norwich Union, while the impact of sponsorship on the engage brand associations was negligible. Therefore, no support was found for hypothesis H<sub>2</sub>(a).

Howard and Crompton (2004) suggest that where a functional link exists between sponsor and event, less investment is required to establish the link and thus facilitate image transfer. However, as none of the brands had functional fit, a possible explanatory factor for the differential performance of Norwich Union and engage is the nature of the link between the sponsoring brand and the event. While both brands

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exhibited demographic fit with the events, there is an overlap in core values between Norwich Union and athletics. Through sponsoring both grassroots and elite athletics, Norwich Union is helping youngsters to prepare for a healthy life through athletics participation and creating positive role models at the elite level. This theme fits with Norwich Union's core product value of taking care of what is important, i.e. insurance services (Norwich Union, 2007d). Therefore, despite having an equal score to engage in terms of being an appropriate sponsor, Norwich Union appears to demonstrate a greater depth of fit with athletics, which may account for the increased effectiveness of sponsorship in building brand associations. This fit between a particular brand association and other pieces of brand information held in memory increases the strength of the association in comparison to if it existed in isolation (Aaker, 1991). Therefore, by selecting a sponsorship vehicle (athletics) with common core values, Norwich Union was able to benefit in terms of greater image transfer.

As discussed in section 3.6.4 in Chapter 3, Roy and Cornwell (2003; 2004) found that brands with a higher overall level of brand equity had a greater reported sponsor – event fit. Norwich Union scored higher than Natwest and engage on the dimensions of brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty and thus can be viewed as having a high level of underlying brand equity. This existing brand strength could have therefore made it easier for Norwich Union to benefit from the transfer of images from the athletics events.

An alternative explanation for the differential impact of sponsorship on brand associations for Norwich Union, Natwest and engage may be the strength of the link

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between the sponsor and the event in terms of event title sponsorship awareness. As outlined above in section 8.2.4, 95% of respondents at the athletics events named Norwich Union as the title sponsor, compared with 60% for Natwest at the cricket events and 28% for engage at the bowls championships. Therefore, the sponsor which was most tightly associated with the sponsored event benefited the most in terms of brand associations, as such strong ties create the best possible environment for the transfer of desirable associations from the event to the sponsoring brand. The level of commitment to the respective events also differs among the three brands, with Norwich Union being the number one sponsor of UK athletics (Norwich Union, 2007a) with an association from 1999 through to 2012. As such the brand has demonstrated a strong commitment to the event (and the sport in general), while, for example, engage cannot claim such a level of attachment to bowls given the more recent and less all-encompassing nature of the sponsorship. Therefore, through demonstrating its commitment to the Grand Prix athletics, Norwich Union is creating a favourable environment which encourages the transfer of positive images from the event to the brand. If engage continues its association with bowls, sponsorship may begin to make an increasing contribution to brand associations, however, as discussed above, this is unlikely to occur if sponsorship is the only communications vehicle used.

Finally, in terms of brand associations, event-based and comparison sample respondents were asked to state whether knowledge of the sponsorship had improved their image of the brand. For engage, 46% of event-based respondents reported liking the brand at least a little more, while there was no impact on brand image among the comparison sample. Therefore, while there was no evidence of the bowls sponsorship positively

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impacting upon brand associations, there was some positive image change taking place, which may act as a precursor to the development of brand associations if the engage bowls sponsorship persists.

Conversely, little difference was found between the event-based and comparison samples for Norwich Union and Natwest in terms of the impact of sponsorship on brand image. Such findings are incongruent with the demonstrated increase in brand associations among those exposed to the sponsorships for both brands. However, even though the results suggest that sponsorship is impacting positively upon brand associations, consumers like to believe that their attitudes and behaviour are completely rational, therefore they do not like to admit that marketing communications are influencing them. As such, caution is required if brand image change is totally self-reported as the impact of sponsorship, or any marketing communications tool, is likely to be underestimated.

### **8.5 Perceived Quality**

Within the diversity of studies of brand equity and, more specifically, marketing communications, perceived quality has been assessed as either an individual component (e.g. Aaker, 1991) or a component of wider brand associations (e.g. Javalgi *et al*, 1994). In comparison with brand associations, there has been a paucity of research investigating the impact of sponsorship on quality perceptions and, as discussed in section 3.6.3 of Chapter 3, the studies which have taken place have failed to reach a consensus on the ability of sponsorship to positively impact on perceived quality.

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### ***8.5.1 Overall perceived quality***

The results presented in Chapter 5 for engage indicated that although the mean perceived quality score for the event-based sample was higher than that among the comparison sample, the difference was not statistically significant. Therefore, in the case of engage, no support was found for hypothesis H<sub>3</sub>. In line with the explanation given above concerning brand associations, consumers do not appear to have a sufficient base level of brand knowledge, which inhibited the transfer of associations (such as quality) from the sponsored event. Using Keller's (1993) associative network theory, brands are made up of an interconnected set of nodes in the memory of consumers. Individual associations are thus nodes branching off the main brand node. However, it appears that the engage brand node was not sufficiently strong to facilitate the development of less tangible associations such as a perception of quality. Therefore, connotations of quality associated with the bowls event were not able to be transferred to the engage brand, thus resulting in the failure of the sponsorship to have a discernible impact upon perceived quality.

Continuing with the engage brand, the bowls event studied is one of the major events on the competitive calendar, therefore there is potential for the transfer of quality associations. However, as a secondary sponsor within the main event sponsored by Potters, the profile of engage was dramatically reduced. Consequently, spectators were receiving the message that engage was less prominent than Potters and therefore the brand may not have benefited from the transfer of associations of quality, which may all have been directed to the main sponsor. Evidently, as discussed above, the failure of

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the bowls sponsorship to contribute to perceived quality for engage was largely determined by the lack of existing brand knowledge. However, if the sponsorship continues and the brand becomes more well-known, the profile of engage as a minor sponsor may inhibit the transfer of quality associations in the future.

As with brand associations, the perceived quality score for Norwich Union was significantly higher among those exposed to the athletics sponsorship than those in the comparison sample. Therefore, the Norwich Union athletics sponsorship offered support for hypothesis H<sub>3</sub>, indicating that sponsorship impacted positively upon the perceptions of quality of the brand. As discussed in section 3.3.7 of Chapter 3, Kirmani and Zeithaml (1993) claimed that extrinsic cues such as promotional expenditure can influence quality perceptions. With its commitment to athletics until 2012 and the high level of support (seven events, UK team sponsorship and grassroots sponsorship) that the Norwich Union sponsorship entails, quality cues are given to those exposed to the sponsorship. This can be contrasted with the position of engage as a secondary sponsor in the context of the wider World Bowls Championships. Equally, as discussed above, Norwich Union achieved a very high level of awareness as the title sponsor of the event, thus forging strong ties which facilitated image transfer. As such, the perception of quality created by the sponsorship of Grand Prix athletics and the strength of the link between the sponsor and the event combined to transfer such positive associations of quality from athletics to Norwich Union.

Unlike with brand associations, the difference between the scores for perceived quality for the event-based and comparison samples for Natwest was not significant (although

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the event sample mean score was higher). Therefore in this case there was no support for hypothesis H<sub>3</sub>. Unlike Norwich Union, Natwest did not demonstrate a very strong level of title sponsorship awareness for the Pro40 event. This link is critical in allowing image transfer to take place and while awareness of Natwest as a sponsor of cricket was high, for the specific event, the association was not as strong. As such, attempts to transfer images of quality from the Pro40 event to the Natwest brand were unsuccessful. It can be said, therefore, that a vague association with a sport is not sufficient for image transfer to take place; strong event – sponsor links are required to facilitate this process.

Ries and Trout (2001) claim that advertising is not as effective as it once was due to the proliferation of media vehicles in modern society. This general observation can be aptly applied to the cricket sponsorship environment, which, as outlined above, is very cluttered with a range of both financial and non-financial related sponsors. Norwich Union enjoys the position of being the number one sponsor of UK athletics events, thus the status associated with this can “rub off” onto the brand, so improving the perception of quality. However, in the crowded world of cricket sponsorship, no one brand can claim this prestigious position, therefore making it difficult for any individual sponsor to benefit from quality associations.

### ***8.5.2 Individual perceived quality dimensions***

As with the overall measure, no significant difference was found for Natwest between the event-based and comparison samples on any of the individual perceived quality elements. Conversely, Norwich Union scored significantly higher among event-based

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respondents on the dimensions of leadership, popularity and innovation. The inclusion of leadership into the measure of perceived quality taps the dynamics of the marketplace (Aaker, 2002). In line with the above argument concerning the benefit of being the most prominent UK athletics sponsor, the Norwich Union brand used the sponsorship to build the perception of the brand as a leader. This point is further illustrated by the absence of a significant difference on the leadership dimension for Natwest. The high profile and ubiquity achieved by Norwich Union in its link with athletics enabled connotations of superiority and leadership to be transferred to the brand through the sponsorship. However, faced with the large number of fellow sponsors of cricket, Natwest was unable to tap such associations. The conceptual jump for consumers from seeing Norwich Union as the leading UK athletics sponsor to seeing Norwich Union as a leader in its field is very small. On the other hand, spectators saw Natwest as one of a crowd of cricket sponsors, therefore the link with product category leadership was much more tenuous. As such, this explains the differential impact of sponsorship on leadership perceptions between Norwich Union and Natwest.

Leadership associations can also be derived from sponsorship through the superiority associated with being in a position to sponsor a high profile event. Howard and Crompton (2004) claim that sponsorship gives the impression that if the sponsor can afford to support a major event then it must be a large and powerful company.

Therefore, the scale of Norwich Union's commitment to athletics events demonstrated such a position and reinforced, in the mind of consumers, the perception of the brand as a leader in its category. The engage brand also achieved a significantly higher score on leadership among the event-based sample, however the mean scores for both the event-

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based and comparison samples were very small. Therefore, the substantive contribution in terms of developing overall brand equity was negligible.

A significant difference for engage was also found on the dimension of comparison with competitors, however once again the mean scores for both sample groups were very low, indicating that the effect of sponsorship was not substantively meaningful.

Norwich Union failed to achieve a significantly higher score on the comparison with competitors dimension among the event-based sample, however the mean scores both at the event and among the comparison sample were high (73% and 69% rated the brand at least as good as competitors in the event-based and comparison samples respectively).

Aaker (1991) claims that quality is measured relative to competitors. Therefore, across both sample groups, Norwich Union has a strong relative quality perception as a base on which to build other quality associations. The Grand Prix athletics sponsorship was thus used to build on the high relative perception of the brand in order to increase the overall perceived quality score among the event-based sample.

Franzen and Bouwman (2001) claim that a perception of high quality can reduce price sensitivity, which is a strong motivation for financial services providers, who frequently must compete on price. As will be discussed further below, a significant difference was found for Norwich Union on the brand loyalty dimension of willingness to pay a higher price, however this difference is not of substantive significance as the mean scores for both sample groups were negative, indicating a generalised unwillingness to pay a price premium. Such a result is unsurprising in the price-driven context of the financial services marketplace; however, by creating additional quality cues, the Norwich Union

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sponsorship contributed in some way to developing a point of competitive differentiation for the brand. Therefore, if Norwich Union can match its competitors on price, the quality associations derived from the sponsorship offer an advantage over other financial services providers, which may have an impact on future sales.

The direct association between sponsorship and sales, as discussed in Chapter 3, is at best tenuous, however evidence from the empirical results presented in Chapters 5, 6 and 7 suggests that sponsorship can impact upon brand loyalty. Therefore, the next section of this chapter will assess the contribution made to brand loyalty for engage, Norwich Union and Natwest.

## **8.6 Brand Loyalty**

Brand loyalty is unique among the elements of brand equity in that it is the only one which makes a direct contribution to sales (Aaker, 1991). Therefore, achieving brand loyalty is a priority for most brands. Hypothesis H<sub>4</sub> suggested that sports sponsorship would have a positive impact on brand loyalty and for engage, Norwich Union and Natwest the mean brand loyalty scores for event-based respondents were higher than those for the comparison samples.

### ***8.6.1 Overall brand loyalty***

In the case of engage, the difference in brand loyalty scores between the event-based and comparison samples was not statistically significant. Equally, the mean brand

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loyalty scores from both sample groups were very low (0.84 and 0.33 for the event-based and comparison samples respectively). Therefore, in the case of engage, no support was found for hypothesis H<sub>4</sub> as exposure to the bowls sponsorship did not have a discernible impact upon the dimension of brand loyalty. As the above discussion has indicated, the bowls sponsorship did not have a significant impact upon either brand associations or perceived quality for engage, therefore it is unsurprising that no contribution was made to brand loyalty, which is often viewed as a higher order element of brand equity.

As was outlined in the discussion in Chapter 3, there is no consensus in the literature about the ability of sponsorship to contribute to brand loyalty or its constituent components, such as purchase intention. In contrast to the findings for engage, the difference in mean brand loyalty scores between the event-based and comparison samples was significant for both Norwich Union and Natwest, thus providing support in these cases for hypothesis H<sub>4</sub>. Such results echo the research conducted by Levin, Beasley and Gamble (2004), which found evidence of increased loyalty to NASCAR sponsors among fans. NASCAR is characterised by high levels of fan attachment to the sport, which is mirrored to some extent by athletics, which is a sport in which individuals can act as a spectator and participant. As a sport with a strong participant base, the integrated nature of the leverage activities undertaken by Norwich Union in linking the elite sponsorship with grassroots support, works to create the impression among fans that the brand is strongly committed to the future development of the sport. Such perceptions can engender feelings of loyalty to the sponsor through the belief that by supporting Norwich Union they are indirectly contributing to the sport itself.

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In the case of both Norwich Union and Natwest the increase in brand loyalty scores among event-based respondents was accompanied by a corresponding increase in brand associations scores. Therefore, having developed positive associations through the athletics and cricket sponsorships, Norwich Union and Natwest became brands which spectators wanted to be seen to have a relationship with. Consequently, the transfer of positive brand associations from event sponsorship may explain the increased loyalty expressed by event-based respondents.

### ***8.6.2 Attitudinal and behavioural brand loyalty***

Brand loyalty can be divided into attitudinal and behavioural components, as discussed thoroughly in section 3.3.9 in Chapter 3. Behavioural loyalty, as the name suggests, implies a greater commitment to the brand and measures consumer behaviour rather than attitudes. Following from this, hypothesis H<sub>4</sub>(a) suggested that the effect of sports sponsorship on brand loyalty would be greater for attitudinal measures and lesser for behavioural loyalty.

In line with the overall brand loyalty scores, no significant difference was found between the event-based and comparison samples for engage on any individual element of brand loyalty. However, for Norwich Union, the mean scores for those exposed to the athletics sponsorship were significantly higher on the attitudinal dimensions of expressed loyalty and purchase intention, while for Natwest the event-based mean scores were higher for expressed loyalty, recommendation to friends and family and intention to purchase. Significant differences between event-based and comparison

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sample respondents for both Norwich Union and Natwest were also found on the behavioural element of willingness to pay a higher price, however in both cases the mean scores across those exposed and those not exposed to the sponsorships were negative, thus indicating that there was no meaningful contribution to behavioural loyalty. Consequently, for both Norwich Union's athletics sponsorship and Natwest's sponsorship of the Pro40 cricket, support was found for hypothesis H<sub>4</sub>(a).

Within the financial services sector, much so-called loyalty is actually negative loyalty, for example, as a result of inertia or high perceived switching costs (Harrison, 2000). Therefore, measuring behavioural loyalty can actually overestimate true brand loyalty and, as such, attitudinal loyalty may give the greatest clues to the level of attachment to a brand. The significantly higher mean scores on elements of attitudinal brand loyalty such as purchase intention, therefore indicate that, for Norwich Union and Natwest, event sponsorship was targeting the most influential factors in terms of securing future trial and purchase. However, while sponsorship has contributed to the development of attitudinal brand loyalty, it has not had an impact on the ability of any sponsor to command a, highly valuable, price premium. Nonetheless, as explained above in section 8.5.2, in the case of Norwich Union, sponsorship has built positive quality associations; thus if the brand can match competitors on price the intangible image associations achieved through the Grand Prix athletics sponsorship may lead to increased sales by providing a point of competitive differentiation in a highly homogeneous market.



In addition to the measures of brand loyalty included in the Aaker (1996) brand equity measurement tool, event-based respondents were also asked to indicate whether they were more likely to purchase products or services from a sponsor of either bowls, athletics or cricket respectively. In contrast with the above results indicating a positive contribution of sports sponsorship to brand loyalty for Natwest and Norwich Union, only 36% of event-based respondents reported agreement with the statement of purchasing products from athletics sponsors rather than competitors and only 24% agreed with the statement for cricket sponsors. Equally, 30% of respondents were in disagreement with the statement that they would purchase a product from a cricket sponsor over one from a competitor. However, as with the self-reported impact of sports sponsorship on brand image, this question measured the direct opinion of the respondents. Consumers are often reluctant to admit to being influenced by marketing communications, thus underreporting the impact of sponsorship on their future purchasing intentions. Equally, the question asked was very general in relation to athletics or cricket sponsors rather than sponsors of the specific events in question. Therefore, respondents may not demonstrate a marked willingness to purchase products from just any sponsor, although the emotional connection built at the event may contribute to the increased intention to purchase products/services from the specific event sponsors.

The above discussion has highlighted the reasons behind the contribution of sponsorship to the development of brand loyalty for Norwich Union and Natwest and the failure of engage's bowls sponsorship to impact on loyalty to the brand. However, in all cases the

mean scores for brand loyalty were lower than for any other elements of brand equity, therefore it is important not to overstate the contribution made to overall brand equity.

### **8.7 Differential Impact of Sponsorship on Brand Equity Elements**

Unlike the other elements of brand equity, brand loyalty refers to customer actions as well as just knowledge or associations; thus the commitment implied by statements of loyalty suggests that it is harder for brands to create loyalty than either associations or a perception of quality. Therefore, hypothesis H<sub>5</sub> suggested that the impact of sports sponsorship on brand loyalty would be less than that on brand associations and perceived quality.

Among the event-based samples, the mean brand loyalty scores were found to be significantly lower for engage, Norwich Union and Natwest. However, a significant difference was also found for all three brands among the comparison samples, indicating a generalised lower score for brand loyalty than for brand associations or perceived quality. Therefore, no support was found for hypothesis H<sub>5</sub> as it was not possible to associate the lower brand loyalty score purely with sponsorship exposure. While the event-based sample results would indicate that the impact of sponsorship is lower for brand loyalty, the impact was not confined to those exposed to the event sponsorship and thus such results are more likely a consequence of the status of brand loyalty as a higher order element of brand equity.



### **8.8 Impact of Product Trial on Sports Sponsorship Effectiveness**

The results presented in Chapter 5 compared brand equity scores among event-based respondents at the World Indoor Bowls Championship for Potters and engage. The Potters sponsorship involved providing a venue for the event, therefore offering spectators the opportunity to sample the product/service by staying at Potters Leisure Resort or, to a lesser extent, by visiting for the day to watch the bowls. Ukman (2004) suggested that one of the advantages of sponsorship over advertising is its ability to offer product trial opportunities and logically if consumers can sample a product or service, the sponsorship is likely to have a greater impact than if no such option is available. Consequently, hypothesis H<sub>6</sub> suggested that sports sponsorship would impact more on all elements of brand equity for sponsors where the sponsorship allowed for product trial.

The results presented in Chapter 5 illustrated that Potters scored significantly higher than engage on all dimensions of brand equity, thus offering support for hypothesis H<sub>6</sub>. The nature of engage products makes them unsuitable for sampling at a sporting event, while by simply attending the event, spectators were sampling Potters Leisure Resort. Therefore, the product trial opportunities contributed to a greater impact on brand equity for Potters. However, supporting hypothesis H<sub>6</sub> based solely upon the case of Potters and engage is misleading as the two sponsoring brands were not comparable in terms of underlying awareness and brand knowledge. The relatively low awareness and weak levels of brand knowledge for engage hampered the ability of the sponsorship to contribute to wider elements of brand equity, while Potters had been a sponsor of bowls

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since 1999 (Potters Holidays, 2007a), thus building up a degree of familiarity among bowls spectators. Therefore, in drawing conclusions from the bowls event, like was not compared with like. Nonetheless, the very strong performance of Potters on all elements of brand equity indicated a strong degree of liking for the brand among those exposed to the sponsorship.

Potters achieved the highest mean scores for brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty out of all of the brands studied (engage, Potters, Norwich Union and Natwest). Comparing the relative performance (event-based) of Potters with Norwich Union and Natwest is more acceptable in terms of similarity of status as all three are established brands which have been involved in their respective sponsorships for several years. As shown below in Tables 8.1 and 8.2, the mean scores for Potters among the event-based sample were significantly higher than those for Norwich Union (Table 8.1) and Natwest (Table 8.2) on the dimensions of brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty<sup>1</sup>.

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<sup>1</sup> Excluding “intention to purchase” as this was not included in Potters questionnaire.

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**Table 8.1 Impact of Product Trial on Brand Equity (Potters v Norwich Union)**

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Brand Associations	Equal variances assumed	15.235	288	.000	7.28383
	Equal variances not assumed	15.957	214.275	.000	7.28383
Perceived Quality	Equal variances assumed	12.871	283	.000	6.05280
	Equal variances not assumed	13.483	209.364	.000	6.05280
Brand Loyalty	Equal variances assumed	12.975	291	.000	5.92333
	Equal variances not assumed	12.934	186.891	.000	5.92333

**Table 8.2 Impact of Product Trial on Brand Equity (Potters v Natwest)**

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Brand Associations	Equal variances assumed	14.177	193	.000	8.09186
	Equal variances not assumed	14.228	185.279	.000	8.09186
Perceived Quality	Equal variances assumed	11.149	196	.000	6.98670
	Equal variances not assumed	11.375	179.751	.000	6.98670
Brand Loyalty	Equal variances assumed	11.160	197	.000	6.76557
	Equal variances not assumed	11.258	190.898	.000	6.76557



Equally, Potters scored significantly higher than either Norwich Union or Natwest on all of the individual elements of brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty.

These results thus offer support for hypothesis H<sub>6</sub>, implying that sponsorship is more effective at building brand equity where product trial opportunities are available.

Unlike Norwich Union and Natwest, Potters had a functional, self-evident link (Cornwell, 1995) with the bowls event, by providing the arena in which the event took place. Therefore, the process of image transfer from the event to the sponsor was easier as the connection required less processing by consumers.

Potters also achieved the highest score in terms of being an appropriate sponsor, with 98% of respondents at the event claiming that the brand was an appropriate sponsor for bowls. Therefore, the strong level of fit, undoubtedly boosted by the functional link, and consequent product trial opportunities aided the sponsorship in building consumer-based brand equity for Potters.

In the case of Potters, by providing a venue at which the event can take place, the brand would have benefited enormously in terms of goodwill among spectators, who would feel that Potters was making a direct and beneficial contribution to the sport. This perception is in contrast to the often held view that sponsors are merely “in it for the money.” Chapter 2 claimed that sponsorship is now seen as more acceptable as a communications vehicle, however, particularly among the older demographic which made up a large part of the Potters event-based sample (see section 5.6 of Chapter 5), there was likely to have been a greater degree of scepticism over the motives of



sponsors. Therefore, by undertaking a sponsorship with a strong functional link, Potters benefited from positive images transferred from the event to the brand as a sponsor. As such, respondents exposed to the sponsorship held a very positive overall impression of Potters, which was not as easily obtainable for any of the other sponsors in this study due to their less evident links to the respective events. Thus, from the sponsorships studied, there is support for the contention that sponsorships which offer product trial opportunities, particularly if there is a strong functional link between the event and the sponsor, are more effective at building consumer-based brand equity.

### **8.9 Differential Impact of Sponsorship for Customers and Non-Customers**

In section 3.6.4 in Chapter 3, Ehrenberg's (1974) ATR model was discussed, which suggested that advertising mainly works on existing rather than new customers. Hoek, Gendall and Theed (1999) used this framework to assess the impact of sponsorship on customers and non-customers, finding higher awareness among brand owners both for those exposed and those not exposed to the sponsorship. However, in that study, no impact was found on purchase intention for either customers or non-customers as a result of sponsorship.

The results presented in section 6.11 of Chapter 6 illustrated that the Grand Prix athletics sponsorship was impacting positively on brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty for both customers and non-customers, thus failing to follow the logic implied by the ATR model. The Norwich Union Grand Prix athletics sponsorship is

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very high profile, having a positive impact on brand equity, as discussed above. In conjunction with this sponsorship, Norwich Union uses complementary advertising focussing on the products and services offered by the company. Therefore, the sponsorship is largely used to achieve image-related benefits, rather than to communicate tangible product information. Consequently, the focus of the sponsorship was not uniquely targeting either customers or non-customers, thus it was impacting positively on both groups. It is the use of sponsorship as one part of wider marketing communications activity which represents a major strength of the Norwich Union Grand Prix athletics sponsorship, thus contributing to its success in building image associations and, consequently, consumer-based brand equity. Equally, Ehrenberg's (1974) ATR model claimed that many purchases are made out of habit, hence the role of marketing communications to reinforce the brand in the minds of consumers. However, while this may be the case within the FMCG market, financial services are bought less frequently and are much more high involvement purchases. Therefore, the applicability of ATR to financial services is questionable and may account for the lack of evidence of sponsorship having a greater impact on existing customers.

The results for Natwest (section 7.11, Chapter 7) indicated that the cricket sponsorship was impacting on both customers and non-customers on the variables of brand associations and brand loyalty. Brand associations are, by their very nature, largely intangible and thus, as with Norwich Union, the Natwest Pro40 cricket sponsorship could be seen to impact on image associations. As such, these are not limited to customers (non-customers can hold brand associations); therefore in this role, the sponsorship contributed to brand equity for both customers and non-customers. Within

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the wider dimension of brand loyalty, sponsorship exposure had a significant impact on the dimension of expressed loyalty among Natwest customers. In contrast, a significant impact was found for non-customers on expressed loyalty, recommendation to friends and family and purchase intention. Therefore, the sponsorship was in fact having a positive impact on more elements of brand loyalty for non-customers than for customers. By owning products or services from the brand, customers have a greater degree of experience with the brand than do non-customers. Therefore, customers may use other information when making loyalty judgements, while, in the absence of such experience, non-customers use cues such as sponsorship in their decision making. This could explain the greater impact on (attitudinal) loyalty for non-customers as a result of the Natwest Pro40 sponsorship.

Having fully discussed the results from all of the sponsorships studied, the final section of this chapter will summarise the position with relation to the hypotheses postulated in Chapter 3, thus outlining the contribution to knowledge made by this thesis.

### **8.10 Conclusions**

Table 8.3 below summarises the hypotheses tested for each of the sponsoring brands.

Where no support was found for the hypothesis, an explanation is given for the relevant sponsoring brands.

Table 8.3 Summary of hypotheses tested

	<b>engage</b>	<b>Norwich Union</b>	<b>Natwest</b>	<b>Potters</b>
<b>H<sub>1</sub></b>	<b>Supported</b>	<b>Not supported</b> <i>Reason: already had high awareness so this was not an objective as an established brand</i>	<b>Not supported</b> <i>Reason: already had high awareness due to other marketing activity</i>	
<b>H<sub>2</sub></b>	<b>Not supported</b> <i>Reason: lack of brand knowledge</i>	<b>Supported</b>	<b>Supported</b>	
<b>H<sub>2a</sub></b>	<b>Not supported</b> <i>Reason: no impact on brand associations</i>	<b>Not supported</b> <i>Reason: not explained by spectator "appropriate sponsor" perception, but rather by brand strength and strong event link</i>	<b>Not supported</b> <i>Reason: Poor link to specific event</i>	
<b>H<sub>3</sub></b>	<b>Not supported</b> <i>Reason: lack of brand knowledge</i>	<b>Supported</b>	<b>Not supported</b> <i>Reason: clutter in cricket sponsorship marketplace inhibited image transfer</i>	
<b>H<sub>4</sub></b>	<b>Not supported</b> <i>Reason: lack of brand knowledge</i>	<b>Supported</b>	<b>Supported</b>	
<b>H<sub>4a</sub></b>	<b>Not supported</b> <i>Reason: lack of brand knowledge</i>	<b>Supported</b>	<b>Supported</b>	
<b>H<sub>5</sub></b>	<b>Not supported</b> <i>Reason: generalised lack of brand knowledge led to no impact on any dimension</i>	<b>Not supported</b> <i>Reason: lower score for brand loyalty a function of its status as a higher order element of brand equity</i>	<b>Not supported</b> <i>Reason: lower score for brand loyalty a function of its status as a higher order element of brand equity</i>	
<b>H<sub>6</sub></b>				<b>Supported</b>  Strong functional link and product trial sets optimum conditions for image transfer



Chapter 1 outlined the main research question for this thesis as: “what contribution, if any, does sports event sponsorship make to consumer-based brand equity?” Informed by the consumer-based brand equity conceptual framework and extant literature, the following sub-questions were tackled in this study:

- Does sports sponsorship impact on brand awareness?
- Does sports sponsorship impact on brand associations?
- Does sports sponsorship impact on perceived quality?
- Does sports sponsorship impact on brand loyalty?
- Is sports sponsorship more effective when product trial opportunities are offered?

It is clear from the results discussed above that, for new brands, sports sponsorship is a useful marketing tool for building brand name awareness, as evidenced by the engage bowls sponsorship. However, in order to go beyond name awareness, it is necessary to employ additional marketing communications tools, such as advertising, in order to build brand familiarity and knowledge, particularly in terms of tangible product associations.

As evidenced by the Norwich Union Grand Prix athletics, sponsorship is capable of building brand associations, including perceived quality. However, the overall results, particularly examining the differential effect for engage versus Norwich Union and Natwest, indicate that sponsorship is much more effective at enhancing existing brand associations for well-established sponsoring brands rather than building new

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associations from scratch. This has implications for the selection of appropriate sponsorship vehicles, as it may be better for sponsors to seek an association with an event with which they have a degree of congruence rather than attempting to change their brand image through a partnership with an event which has a very different image profile. The next chapter will outline areas for future research, one of which will be a greater investigation into the differential ability of sponsorship to impact on brand associations where the objectives are either to enhance existing associations or to change the brand image.

In line with the use of sports sponsorship to build brand associations, the ease of image transfer is strongly associated with the strength of the link between the sponsor and the specific event. As was highlighted above in the contrast between Norwich Union and Natwest, image transfer is greater where there is a strong and widely-held link between the sporting event and the sponsor. The general perception of a link to a sport (but not a specific event) does not generate as great an impact on brand associations as does a link to an event. This was echoed by the failure of knowledge of sponsorship activity to impact on brand associations among the comparison samples.

Sponsorship is much more effective when the sponsor is dominant within the sport, for example Norwich Union. Meenaghan (1998) commented that the sponsorship marketplace is now becoming increasingly cluttered (see Chapter 2) and the results of this study found that benefits of sponsorship in terms of brand equity were much more limited for sponsors operating in cluttered environments, such as Natwest in cricket.



This may force potential sponsors to seek new and innovative sponsorship opportunities in order to stand out from the crowd.

The sponsorship which was the most successful at building consumer-based brand equity was the Norwich Union Grand Prix athletics. As evidenced in the discussion in section 2.4 in Chapter 2, the associated leverage activities used to support a sponsorship are of crucial importance to its success. The Norwich Union athletics sponsorship is leveraged through links with grassroots initiatives, including roadshows and development programmes, along with on-site activities such as giving out free gifts and product information to spectators. Such leverage activities were the most prominent among the sponsorships studied in this thesis; thus it is suggested that effectively leveraging a sponsorship may be key to determining its success, by reinforcing the association and creating an integrated system of marketing communications.

The findings from the Norwich Union Grand Prix athletics and the Natwest Pro40 cricket indicate that it is possible for sponsorship to positively impact upon brand loyalty, however this effect is limited to attitudinal loyalty and no discernible impact was found on the highly sought-after price premium. As discussed above, sports sponsorship communicates largely image-based associations, hence the stronger impact upon attitudinal loyalty, as very little reference is made to specific product details, which are necessary before purchase can take place. There was no evidence of sports sponsorship having a differential impact on one particular element of brand equity. Lower scores were recorded for brand loyalty for all sponsoring brands, however this effect persisted across those not exposed to the sponsorship and thus is a result of the

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status of brand loyalty as a higher-order element of brand equity rather than the impact of sponsorship.

Finally, in testing hypothesis H<sub>6</sub> concerning the impact of product trial within sports sponsorship, the optimum conditions for sponsorship were found to be a strong functional sponsor – event fit along with product trial or sampling opportunities. Achieving functional fit is not possible for all sponsors, therefore an area of future research to be explained in Chapter 9 is to examine whether other links such as image-based fit are equally as effective in terms of the ability of sponsorship to build brand equity.

The empirical data collected in this study has found that sports sponsorship can contribute to consumer-based brand equity; however, simply undertaking sponsorship is not a guarantee of success and the impact is contingent on selecting an appropriate sponsorship vehicle to achieve the brand's objectives as well as forging a strong link with the sponsored property. In addition, sports sponsorship appears to work best when accompanied by appropriate leverage activities and used in conjunction with other marketing tools, in order to communicate both tangible and intangible messages and thus build brand knowledge and consequently, consumer-based brand equity.

In testing the contribution of sports sponsorship to brand equity in a consumer-focussed study, this thesis has contributed to the body of knowledge concerning how sponsorship works. These findings, therefore are not only of academic significance but also have a practical application for sponsors in the selection and management of sports

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sponsorships. Thus, this study has moved forward the understanding of sponsorship as a marketing communications tool and has also offered an empirical application of the conceptual framework of consumer-based brand equity.

In applying a theoretical framework to the study of sports sponsorship, this thesis has contributed to bringing sponsorship understanding to the level of academic rigour achieved by more established marketing communications vehicles, such as advertising. Similarly, through its application to the financial services sector, this thesis has demonstrated that the concept of consumer-based brand equity has relevance beyond traditional FMCG markets. This use of the theoretical framework outside of its previous context therefore augments the status of consumer-based brand equity as a key brand/corporate performance indicator.

Throughout this study, it has been acknowledged that sponsorship is a multi-faceted and at times, nebulous, concept, comprising a range of communications tools and approaches. Equally, there are many environmental factors, such as sponsorship type (i.e. sport, arts and individual elements within these categories), audience and level of exploitation, each impacting differentially upon a particular sponsorship. Thus, the mix of multiple communications vehicles and outside influences combine to dictate the likely brand building success of sponsorship.

In tackling the subject of sports sponsorship, this thesis raises questions concerning the future development of sponsorship knowledge and understanding. As such, the final

chapter will discuss the future of sponsorship research, including specific areas for additional research stemming from the findings discussed here. Chapter 9 will also offer a summary of the findings presented in this thesis and address the limitations of the study.



## **Chapter 9: Conclusion**

### **9.1 Introduction**

The previous chapter offered a thorough discussion of the findings of this study, bringing together the empirical results and extant theory to draw conclusions in relation to the hypotheses postulated in Chapter 3. Thus, the contribution to knowledge of this thesis was fully outlined. This chapter will offer a summary of the main findings presented in this thesis, along with a brief review of the contribution made to the body of knowledge concerning how sponsorship works. Equally, the limitations of the study will be addressed, along with an examination of the difficulties associated with conducting research in real-life sponsorship settings. The chapter will close by identifying areas for future research which stem from this study.

### **9.2 Summary of Findings**

The empirical results presented in Chapters 5, 6 and 7 and discussed in Chapter 8 responded to the research question ‘what contribution, if any, does sports event sponsorship make to consumer-based brand equity?’ The findings of this thesis illustrate that sports sponsorship can have a positive impact upon elements of consumer-based brand equity, however the success of this is dependent upon selecting the appropriate sponsorship opportunity, leveraging that sponsorship effectively and using sponsorship as one part of a wider marketing communications plan.

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A positive impact was found on brand name awareness as a result of sponsorship exposure for newly launched brand, engage. However, no significant difference in name awareness was found between event-based and comparison sample respondents for the established brands of Norwich Union and Natwest. Nonetheless, both brands exhibited very high brand awareness, therefore pure name awareness was not an objective of their sponsorship activities. Thus, it was concluded that sports sponsorship can build brand name awareness for new brands. Broadening the concept of brand awareness to include knowledge of the product category in which the brand operates, the impact of sponsorship for the new brand was diminished, with only general associations being transferred. Therefore, this study concluded that for a new brand, the use of sponsorship is restricted to generating name awareness.

Sports sponsorship was found to positively influence brand associations for established brands, with Norwich Union and Natwest enjoying higher brand associations scores among respondents exposed to their respective sponsorship activities compared with the comparison samples. In contrast, no discernible impact was detected in terms of brand associations for engage. The newly launched brand had very low base levels of brand knowledge, which inhibited the transfer of associations from the bowls sponsorship. Equally, sponsorship was the only high-profile marketing communications activity undertaken by the brand at the time, compared with Norwich Union and Natwest which used sponsorship as part of a wider communications portfolio. Similarly, the engage sponsorship relied solely on on-site signage, with no associated leverage activities. Therefore, this thesis concluded that sponsorship is most effective at building brand associations where there is already a base level of brand knowledge and where

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sponsorship is effectively leveraged and used as one element of wider marketing communications activity.

As with brand associations, sports sponsorship was found to positively impact upon perceived quality for Norwich Union but not for Natwest or engage. As the dominant sponsor of UK athletics, Norwich Union enjoys a position of prestige in the minds of spectators at athletics events. However, engage was much less prominent than the main bowls event sponsor, Potters Holidays, while Natwest is one of many sponsors fighting for attention within a cluttered cricket environment. Therefore, the perception of quality is transferred as a result of sponsorship where the sponsor is seen to have a strong and dominant link to the sponsored event.

Once again, sponsorship exposure was found to have no impact upon brand loyalty for the new brand, engage. However, a positive impact was found for Norwich Union and Natwest as a result of their athletics and cricket sponsorships respectively. The impact of sponsorship was confined to attitudinal elements of brand loyalty. Both Norwich Union and Natwest also benefited in terms of brand associations, therefore sponsorship appears to transfer positive images with which consumers wish to be associated, thus contributing to attitudinal brand loyalty.

Finally, the impact of sports sponsorship on each element of consumer-based brand equity was found to be greater where opportunities existed for product sampling/trial, as evidenced by the case of Potters Holidays. The Potters brand also exhibited strong functional links with the bowls event, which enhanced the process of image transfer

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from event to sponsor, thus building brand associations, a perception of quality and brand loyalty.

### **9.3 Contribution to Knowledge**

The contribution to knowledge of this thesis, as outlined in Chapter 3 and evidenced in the discussion of empirical results, relates to the growing body of research surrounding how sponsorship works. This study is the first to assess the contribution of sports sponsorship to consumer-based brand equity from a consumer perspective. Therefore, this thesis represents an extension of existing knowledge of the impact of sponsorship on brand equity, with the findings offering both academic and commercial application to inform branding and sponsorship strategy. The field of sponsorship research has, for many years, been dominated by descriptive studies. In order to contribute to the development of sponsorship as a legitimate academic discipline, this thesis has, for the first time applied an established theoretical framework (consumer-based brand equity) from the wider domain of brand management to the sponsorship context. Section 9.6 will offer a discussion of the future of sponsorship research, informed by the findings presented in this thesis.

Throughout this study it has been made clear that the focus is upon sports event sponsorship. Given the contextual nature of sponsorship discussed throughout this thesis, no claim is made that the results obtained are statistically generalisable to other forms of marketing communications or even to other forms of sponsorship such as sports venues and teams or arts/community projects. The contextual detail specific to

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each event sponsorship is what allows for the creativity necessary to make the sponsorship a success; therefore it is antithetical to imply that these findings can be directly transferred to different settings, where contextual conditions may necessitate a different approach to sponsorship.

From a methodological perspective, this thesis has also provided further empirical testing of the Aaker (1996) brand equity measurement tool. Much prior research on brands and sponsorship has adopted an experimental methodology, therefore this study has contributed to the understanding of the practical challenges involved in conducting research in live sponsored event settings. Consequently, this thesis has contributed to both substantive and methodological knowledge concerning sponsorship, by empirically investigating the impact of sports sponsorship on consumer-based brand equity, from a consumer perspective and in real-life sponsorship environments.

This study has contributed to theory by identifying the need to incorporate contextual variables, such as leverage activities and sponsorship clutter, into a framework or model of how sports event sponsorship works. The empirical evidence gathered has supported the contention that consumer-based brand equity is an appropriate framework for the assessment of sponsorship effectiveness, however it is necessary to amend this in light of the sponsorship context to include the event-specific variables.

## **9.4 Limitations**

As with all large-scale research projects, there were limitations to this particular study, both practical and theoretical and encompassing both methodological and substantive issues. Every effort was made throughout the study to minimise the impact of these limitations, however working under time and resource constraints, it was impossible to eradicate all areas of weakness from the investigation. As such, this section will highlight the limitations of the study and explain the measures taken to reduce their impact upon the reliability and validity of the findings. The primary research was conducted in real-life commercial sports event settings, which presented specific challenges to the researcher. Therefore, this section will also explore the difficulties of conducting sponsorship research.

### ***9.4.1 Theoretical limitations***

As evidenced in the discussion in Chapter 3, there is no one widely accepted definition or conceptualisation of brand equity. Therefore, this thesis adopted Aaker's (1991) model of consumer-based brand equity as the theoretical framework for the study. All of the conceptualisations of consumer-based brand equity examined in Chapter 3 had limitations, whether in terms of applicability across a range of product sectors, level of detailed knowledge required by respondents or scope of elements included. The Aaker (1996) brand equity measurement tool was no exception, therefore by adopting this model as the theoretical framework, the study was forced to consider the weaknesses of the conceptualisation and the impact of this upon the research findings.

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The model itself offers a very comprehensive conceptualisation of consumer-based brand equity, using multiple measures for each component. Chapter 4 explained how the brand equity measurement tool had to be reduced in size in order to facilitate data collection. Therefore, by not including all measures of brand awareness, brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty, a judgement was made concerning which were the most appropriate indicators. By not using the entire range of brand equity measures, a limitation of this study is that it may have failed to tap a particularly meaningful element of consumer-based brand equity, which would have impacted significantly upon the findings. However, as outlined in Chapter 4, in order to satisfy practical considerations of speed of questionnaire completion to ensure respondent cooperation, it was necessary to make a trade-off between using the complete measurement tool and obtaining a satisfactory response rate. The particular indicators used were selected for their ability to tap all of the dimensions of consumer-based brand equity perceived as meaningful to this study. Therefore, while there are limitations to the application of the theoretical framework, in the context of the research as the first study to explore sponsorship and consumer-based brand equity, the number of measures retained was sufficiently large and representative to be able to draw conclusions as to the contribution of sports sponsorship to awareness, associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty.

The constraints imposed by the ability to gain access to the sporting events represented a further limitation of the research in terms of the comparability of the sponsors and event contexts. For example, the use of Potters Holidays as a sponsor offering product trial opportunities was contrasted with Norwich Union, Natwest and engage as sponsors

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not offering product sampling. However, the different brands are not necessarily comparable in terms of size, base awareness, sponsorship expenditure and length of sponsorship activities. Thus the presence or absence of product trial opportunities was not the only difference between the sponsors and as such it is possible that intervening variables may have been the cause of differences in brand equity scores.

As will be discussed further in section 9.4.3, the selection of sponsored events to study was largely determined by the willingness of sponsors and event organisers to grant access. Therefore, while the differences between the sponsors and events represent a weakness of this study, such a limitation was impossible to overcome in light of the practical constraints of conducting field research at sporting events. The use of different methodological approaches to sponsorship and brand equity research is considered below in section 9.5 as an area for future research to build upon the findings presented in this thesis.

The limitations imposed by the theoretical framework and nature of the sponsors and events constrained this research in its ability to offer definitive proof of causation, particularly in terms of sponsorship being the sole driver of demonstrated increases in consumer-based brand equity. Conducting experimental research would have allowed cause and effect to be determined with more certainty, by controlling extraneous variables; however, such an approach would have compromised the representativeness of the study in terms of simulating the real-life environment in which consumers receive sponsorship stimuli. Therefore, on balance, it was decided to accept this particular limitation on the grounds that research conducted in the field is more representative of

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the competitive marketplace and thus of more relevance to both academic and practical understanding of how sponsorship actually works.

#### ***9.4.2 Methodological limitations***

The methodological issues associated with this study were addressed comprehensively in Chapter 4, therefore the intention of this section is to offer a summary of the methodological limitations of this thesis. The nature of the primary research dictated the use of questionnaires as the data collection tool; the choice was made to use self-administered questionnaires in order to speed up the data collection process and thus maximise the sample size in the limited time frame offered at each event. By relying on self-completion questionnaires, the findings of this thesis are dependent on the accuracy of answers provided by respondents. Therefore, a limitation of this study is the reliance on respondents to give accurate and correct responses to the questions concerning brand equity indicators.

The issue of respondents providing socially desirable responses was not considered to be a problem given the subject matter in this study, however a weakness of using self-administered questionnaires in brand equity research concerns the level of knowledge required by respondents. For fear of being seen to be poorly informed, respondents may have over exaggerated their level of knowledge of a sponsoring brand, for example by selecting “neither agree nor disagree” rather than “don’t know.” If such an effect was generalised it would have contributed to an over-estimation of the contribution of sponsorship to elements of consumer-based brand equity. However, the relative scores

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between well-known and new brands were as expected, therefore it is reasonable to assume that this limitation did not impact significantly upon the findings of the thesis.

Perhaps the greatest methodological limitation of this study is the lack of random samples. As discussed in Chapter 4, by using non-random samples it is not possible to be sure of the representativeness of the event-based and comparison samples, thus restricting the ability to generalise to other contexts. The justification for the use of non-random samples is given in Chapter 4 and, operating under resource constraints, such a sampling strategy was deemed to be the most appropriate in order to achieve the desired sample size. Equally, attempts were made to ensure that the event-based and comparison samples contained a cross-section of available respondents. Therefore, while the lack of random samples acts as a limitation to the generalizability of this study, every attempt was made to ensure the representativeness of the samples. As mentioned above, this study was the first attempt at assessing the contribution of sports sponsorship to consumer-based brand equity and it is acknowledged, therefore, that much work remains to be done to validate the findings across a range of sponsorship settings. However, this study provides a firm basis upon which to develop future research, which will be discussed below in section 9.5.

The remaining two methodological limitations of this study are directly linked to the difficulties associated with conducting sponsorship-related research, which will be discussed below in section 9.4.3. The sample sizes achieved at the individual events can be considered a slight limitation in this study, particularly in terms of the ability to break the sample into sub-categories. Overall samples sizes at each event were in

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excess of 100, however certain cross-tabulations produced carry the caveat of some cells not obtaining the expected minimum cell size, due to the limited overall sample size. Where this is the case for a specific table, reference is made in the relevant chapter. The sample sizes of just over 100 also limit the generalizability of the findings as they represent a small proportion of the total spectators at the events (see results chapters for event attendance figures). However, a decision was made that 100 respondents would represent an adequate sample size for each event, given the time constraints of conducting research in an event environment (see section 9.4.3 below).

The final methodological limitation of this study concerns the sponsored events and their level of representativeness of sporting events in the United Kingdom. As explained in section 4.7.4 in Chapter 4, the selection of events was made on the basis of whether the sponsor and/or event organisers granted access to conduct research. Therefore, questions can be raised as to whether it is appropriate to generalise from the events studied to other sponsored sporting events as it is not possible to ascertain whether or not the selected events share common characteristics with other events and whether the sponsorship activities undertaken were representative of the nature of sports sponsorship. However, gaining access to the events was a key hurdle faced in this study and, as such, presented perhaps the greatest constraint upon the conduct of the research. Therefore, no claim is made that the events studied are representative of all UK sporting events and the contribution of the thesis remains the empirical testing of sponsorship's ability to impact upon consumer-based brand equity in the cases studied. As with all of the limitations presented here, there is scope for future research which will address the weaknesses of this research and thus build upon the findings developed in this thesis.

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The previous two limitations referred to the difficulties of conducting research in a live sponsorship environment. Therefore, the next section will discuss the difficulties encountered in doing this type of research, thus contributing to the understanding of the practical constraints associated with sponsorship-related research.

### ***9.4.3 Difficulties of conducting sponsorship research***

Conducting research in a live commercial marketplace inevitably entails difficulties and hurdles which must be overcome. It is conceivable that the paucity of sponsorship research conducted in real-life (rather than experimental) sponsorship contexts may be a result of the difficulty of conducting such studies. Therefore, this section will outline the main problems encountered in this study and offer insights into how such barriers were overcome, which may inform future sponsorship research practice.

As mentioned in section 9.4.1, one of the greatest difficulties in conducting event-based sponsorship research is gaining access to the events in order to administer questionnaires to spectators. Many sponsors and event organisers were contacted throughout this study, with either no response or a negative response received from the majority of organisations. Therefore, the choice of events to study was determined largely by the willingness of sponsors and event organisers to cooperate with the research activities, by granting access to the site. Once a positive contact has been established, gaining access to subsequent events sponsored by the same brand becomes much easier, as was demonstrated in the case of engage's sponsorship of rugby league



(pilot study) and bowls. Therefore, establishing a network of contacts became particularly important to conducting this research.

The second major difficulty with conducting research at sporting events is the reliance upon the weather. Several planned data collection episodes had to be aborted as a result of bad weather which forced the events to be abandoned or postponed. A solution to this is to collect data at indoor events, however these tend to take place during the winter and therefore are not necessarily representative of the spectrum of sponsored events taking place throughout the year. This difficulty links in with the time constraint of conducting such research as it was necessary to collect the primary data by a certain date in order to ensure timely completion of the research process. Therefore, the timing of events along with the uncertainty concerning outdoor events makes planning sponsorship research very difficult. Where possible, therefore, it was necessary to have a contingency plan of an alternative event in case of postponement. However, such unpredictability acts as a major constraint upon conducting sponsorship research as the first choice event may not take place, therefore forcing a re-evaluation of the objectives and likely outcomes of the study.

A further difficulty with conducting event-based research is the time constraint placed upon data collection. For example, at all of the events it was only possible to ask respondents to complete the questionnaire before or during breaks in play. Spectators are not willing to complete a questionnaire while the sporting action is taking place and after the event their priority is to get away from the venue as quickly as possible, therefore they are not willing to participate in the research at that time. Consequently,

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the window for data collection at sporting events is limited to a potentially short period of time. As such, it is necessary to have a large number of interviewers in order to achieve the required sample size. In the context of this research, such a requirement had to be balanced against the resource constraints of the study, which prompted the choice of samples in excess of 100 being sufficient.

Finally, a difficulty associated not only with sponsorship research, but with survey-based research in general, is the willingness of respondents to complete a questionnaire. The pilot study discussed in Chapter 4 highlighted some difficulties of getting sufficient respondents to complete the questionnaire, which resulted in the data collection instrument being scaled down. Today, individuals are frequently asked to complete questionnaires, therefore there are signs of 'fatigue' among respondents, leading to lower response rates. Where incentives are not available (due to resource constraints) or appropriate, the researcher is reliant upon the willingness of respondents to participate in the study. This difficulty had implications for the types of events targeted for research, as spectators are more likely to be willing to complete a questionnaire if they are sitting down and have nothing else to do. Therefore, while the ultimate selection of events was dependent upon gaining access, the difficulties of getting respondents to complete a questionnaire impacted upon the potential sponsors and events targeted in order to achieve an environment which was conducive to allowing spectators to take part in the research.

While defending the approach taken and decisions made throughout this study, it would be naïve to believe that any research project takes place without limitations and hurdles.

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The acknowledgement of these limitations is not intended to undermine the findings presented in the thesis, however it is important to pinpoint areas for improvement, which may inform future research activities.

### **9.5 Areas for Future Research**

As the first study to tackle the impact of sports sponsorship on consumer-based brand equity, this thesis has not only answered but also generated additional questions which are legitimate areas for future research. The growing domain of sports sponsorship research still lacks the level of knowledge of that of other marketing communications such as advertising, thus demonstrating the need to continually build upon and extend current understanding.

This study measured the impact of sports sponsorship on elements of consumer-based brand equity during and/or immediately after exposure at the sponsored events. Therefore, a valuable future research priority would be to explore whether the reported results persist in the long-term after the event. Tracing spectators post-event represents a practical challenge to this research, however in the context of televised events it may be easier to access individuals previously exposed to the sponsorship stimuli. As such, this research would further contribute to the understanding of the impact of sponsorship, once again offering both academic and practical application.

In line with the research presented in this thesis, further work is needed on the process of image transfer in sponsorship to more fully understand the mechanism by which

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associations are transferred from sponsored properties to sponsors. A more comprehensive knowledge of this process would provide a valuable aid to sponsorship selection and decision making. Equally, another useful area of investigation to build upon the findings presented here, would be a more detailed investigation into the exact nature of associations transferred through sponsorship. Where the scope of this study necessitated the omission of certain measures from the Aaker (1996) brand equity measurement tool, future studies could concentrate on specific elements of consumer-based brand equity, taking a more comprehensive view. For example, an interesting area of research would be an inquiry into the specific brand associations, such as brand personality, transferred to sponsors. Once again, such research would represent the application of wider branding theory to the practical sponsorship context.

As mentioned in Chapter 8, the findings of this thesis suggest that sponsorship is more effective at building upon existing brand associations, rather than creating new ones. Therefore, a further area of future research would be to contrast the impact of sponsorship on brand equity where the sponsor and sponsored property share common values with that where a sponsor aligns itself with a sponsored property with different values, in order to change the brand image. Similarly, the importance of sponsor-event fit was demonstrated in the cases studied in this thesis. Therefore, in extension of this current research, an area for future inquiry would be to examine the impact of sponsorship under different types of sponsor-event fit: functional, symbolic, personality etc.



All of the above recommendations for future research represent, in essence, a broadening of the current study in order to build upon the knowledge generated concerning the impact of sports sponsorship on brand equity. More generally, it is important to validate the current findings across both different sponsorship types, for example team, venue and broadcast sponsorship, and different sponsor categories, e.g. telecommunications, FMCG, online brands. The sample size obtained in this study presents a limitation on generalizability of the findings, therefore a useful extension of this research would be to replicate the study with larger samples to see whether the reported effects remain.

In order to overcome some of the weaknesses of this study, it may be possible to replicate the research in an experimental setting, in order to allow for all extraneous variables to be controlled. Finally, in a larger-scale piece of research, there are opportunities for the use of mixed method approaches, thus employing the principles of Denzin's (1970) methodological triangulation. The combination of methods such as interviews, secondary analysis and questionnaires would allow for stronger claims to be made for the reliability and validity of theoretical inferences drawn concerning the effectiveness of sponsorship and could contribute to the development of a suite of sponsorship evaluation tools.

This thesis has established empirical evidence for the contribution of sports sponsorship to consumer-based brand equity. However, in this under-researched area, such knowledge represents the tip of the iceberg in terms of potential understanding. Therefore, it is important to use the research presented in this thesis as a starting point

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for furthering understanding of how sponsorship works and the conditions under which its impact on consumer-based brand equity is optimised.

### **9.6 Future Challenges in Sponsorship Research**

Meenaghan (1999) refers to the quest for a model of how sponsorship works as the “holy grail” of sponsorship research and, as outlined in section 2.5.1 of Chapter 2, this is now the focus of much academic interest. The current research has contributed to the understanding of the objectives achievable through sponsorship and thus has moved knowledge forward. However, in terms of understanding, sponsorship still lacks the level of sophistication of more established forms of marketing communications such as advertising. This raises the question of whether it is possible to develop a theory of sponsorship.

As discussed in Chapter 2, sponsorship is not a simple concept and there are many different types, such as event, venue, team, grassroots and broadcast sponsorship, within the domain of sport alone. Thus, developing one all-encompassing model of sponsorship is complicated by the varying sponsorship vehicles, all of which target different audiences and have different levels of reach. Even if the focus is narrowed down for example, to event sponsorship, it is still very difficult to isolate the effects of sponsorship from those of other marketing activities, such as price promotions and advertising. It is rare for a brand to use sponsorship as its sole marketing communications tool. Thus, isolating sponsorship in order to develop a model of how it works is very difficult when conducting research in real-life marketplaces. Similarly, as

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the findings of this study highlight, just within the domain of event sponsorship, the spectrum of events, each with different profiles, status and target audiences further complicates the development of a single model.

The question as to whether a model of sponsorship can be developed goes back to the heart of the debate pursued in Chapter 2 concerning exactly what is sponsorship. The definition adopted for this thesis claims that sponsorship relates to access to the exploitable commercial potential associated with a property, such as a team or event (Meenaghan, 1991). As such, sponsorship is not seen to exist alone but rather as a vehicle through which other marketing communications tools are used (leverage activities), e.g. advertising, experiential marketing and PR. The findings of this thesis indicate that leverage is a crucial factor in determining the success of sponsorship. This claim is further supported by the case of many successful Olympic sponsorships, which operate under a clean venue policy, thus meaning that all sponsor visibility is generated through associated leverage activities.

Despite the difficulties of developing a model of sponsorship, the use sponsorship as a marketing communications tool continues to rise (as outlined in Chapter 2). The pursuit of brand equity objectives is becoming increasingly important, particularly with advances in technology making it more difficult to differentiate on product/service benefits alone. Thus, there has been a shift from product to brand objectives, which are increasingly being sought through sponsorship. For example, prominent sponsors such as Coca-Cola and Samsung are very image-driven brands, thus the pursuit of brand

equity objectives through sponsorship will be very much in evidence during the Beijing 2008 Olympic Games.

As such, there is potential for a growing tension to develop between sponsorship practice and the level of academic understanding. Increasingly sophisticated brand-related objectives are being pursued, yet the complexity of the concept makes the development of a stand-alone model of how sponsorship works very difficult.

Consequently, it is conceivable that the future of sponsorship could be jeopardised if knowledge of how it operates cannot attain the level of sophistication required to assess the performance of a particular sponsorship in the modern marketplace. It is thus necessary for future sponsorship research to look beyond the traditional boundaries of marketing communications knowledge in the quest to further understand how sponsorship works from both a conceptual and practical perspective.

The current study has moved forward the understanding of sponsorship in terms of its ability to achieve brand-building objectives within the conceptual framework of consumer-based brand equity. It has equally advocated the inclusion of contextual variables into future sponsorship measurement frameworks in an attempt to build upon generic models and forge an explanatory model of how sponsorship achieves brand-related objectives. This study can thus act as a springboard for future research in what is expected to be one of the most dynamic and high-profile areas of marketing research in the coming years.



## **9.7 Conclusion**

This thesis began by proposing the research question and objectives, before discussing the sponsorship context in which the research took place and the theoretical framework of consumer-based brand equity to be employed. Following an outline of the key methodological issues, the empirical results were presented and discussed in light of hypotheses postulated as a result of the review of extant literature concerning sponsorship and brand equity.

It has been concluded that sports sponsorship can impact positively upon consumer-based brand equity, however there are certain conditions attached to this statement. For new brands, the impact of sponsorship is confined to building brand name awareness; to go beyond this it is necessary to employ sponsorship as part of a wider, integrated marketing communications programme. In the case of established brands, sports sponsorship is capable of contributing to brand associations, including perceived quality. However, it appears to be better at enhancing existing brand associations rather than creating new associations. Such findings have implications for the selection of appropriate sponsorship vehicles and an area for future research proposed above was an investigation into the effect of sponsor-event congruence on image transfer.

Image transfer, which facilitates the development of consumer-based brand equity was found to be greatest where a strong link existed between the sponsor and the sponsored event. The sponsorship environment is becoming increasingly cluttered and the findings of this study suggest that sponsorship is more effective where the sponsor can

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achieve a dominant position within the sport, rather than competing with many other brands for the attention of spectators. This will undoubtedly impact upon the selection of sponsorships and could lead to a search for innovative new sponsorship opportunities. Unsurprisingly, the impact of sponsorship on brand equity was found to be optimised where a strong functional fit existed between the sponsor and the event and where product sampling opportunities were available, thus facilitating interaction between the consumer and the brand. Finally, the leverage activities used to exploit a sponsorship association are a key determinant of its success, with the greatest benefit seen by sponsors who employ a range of associated promotional tools to support the sponsorship.

In conclusion, this thesis has contributed to the growing body of knowledge of how sponsorship works by identifying, with empirical support, that sports sponsorship does contribute to consumer-based brand equity. However, this link is not guaranteed and the success of a sponsorship depends upon selecting the right sponsorship opportunity, forging a strong link with the sponsored property and adopting an integrated approach to marketing communications by leveraging the sponsorship through the use of other promotional tools. Consequently, these findings have pushed forward the academic understanding of sports sponsorship, whilst offering valuable insight for practitioners in terms of developing a sponsorship programme which will make the greatest contribution to consumer-based brand equity.



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## **Appendices**

- Appendix 1** Pilot study questionnaire
  - Appendix 2** Pilot study results
  - Appendix 3** World Indoor Bowls sponsorship questionnaire
  - Appendix 4** Ladies World Matchplay Bowls sponsorship questionnaire
  - Appendix 5** Brand equity questionnaire (engage)
  - Appendix 6** Grand Prix Athletics sponsorship questionnaire
  - Appendix 7** Brand equity questionnaire (Norwich Union)
  - Appendix 8** One-day cricket sponsorship questionnaire
  - Appendix 9** Brand equity questionnaire (Natwest)
  - Appendix 10** Letter to comparison sample respondents
  - Appendix 11** E-mail approach to sponsors
  - Appendix 12** Supplementary Tables: Potters World Indoor Bowls and engage Ladies  
World Matchplay Bowls
  - Appendix 13** Supplementary Tables: Norwich Union Grand Prix Athletics
  - Appendix 14** Supplementary Tables: Natwest Pro40 Cricket
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**Appendix 1**

**Pilot Study Questionnaire**

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Super League Grand Final Sponsorship Questionnaire

Interviewer-administered

1. What brands can you think of that sponsor Rugby Super League? Please name up to six.

1. \_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

3. \_\_\_\_\_

4. \_\_\_\_\_

5. \_\_\_\_\_

6. \_\_\_\_\_

2. Please can you tell me which of the brands on this list you think sponsor Rugby Super League?

Grattan☐1

Powergen☐5

Trafford Centre☐9

RBS☐2

engage☐6

Tetley's☐10

nPower☐3

Omega☐7

P&O Ferries☐11

Carling☐4

Earth Money☐8

Show printed list

3. Who is the main sponsor of the Super League?

\_\_\_\_\_

4. When I mention financial services, which companies immediately come to mind? Please name up to eight.

If response = "banks" etc, prompt for specific companies

1. \_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

3. \_\_\_\_\_

4. \_\_\_\_\_

5. \_\_\_\_\_

6. \_\_\_\_\_

7. \_\_\_\_\_

8. \_\_\_\_\_

5. Have you heard of engage?

Yes ☐1

No ☐2

If no go to Q7

Location:

Outside stadium☐1

Inside stadium☐2

Pitch view☐3

If yes  
↓

6. What specific products/services do you associate with engage?

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

Pass remainder of questionnaire to respondent for self-completion.

7. Gender: Male ☐1 Female ☐2

8. Please can you indicate which of the following age categories you fit into? Show printed list

Under 18☐9

18-24☐1

25-34☐2

35-44☐3

45-54☐4

55-64☐5

65+☐6

9. In which band is your annual household income, after tax? Show printed list

Less than £10000☐1

£10001 - £20000☐2

£20001 - £30000☐3

£30001 - £40000☐4

£40001 - £50000☐5

More than £50000☐6

Decline to answer☐9

Super League Grand Final Sponsorship Questionnaire

Please respond to the following questions either by writing in the space given or putting a tick in the appropriate box. If you have any questions, please feel free to ask. Once you have completed the questionnaire, please hand it back to the interviewer.

1. Have you heard of the following brands?

	Yes		Yes
NFU Mutual	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	Scottish Widows	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Prudential	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	Norwich Union	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Halifax	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	Standard Life	<input type="checkbox"/> 1

2. Do you currently own or have you ever owned any products or services from engage?

Yes, currently ☐1                      Yes, in the past ☐2                      No ☐3

[if no, please go to Question 4]

3. What products/services from Engage do/did you own?

	Yes
Life Insurance	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Child Savings	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Savings Plan	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Equity ISA	<input type="checkbox"/> 1

4. Even if you are not an engage customer, from what you know or have heard about the engage brand, please indicate how well you think the following describe the brand.

	Describes Very Well	Describes Well	Describes Fairly Well	Does not Describe Well	Does not Describe At All	Don't Know
Dynamic	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Committed to its customers	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Friendly	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Trustworthy	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Understanding	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Respects its customers	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9

5. Have you seen/heard any promotional material for engage in the last 4 weeks, including today?

Yes ☐1                      No ☐2

[if no, please go to Question 7]

6. What promotional material for engage have you seen/heard in the last 4 weeks, including today? Please tick all that apply.

TV advert	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	Magazine/Newspaper advert	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
Sponsorship	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	Internet advertising	<input type="checkbox"/> 6
Poster	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	Other	<input type="checkbox"/> 7
Promotional event	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	[please state] _____	

Please  
turn to  
next page



7. Compared to other brands of financial services, engage is:

- The best ☐5
- One of the best ☐4
- About the same ☐3
- One of the worst ☐2
- The worst ☐1
- Don't know ☐9

8. Even if you are not an engage customer, from what you know or have heard about the engage brand, please state your agreement with the following statements.

	Totally Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Totally Disagree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
engage is of high quality	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I trust engage	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
engage is different from other brands of financial services	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
engage provides consistently high quality	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
engage is a brand I respect	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
There are definite reasons to buy products/ services from engage rather than other providers	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I am loyal to engage	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
engage would be my first choice for financial services	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
If another brand offered the same products and services as engage, I would choose engage	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I was satisfied with engage the last time I purchased a product or service from the company	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I would recommend engage to my friends and family	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I am less likely to choose engage in the future	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
The engage brand has a distinctive personality	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
engage is a leader in financial services	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9

9. From which company did you last buy financial services?

\_\_\_\_\_

10. What type of financial service was this?

- Savings Account ☐1

Credit Card ☐2

Current Account ☐3

Personal Loan ☐4

Prefer not to answer ☐9
- Insurance ☐5

Investment (e.g. shares, ISA) ☐6

Other ☐7

[please state] \_\_\_\_\_

Please  
turn to  
next page

11. Even if you are not an engage customer, please state your agreement with the following statements.

	Totally Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Totally Disagree	Don't Know
I intend to purchase products or services from engage in the future	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
engage is of poor quality	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
engage is not a brand for me	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I would be willing to pay a higher price for engage products/services over other competing brands	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
engage offers worse value for money than other brands	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
engage is a brand that is growing in popularity	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
When I am looking for a savings or investment provider, I will consider engage	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
engage offers innovative products and services	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I have a clear image of the type of person who would use engage products/services	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9

12. engage sponsors the Super League. Knowing this, how has your opinion of the brand changed?

- Like a lot more☐5
- Like a little more☐4
- Like the same as before☐3
- Like a little less☐2
- Like a lot less☐1

13. Please state your agreement with the following statements

	Totally Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Totally Disagree
I would choose a brand which sponsors Rugby League over one which does not	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
engage is an appropriate sponsor for the Super League Grand Final	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1

14. Gender:

Male☐1

Female☐2

15. Age:

- Under 18☐9
- 18-24☐1
- 25-34☐2
- 35-44☐3
- 45-54☐4
- 55-64☐5
- 65+☐6

16. What is your annual household income, after tax?

- Less than £10000☐1
- £10001 - £20000☐2
- £20001 - £30000☐3
- Decline to answer☐9
- £30001 - £40000☐5
- £40001 - £50000☐6
- More than £50000☐7

Thank you for your  
co-operation.  
Please hand your  
completed  
questionnaire and  
clipboard back to  
the interviewer.



---

## **Appendix 2**

### **Pilot Study Results**

**Appendix 2: Pilot Study Results**

Full results from pilot study undertaken at engage Super League Grand Final, Old Trafford, Manchester in October 2006.

**Demographic Data**

**Table A2.1 Gender**

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Male	25	52.1
	Female	23	47.9
	Total	48	100.0
Missing		2	
Total		50	

**Table A2.2 Age**

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	18-24	11	22.9
	25-34	14	29.2
	35-44	9	18.8
	45-54	4	8.3
	55-64	9	18.8
	65+	1	2.1
	Total	48	100.0
	Missing	2	
Total		50	

**Table A2.3 Household income after tax**

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Less than £10000	1	2.0
	£10001-£20000	10	20.0
	£20001-£30000	12	24.0
	£30001-£40000	3	6.0
	£40001-£50000	7	14.0
	More than £50000	4	8.0
	Decline to answer	13	26.0
Total		50	100.0



Table A2.4 engage customer status

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes, in the past	1	3.1
	No	31	96.9
	Total	32	100.0
Missing		18	
Total		50	

Table A2.5 Seen engage promotional material in past 4 weeks

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes	26	81.3
	No	6	18.8
	Total	32	100.0
Missing		18	
Total		50	

Table A2.6 engage promotional material seen in past 4 weeks

	Yes	No
	%	%
TV advert	24.0%	76.0%
Sponsorship	76.0%	24.0%
Poster	40.0%	60.0%
Promotional event	28.0%	72.0%
Internet advertising	12.0%	88.0%
Magazine/Newspaper advert	16.0%	84.0%

Sponsorship Awareness

Table A2.7 Aided Sponsor Recognition

	Yes	
	Count	%
Earth Money	40	81.6%
engage	36	73.5%
Tetley's	32	65.3%
Powergen	31	63.3%
P&O Ferries	16	32.7%
nPower	12	24.5%
Trafford Centre	11	22.4%
RBS	7	14.3%
Grattan	5	10.2%
Carling	3	6.1%
Omega	1	2.0%

Table A2.8 Super League title sponsor

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid engage	33	66.0
Powergen	2	4.0
Tetleys	2	4.0
Sky Sports	1	2.0
None/Don't Know	12	24.0
Total	50	100.0

Brand Awareness

Table A2.9 engage Brand Awareness

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes	42	87.5
	No	6	12.5
	Total	48	100.0
Missing		2	
Total		50	



Table A2.10 engage Product Associations

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Financial Services	7	15.6
Rugby	2	4.4
Other	1	2.2
None	31	68.9
Total	45	100.0

Brand Associations

Table A2.11 engage Brand Value Associations

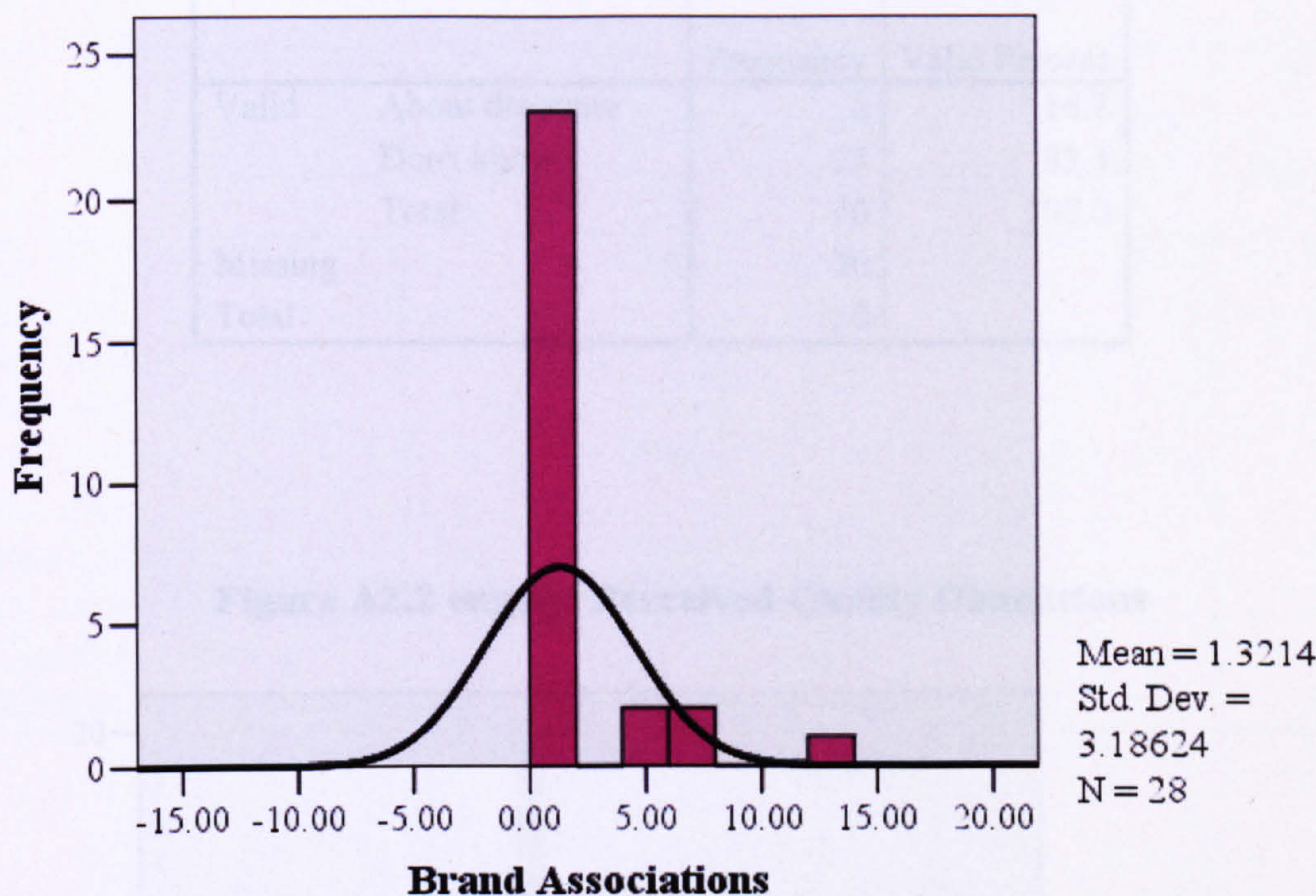
	Does not describe well	Describes fairly well	Describes well	Describes very well	Don't know
	%	%	%	%	%
Dynamic		12.9%	6.5%	3.2%	77.4%
Committed to customers	3.2%	6.5%	6.5%		83.9%
Friendly		9.7%	9.7%		80.6%
Trustworthy		9.7%	6.5%		83.9%
Understanding		9.7%	6.5%		83.9%
Respects customers	6.5%	6.5%	3.2%		83.9%

Table A2.12 engage Brand Associations

	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Totally agree	Don't know/Not applicable
	%	%	%	%	%
Trust		3.4%	10.3%	3.4%	82.8%
Different		10.3%	6.9%		82.8%
Reasons to Buy		17.2%	3.4%		79.3%
Distinctive Personality	3.4%	6.9%	6.9%		82.8%
Worse Value	3.6%	3.6%		3.6%	89.3%
User Image		3.6%	7.1%		89.3%



Figure A2.1 engage Brand Associations



Perceived Quality

Table A2.13 engage Perceived Quality Dimensions

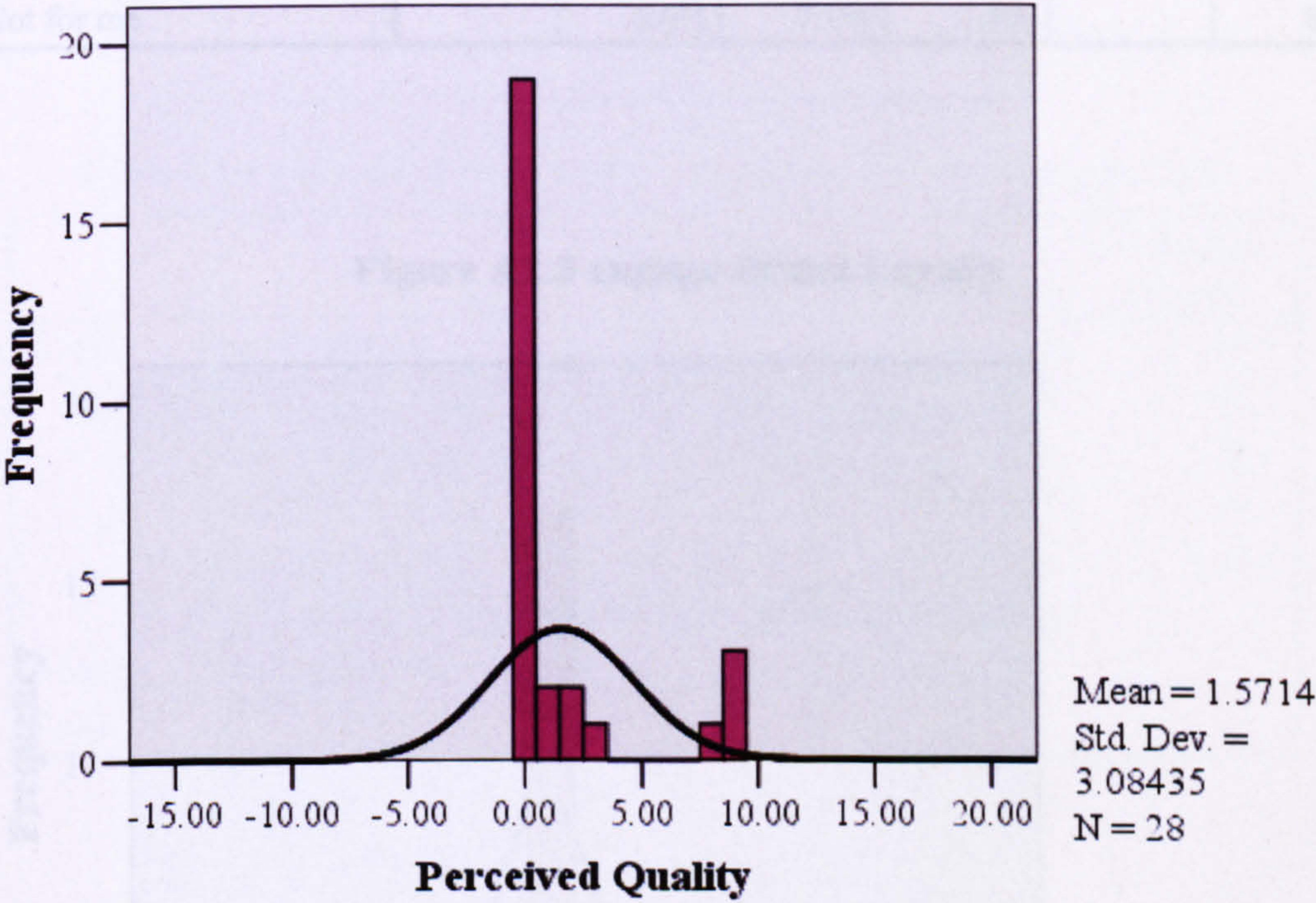
	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Totally agree	Don't know/Not applicable
	%	%	%	%	%
High Quality		3.4%	17.2%		79.3%
Respect		6.9%	13.8%		79.3%
Leader		13.8%	3.4%		82.8%
Popularity			14.3%		85.7%
Innovative		7.1%	3.6%		89.3%
Consistent High Quality		6.7%	6.7%	3.3%	83.3%
Poor Quality	3.6%	7.1%	7.1%		82.1%



Table A2.14 engage Comparison with competitors

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	About the same	5	16.7
	Don't know	25	83.3
	Total	30	100.0
Missing		20	
Total		50	

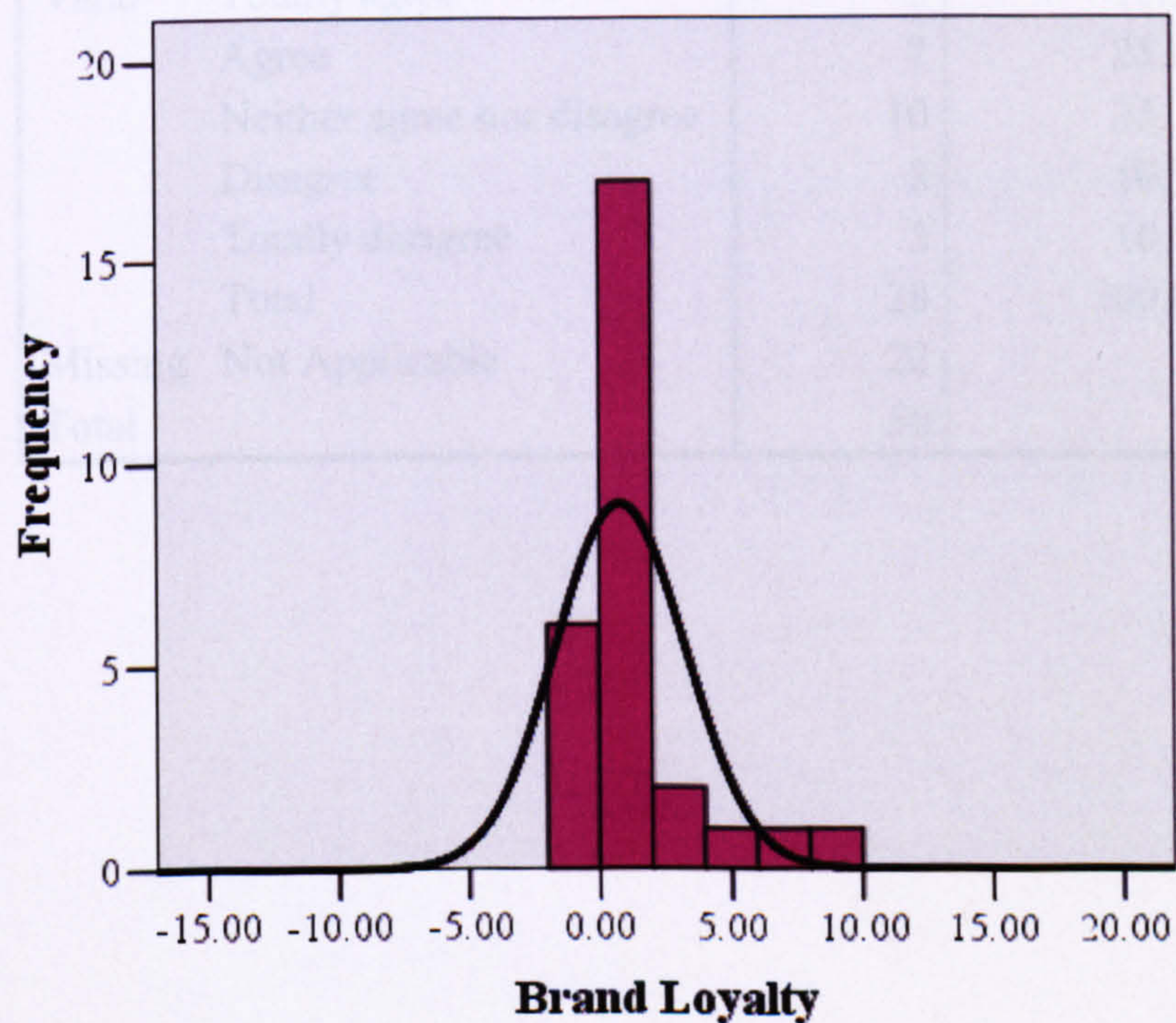
Figure A2.2 engage Perceived Quality Dimensions





**Brand Loyalty****Table A2.15 engage Brand Loyalty Dimensions**

	Totally disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Totally agree	Don't know/Not applicable
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Loyal		3.4%	6.9%	3.4%	3.4%	82.8%
Satisfied			10.3%			89.7%
Recommend			10.3%	3.4%		86.2%
Intend to Purchase	3.6%	25.0%	3.6%	7.1%		60.7%
Higher Price		14.3%		7.1%		78.6%
Consider				20.7%		79.3%
First Choice for FS		6.9%	10.3%	3.4%		79.3%
Choose over Competitors		3.4%	10.3%	6.9%		79.3%
Less likely to choose			10.3%		3.4%	86.2%
Not for me		3.6%	7.1%	7.1%		82.1%

**Figure A2.3 engage Brand Loyalty**



**Sponsorship and Brand Preference**

**Table A2.16 Sponsorship brand image change**

		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Like a lot more	7	25.0	25.0
	Like a little more	6	21.4	46.4
	Like the same as before	14	50.0	96.4
	Like a lot less	1	3.6	100.0
	Total	28	100.0	
Missing	Not Applicable	22		
Total		50		

**Table A2.17 Would choose rugby league sponsor over competitors**

		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally agree	5	17.9	17.9
	Agree	7	25.0	42.9
	Neither agree nor disagree	10	35.7	78.6
	Disagree	3	10.7	89.3
	Totally disagree	3	10.7	100.0
	Total	28	100.0	
Missing	Not Applicable	22		
Total		50		

Table A2.18 engage as appropriate sponsor for rugby league

		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally agree	8	27.6	27.6
	Agree	5	17.2	44.8
	Neither agree nor disagree	15	51.7	96.6
	Disagree	1	3.4	100.0
	Total	29	100.0	
Missing	Not Applicable	21		
Total		50		



---

## **Appendix 3**

### **World Indoor Bowls sponsorship questionnaire**

# World Indoor Bowls Sponsorship Questionnaire

**Interviewer-administered**

1. What brands can you think of that sponsor Bowls? Please name up to six.

1. \_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

3. \_\_\_\_\_

4. \_\_\_\_\_

5. \_\_\_\_\_

6. \_\_\_\_\_

2. Please can you tell me which of the brands on this list you think sponsor Bowls?

Show printed list

Expo Graphics☐1

Potters Holidays☐5

Horizon Software☐9

Great British Mobility☐2

engage☐6

Standard Life☐10

NFU Mutual☐3

Saga Insurance☐7

Nationwide Bowler☐11

Highland Spring☐4

Dales Sports Surfaces☐8

3. Who is the main sponsor of the World Indoor Bowls Championships?

\_\_\_\_\_

4. Have you heard of Potters?

Yes ☐1

No ☐2

If no go to Q8, page 3



5. What specific products/services do you associate with Potters?

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

6. When I mention leisure resorts, which companies immediately come to mind? Please name up to six.

1. \_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

3. \_\_\_\_\_

4. \_\_\_\_\_

5. \_\_\_\_\_

6. \_\_\_\_\_

7. Are you currently staying at Potters Leisure Resort or have you stayed at Potters in the past?

Yes, currently ☐1

Yes, in the past ☐2

No ☐3

8. If you are currently staying at Potters, what is the main reason for your stay? Please select one answer.

To watch bowls ☐1

Non-bowls related holiday ☐2

Other ☐3

9. Would you visit Potters again? Please tick all that apply.

Yes, just to watch bowls ☐1

Yes, for a holiday at another time ☐1

No ☐1

Now hand rest of questionnaire to respondent to complete. If they would prefer, you may read out the questions and give the respondent the response card from which to indicate answers.



# World Bowls Sponsorship Questionnaire

Please respond to the following questions either by writing in the space given or putting a tick in the appropriate box. If you have any questions, please feel free to ask. Once you have completed the questionnaire, please hand it back to the interviewer.

1. Even if you are not a Potters customer, from what you know or have heard about the Potters brand, please state your agreement with the following statements.

	Totally Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Totally Disagree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
Potters is of high quality	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I trust Potters	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Potters is different from other leisure resorts	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Potters is a brand I respect	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
There are definite reasons to visit Potters rather than other leisure resorts	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9

2. What promotional material for Potters have you seen/heard in the last 4 weeks, including today? Please tick all that apply.

TV advert	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	Magazine/Newspaper advert	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
Sponsorship	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	Website	<input type="checkbox"/> 6
Poster	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	None	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Brochure	<input type="checkbox"/> 4		

3. Even if you are not a Potters customer, please state your agreement with the following statements.

	Totally Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Totally Disagree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
I feel loyal to Potters	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I was satisfied with Potters the last time I visited	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I would recommend Potters to my friends and family	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
The Potters brand has a distinctive personality	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Potters is a leader in leisure resorts	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9

4. Compared to other leisure resorts, Potters is:

The best	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
One of the best	<input type="checkbox"/> 4
About the same	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
One of the worst	<input type="checkbox"/> 2
The worst	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Don't know	<input type="checkbox"/> 9

Please turn to next page

5. Even if you are not a Potters customer, please state your agreement with the following statements.

	Totally Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Totally Disagree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
I would be willing to pay a higher price at Potters than at other leisure resorts	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Potters offers worse value for money than other brands	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Potters is a brand that is growing in popularity	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
When I am looking for a leisure break, I will consider Potters	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Potters offers innovative products and services	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I have a clear image of the type of person who would visit Potters	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9

6. Potters sponsors the World Indoor Bowls Championships. Knowing this, how has your opinion of the brand changed?

Like a lot more	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
Like a little more	<input type="checkbox"/> 4
Like the same as before	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Like a little less	<input type="checkbox"/> 2
Like a lot less	<input type="checkbox"/> 1

7. Please state your agreement with the following statements

	Totally Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Totally Disagree
I would choose a brand which sponsors Bowls over one which does not	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Potters is an appropriate sponsor for the World Indoor Bowls Championships	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
I hold an opinion about the Potters brand	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1

8. Gender:

Male ☐1                      Female ☐2

9. Age:

Under 18	<input type="checkbox"/> 9	18-24	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	25-34	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	35-44	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
45-54	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	55-64	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	65+	<input type="checkbox"/> 6		

10. What is your annual household income, before tax?

Less than £10000	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	£10001 - £20000	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	£20001 - £30000	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
£30001 - £40000	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	£40001 - £50000	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	More than £50000	<input type="checkbox"/> 6
Decline to answer	<input type="checkbox"/> 7				

Thank you for your co-operation. Please hand your completed questionnaire and clipboard back to the interviewer.



---

## **Appendix 4**

### **Ladies World Matchplay Bowls sponsorship questionnaire**

Ladies World Matchplay Bowls Sponsorship Questionnaire

Interviewer-administered

1. What brands can you think of that sponsor Bowls? Please name up to six.

1. \_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

3. \_\_\_\_\_

4. \_\_\_\_\_

5. \_\_\_\_\_

6. \_\_\_\_\_

2. Please can you tell me which of the brands on this list you think sponsor Bowls?

Show printed list

Expo Graphics☐1

Potters Holidays☐1

Horizon Software☐1

Great British Mobility☐1

engage☐1

Standard Life☐1

NFU Mutual☐1

Saga Insurance☐1

Nationwide Bowler☐1

Highland Spring☐1

Dales Sports Surfaces☐1

3. Who is the main sponsor of the Ladies World Matchplay Bowls?

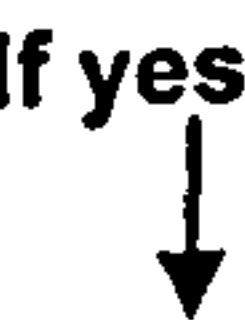
\_\_\_\_\_

4. Have you heard of engage?

Yes ☐1

No ☐2

If no go to Q9, page 3



5. What specific products/services do you associate with engage?

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

6. When I mention financial services, which companies immediately come to mind? Please name up to six.

If response =  
"banks" etc,  
prompt for  
specific  
companies

1. \_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

3. \_\_\_\_\_

4. \_\_\_\_\_

5. \_\_\_\_\_

6. \_\_\_\_\_

Now hand rest of questionnaire to respondent to complete. If they would prefer, you may read out the questions and give the respondent the response card from which to indicate answers.



# Ladies World Matchplay Bowls Sponsorship Questionnaire

Please respond to the following questions either by writing in the space given or putting a tick in the appropriate box. If you have any questions, please feel free to ask. Once you have completed the questionnaire, please hand it back to the interviewer.

1. Do you currently own or have you ever owned any products or services from engage?

Yes, currently ☐\_1

Yes, in the past ☐\_2

No ☐\_3

2. Even if you are not an engage customer, from what you know or have heard about the engage brand, please state your agreement with the following statements.

	Totally Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Totally Disagree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
engage is of high quality	<input type="checkbox"/> _5	<input type="checkbox"/> _4	<input type="checkbox"/> _3	<input type="checkbox"/> _2	<input type="checkbox"/> _1	<input type="checkbox"/> _9
I trust engage	<input type="checkbox"/> _5	<input type="checkbox"/> _4	<input type="checkbox"/> _3	<input type="checkbox"/> _2	<input type="checkbox"/> _1	<input type="checkbox"/> _9
engage is different from other brands of financial services	<input type="checkbox"/> _5	<input type="checkbox"/> _4	<input type="checkbox"/> _3	<input type="checkbox"/> _2	<input type="checkbox"/> _1	<input type="checkbox"/> _9
engage is a brand I respect	<input type="checkbox"/> _5	<input type="checkbox"/> _4	<input type="checkbox"/> _3	<input type="checkbox"/> _2	<input type="checkbox"/> _1	<input type="checkbox"/> _9
There are definite reasons to buy products/ services from engage rather than other providers	<input type="checkbox"/> _5	<input type="checkbox"/> _4	<input type="checkbox"/> _3	<input type="checkbox"/> _2	<input type="checkbox"/> _1	<input type="checkbox"/> _9

3. What promotional material for engage have you seen/heard in the last 4 weeks, including today? Please tick all that apply.

TV advert	<input type="checkbox"/> _1	Magazine/Newspaper advert	<input type="checkbox"/> _1
Sponsorship	<input type="checkbox"/> _1	Internet advertising	<input type="checkbox"/> _1
Poster	<input type="checkbox"/> _1	None	<input type="checkbox"/> _9
Promotional event	<input type="checkbox"/> _1		

4. Even if you are not an engage customer, please state your agreement with the following statements.

	Totally Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Totally Disagree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
I feel loyal to engage	<input type="checkbox"/> _5	<input type="checkbox"/> _4	<input type="checkbox"/> _3	<input type="checkbox"/> _2	<input type="checkbox"/> _1	<input type="checkbox"/> _9
I was satisfied with engage the last time I purchased a product or service from the company	<input type="checkbox"/> _5	<input type="checkbox"/> _4	<input type="checkbox"/> _3	<input type="checkbox"/> _2	<input type="checkbox"/> _1	<input type="checkbox"/> _9
I would recommend engage to my friends and family	<input type="checkbox"/> _5	<input type="checkbox"/> _4	<input type="checkbox"/> _3	<input type="checkbox"/> _2	<input type="checkbox"/> _1	<input type="checkbox"/> _9
The engage brand has a distinctive personality	<input type="checkbox"/> _5	<input type="checkbox"/> _4	<input type="checkbox"/> _3	<input type="checkbox"/> _2	<input type="checkbox"/> _1	<input type="checkbox"/> _9
engage is a leader in financial services	<input type="checkbox"/> _5	<input type="checkbox"/> _4	<input type="checkbox"/> _3	<input type="checkbox"/> _2	<input type="checkbox"/> _1	<input type="checkbox"/> _9

5. Compared to other brands of financial services, engage is:

The best	<input type="checkbox"/> _5
One of the best	<input type="checkbox"/> _4
About the same	<input type="checkbox"/> _3
One of the worst	<input type="checkbox"/> _2
The worst	<input type="checkbox"/> _1
Don't know	<input type="checkbox"/> _9

**Please turn  
to next  
page**

6. Even if you are not an engage customer, please state your agreement with the following statements.

	Totally Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Totally Disagree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
I intend to purchase products or services from engage in the future	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I would be willing to pay a higher price for engage products/services over other competing brands	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
engage offers worse value for money than other brands	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
engage is a brand that is growing in popularity	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
When I am looking for a savings or investment provider, I will consider engage	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
engage offers innovative products and services	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I have a clear image of the type of person who would use engage products/services	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9

7. engage sponsors the Ladies World Matchplay Bowls. Knowing this, how has your opinion of the brand changed?

- Like a lot more☐5
- Like a little more☐4
- Like the same as before☐3
- Like a little less☐2
- Like a lot less☐1

8. Please state your agreement with the following statements.

	Totally Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Totally Disagree
I would choose a brand which sponsors Bowls over one which does not	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
engage is an appropriate sponsor for the Ladies World Matchplay Bowls	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
I hold an opinion about the engage brand	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1

9. Gender:

Male☐1

Female☐2

10. Age:

- Under 18☐9
- 18-24☐1
- 25-34☐2
- 35-44☐3
- 45-54☐4
- 55-64☐5
- 65+☐6

11. What is your annual household income, before tax?

- Less than £10000☐1
- £10001 - £20000☐2
- £20001 - £30000☐3
- £30001 - £40000☐4
- £40001 - £50000☐5
- More than £50000☐6
- Decline to answer☐7

Thank you for your  
co-operation.  
Please hand your  
completed  
questionnaire and  
clipboard back to  
the interviewer.



---

## **Appendix 5**

### **Brand equity questionnaire (engage)**

Brand Equity Questionnaire

Please respond to the following questions either by writing in the space given or putting a tick in the appropriate box. Once you have completed the questionnaire, please return it as soon as possible in the enclosed, pre-paid envelope. Please be assured that all responses are anonymous.

1. When I mention financial services, which companies immediately come to mind?

1. \_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

3. \_\_\_\_\_

4. \_\_\_\_\_

5. \_\_\_\_\_

6. \_\_\_\_\_

2. Have you heard of engage?

Yes ☐1

No ☐2

If yes

If no, please go to Question 12



3. What specific products/services do you associate with engage?

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

4. Do you currently own or have you ever owned any products or services from engage?

Yes, currently ☐1

Yes, in the past ☐2

No ☐3

Please turn over the page and complete the rest of the questionnaire.



5. Even if you are not an engage customer, from what you know or have heard about the engage brand, please state your agreement with the following statements.

	Totally Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Totally Disagree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
engage is of high quality	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I trust engage	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
engage is different from other brands of financial services	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
engage is a brand I respect	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
There are definite reasons to buy products/ services from engage rather than other providers	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9

6. What promotional material for engage have you seen/heard in the last 4 weeks, including today? Please tick all that apply.

TV advert	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	Magazine/Newspaper advert	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
Sponsorship	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	Internet advertising	<input type="checkbox"/> 6
Poster	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	None	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Promotional event	<input type="checkbox"/> 4		

7. Even if you are not an engage customer, please state your agreement with the following statements.

	Totally Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Totally Disagree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
I feel loyal to engage	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I was satisfied with engage the last time I purchased a product or service from the company	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I would recommend engage to my friends and family	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
The engage brand has a distinctive personality	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
engage is a leader in financial services	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9

8. Are you aware of any sponsorship of sporting events by engage? If yes, what events?

Yes ☐1                      No ☐2

Events: \_\_\_\_\_

9. Compared to other brands of financial services, engage is:

The best	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
One of the best	<input type="checkbox"/> 4
About the same	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
One of the worst	<input type="checkbox"/> 2
The worst	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Don't know	<input type="checkbox"/> 9

Please  
turn over

10. Even if you are not an engage customer, please state your agreement with the following statements.

	Totally Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Totally Disagree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
I intend to purchase products or services from engage in the future	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I would be willing to pay a higher price for engage products/services over other competing brands	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
engage offers worse value for money than other brands	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
engage is a brand that is growing in popularity	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
When I am looking for a savings and investment provider, I will consider engage	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
engage offers innovative products and services	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I have a clear image of the type of person who would use engage products/services	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I hold an opinion about the engage brand	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9

11. engage is a sponsor of World Bowls. Knowing this, how has your opinion of the brand changed?

- Like a lot more ☐5
- Like a little more ☐4
- Like the same as before ☐3
- Like a little less ☐2
- Like a lot less ☐1
- Don't know ☐9

12. Gender:

Male ☐1                      Female ☐2

13. Age:

Under 18    ☐9              18-24    ☐1              25-34    ☐2              35-44    ☐3  
45-54    ☐4              55-64    ☐5              65+    ☐6

14. What is your annual household income, before tax?

Less than £10000    ☐1              £10001 - £20000    ☐5              £20001 - £30000    ☐2  
£30001 - £40000    ☐6              £40001 - £50000    ☐3              More than £50000    ☐7  
Decline to answer    ☐4

Thank you for your co-operation. Please return the completed questionnaire in the enclosed, pre-paid envelope. All responses are anonymous and cannot be traced to individuals.



---

## **Appendix 6**

### **Grand Prix Athletics sponsorship questionnaire**

Grand Prix Athletics Sponsorship Questionnaire

Interviewer-administered

1. What brands can you think of that sponsor Athletics? Please name up to six.

1. \_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

3. \_\_\_\_\_

4. \_\_\_\_\_

5. \_\_\_\_\_

6. \_\_\_\_\_

2. Please can you tell me which of the brands on this list you think sponsor Athletics?

Show printed list

Cadbury's	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	SPAR	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	Nike	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Flora	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	Norwich Union	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	Standard Life	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Direct Line	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	Lucozade	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	adidas	<input type="checkbox"/> 1

3. Who is the main sponsor of today's Grand Prix athletics event?

\_\_\_\_\_

4. Have you heard of Norwich Union?

Yes ☐1

No ☐2

If no go to Q9, page 3

If yes  
↓

5. What specific products/services do you associate with Norwich Union?

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

6. When I mention financial services, which companies immediately come to mind? Please name up to six.

If response =  
"banks" etc,  
prompt for  
specific  
companies

1. \_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

3. \_\_\_\_\_

4. \_\_\_\_\_

5. \_\_\_\_\_

6. \_\_\_\_\_

Now hand rest of questionnaire to respondent to complete. If they would prefer, you may read out the questions and give the respondent the response card from which to indicate answers.



Grand Prix Athletics Sponsorship Questionnaire

Please respond to the following questions by putting a tick in the appropriate box. If you have any questions, please feel free to ask. Once you have completed the questionnaire, please hand it back to the interviewer.

1. Even if you are not a Norwich Union customer, from what you know or have heard about the Norwich Union brand, please state your agreement with the following statements.

	Totally Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Totally Disagree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
Norwich Union is of high quality	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I trust Norwich Union	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Norwich Union is different from other brands of financial services	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Norwich Union is a brand I respect	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
There are definite reasons to buy products/ services from Norwich Union rather than other providers	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9

2. Do you currently own or have you ever owned any products or services from Norwich Union?

Yes, currently ☐1                      Yes, in the past ☐2                      No ☐3

3. What promotional material for Norwich Union have you seen/heard in the last 4 weeks, including today? Please tick all that apply.

TV advert	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	Magazine/Newspaper advert	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Sponsorship	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	Internet advertising	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Poster	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	None	<input type="checkbox"/> 9

4. Even if you are not a Norwich Union customer, please state your agreement with the following statements.

	Totally Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Totally Disagree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
I feel loyal to Norwich Union	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I was satisfied with Norwich Union the last time I purchased a product or service from the company	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I would recommend Norwich Union to my friends and family	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
The Norwich Union brand has a distinctive personality	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Norwich Union is a leader in financial services	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9

5. Compared to other brands of financial services, Norwich Union is:

The best	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
One of the best	<input type="checkbox"/> 4
About the same	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
One of the worst	<input type="checkbox"/> 2
The worst	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Don't know	<input type="checkbox"/> 9

Please turn to next page

6. Even if you are not a Norwich Union customer, please state your agreement with the following statements.

	Totally Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Totally Disagree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
I intend to purchase products or services from Norwich Union in the future	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I would be willing to pay a higher price for Norwich Union products/services over other competing brands	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Norwich Union offers worse value for money than other brands	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Norwich Union is a brand that is growing in popularity	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
When I am looking for a financial services provider, I will consider Norwich Union	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Norwich Union offers innovative products and services	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I have a clear image of the type of person who would use Norwich Union products/services	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9

7. Norwich Union sponsors the Grand Prix athletics. Knowing this, how has your opinion of the brand changed?

Like a lot more	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
Like a little more	<input type="checkbox"/> 4
Like the same as before	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Like a little less	<input type="checkbox"/> 2
Like a lot less	<input type="checkbox"/> 1

8. Please state your agreement with the following statements.

	Totally Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Totally Disagree
I would choose a brand which sponsors athletics over one which does not	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Norwich Union is an appropriate sponsor for the Grand Prix athletics	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
I hold an opinion about the Norwich Union brand	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1

9. Gender:

Male ☐1                      Female ☐2

10. Age:

Under 18	<input type="checkbox"/> 9	45-54	<input type="checkbox"/> 4
18-24	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	55-64	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
25-34	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	65+	<input type="checkbox"/> 6
35-44	<input type="checkbox"/> 3		

11. What is your annual household income, before tax?

Less than £10000	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	£40001 - £50000	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
£10001 - £20000	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	More than £50000	<input type="checkbox"/> 6
£20001 - £30000	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	Decline to answer	<input type="checkbox"/> 7
£30001 - £40000	<input type="checkbox"/> 4		

Thank you for your co-operation. Please hand your completed questionnaire and clipboard back to the interviewer.



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## **Appendix 7**

### **Brand equity questionnaire (Norwich Union)**

# Brand Equity Questionnaire

Please respond to the following questions either by writing in the space given or putting a tick in the appropriate box. Once you have completed the questionnaire, please return it as soon as possible in the enclosed, pre-paid envelope. Please be assured that all responses are anonymous.

1. When I mention financial services, which companies immediately come to mind?

1. \_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

3. \_\_\_\_\_

4. \_\_\_\_\_

5. \_\_\_\_\_

6. \_\_\_\_\_

2. Have you heard of Norwich Union?

Yes ☐\_1

No ☐\_2

If yes

If no, please go to Question 12



3. What specific products/services do you associate with Norwich Union?

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

4. Do you currently own or have you ever owned any products or services from Norwich Union?

Yes, currently ☐\_1

Yes, in the past ☐\_2

No ☐\_3

Please turn over the page and complete the rest of the questionnaire.



5. Even if you are not a Norwich Union customer, from what you know or have heard about the Norwich Union brand, please state your agreement with the following statements.

	Totally Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Totally Disagree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
Norwich Union is of high quality	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I trust Norwich Union	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Norwich Union is different from other brands of financial services	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Norwich Union is a brand I respect	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
There are definite reasons to buy products/ services from Norwich Union rather than other providers	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9

6. What promotional material for Norwich Union have you seen/heard in the last 4 weeks, including today? Please tick all that apply.

TV advert	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	Magazine/Newspaper advert	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Sponsorship	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	Internet advertising	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Poster	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	None	<input type="checkbox"/> 9

7. Even if you are not a Norwich Union customer, please state your agreement with the following statements.

	Totally Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Totally Disagree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
I feel loyal to Norwich Union	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I was satisfied with Norwich Union the last time I purchased a product or service from the company	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I would recommend Norwich Union to my friends and family	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
The Norwich Union brand has a distinctive personality	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Norwich Union is a leader in financial services	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9

8. Are you aware of any sponsorship of sporting events by Norwich Union? If yes, what events?

Yes ☐1                      No ☐2

Events: \_\_\_\_\_

9. Compared to other brands of financial services, Norwich Union is:

The best	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
One of the best	<input type="checkbox"/> 4
About the same	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
One of the worst	<input type="checkbox"/> 2
The worst	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Don't know	<input type="checkbox"/> 9

Please  
turn over

10. Even if you are not a Norwich Union customer, please state your agreement with the following statements.

	Totally Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Totally Disagree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
I intend to purchase products or services from Norwich Union in the future	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I would be willing to pay a higher price for Norwich Union products/services over other competing brands	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Norwich Union offers worse value for money than other brands	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Norwich Union is a brand that is growing in popularity	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
When I am looking for a financial services provider, I will consider Norwich Union	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Norwich Union offers innovative products and services	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I have a clear image of the type of person who would use Norwich Union products/services	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I hold an opinion about the Norwich Union brand	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9

11. Norwich Union is a sponsor of UK Athletics. Knowing this, how has your opinion of the brand changed?

Like a lot more	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
Like a little more	<input type="checkbox"/> 4
Like the same as before	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
Like a little less	<input type="checkbox"/> 2
Like a lot less	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Don't know	<input type="checkbox"/> 9

12. Gender:

Male ☐1                      Female ☐2

13. Age:

Under 18	<input type="checkbox"/> 9	18-24	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	25-34	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	35-44	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
45-54	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	55-64	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	65+	<input type="checkbox"/> 6		

14. What is your annual household income, before tax?

Less than £10000	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	£10001 - £20000	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	£20001 - £30000	<input type="checkbox"/> 2
£30001 - £40000	<input type="checkbox"/> 6	£40001 - £50000	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	More than £50000	<input type="checkbox"/> 7
Decline to answer	<input type="checkbox"/> 4				

Thank you for your co-operation. Please return the completed questionnaire in the enclosed, pre-paid envelope. All responses are anonymous and cannot be traced to individuals.



---

## **Appendix 8**

### **One-day cricket sponsorship questionnaire**

One-Day Cricket Sponsorship Questionnaire

Interviewer-administered

1. What brands can you think of that sponsor cricket? Please name up to six.

1. \_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

3. \_\_\_\_\_

4. \_\_\_\_\_

5. \_\_\_\_\_

6. \_\_\_\_\_

2. Please can you tell me which of the brands on this list you think sponsor cricket?

Show printed list

LV	<input type="checkbox"/>	nPower	<input type="checkbox"/>	Nike	<input type="checkbox"/>
RBS	<input type="checkbox"/>	Natwest	<input type="checkbox"/>	Friends Provident	<input type="checkbox"/>
Norwich Union	<input type="checkbox"/>	Vodafone	<input type="checkbox"/>	Cornhill	<input type="checkbox"/>

3. Who is the main sponsor of today's Pro40 match?

\_\_\_\_\_

4. Have you heard of Natwest?

Yes ☐

No ☐

If no go to Q9, page 3

If yes  
↓

5. What specific products/services do you associate with Natwest?

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

Now hand rest of questionnaire to respondent to complete. If they would prefer, you may read out the questions and give the respondent the response card from which to indicate answers.



# One-Day Cricket Sponsorship Questionnaire

Please respond to the following questions by putting a tick in the appropriate box. If you have any questions, please feel free to ask. Once you have completed the questionnaire, please hand it back to the interviewer.

1. Even if you are not a Natwest customer, from what you know or have heard about the Natwest brand, please state your agreement with the following statements.

	Totally Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Totally Disagree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
Natwest is of high quality	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I trust Natwest	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Natwest is different from other brands of financial services	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Natwest is a brand I respect	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
There are definite reasons to buy products/ services Natwest rather than other providers	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9

2. Do you currently own or have you ever owned any products or services Natwest?

Yes, currently ☐1                      Yes, in the past ☐2                      No ☐3

3. What promotional material for Natwest have you seen/heard in the last 4 weeks, including today? Please tick all that apply.

TV advert	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	Magazine/Newspaper advert	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Sponsorship	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	Internet advertising	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Poster	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	None	<input type="checkbox"/> 9

4. Even if you are not a Natwest customer, please state your agreement with the following statements.

	Totally Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Totally Disagree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
I feel loyal to Natwest	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I was satisfied with Natwest the last time I purchased a product or service from the company	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I would recommend Natwest to my friends and family	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
The Natwest brand has a distinctive personality	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Natwest is a leader in financial services	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9

5. Compared to other brands of financial services, Natwest is:

The best	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
One of the best	<input type="checkbox"/> 4
About the same	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
One of the worst	<input type="checkbox"/> 2
The worst	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Don't know	<input type="checkbox"/> 9

Please turn  
to next  
page

6. Even if you are not a Natwest customer, please state your agreement with the following statements.

	Totally Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Totally Disagree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
I intend to purchase products or services from Natwest in the future	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I would be willing to pay a higher price for Natwest products/services over other competing brands	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Natwest offers worse value for money than other brands	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Natwest is a brand that is growing in popularity	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
When I am looking for a financial services provider, I will consider Natwest	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Natwest offers innovative products and services	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I have a clear image of the type of person who would be a Natwest customer	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9

7. Natwest sponsors the Pro40 tournament. Knowing this, how has your opinion of the brand changed?

- Like a lot more☐5
- Like a little more☐4
- Like the same as before☐3
- Like a little less☐2
- Like a lot less☐1

8. Please state your agreement with the following statements.

	Totally Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Totally Disagree
I would choose a brand which sponsors cricket over one which does not	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Natwest is an appropriate sponsor for one-day cricket	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
I hold an opinion about the Natwest brand	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1

9. Gender:

Male☐1

Female☐2

10. Age:

- Under 18☐9
- 18-24☐1
- 25-34☐2
- 35-44☐3
- 45-54☐4
- 55-64☐5
- 65+☐6

11. What is your annual household income, before tax?

- Less than £10000☐1
- £10001 - £20000☐2
- £20001 - £30000☐3
- £30001 - £40000☐4
- £40001 - £50000☐5
- More than £50000☐6
- Decline to answer☐7

Thank you for your  
co-operation.  
Please hand your  
completed  
questionnaire and  
clipboard back to  
the interviewer.



---

## **Appendix 9**

### **Brand equity questionnaire (Natwest)**

# Brand Equity Questionnaire

Please respond to the following questions either by writing in the space given or putting a tick in the appropriate box. Once you have completed the questionnaire, please return it as soon as possible in the enclosed, pre-paid envelope. Please be assured that all responses are anonymous.

1. When I mention financial services, which companies immediately come to mind?

1. \_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

3. \_\_\_\_\_

4. \_\_\_\_\_

5. \_\_\_\_\_

6. \_\_\_\_\_

2. Have you heard of Natwest?

Yes ☐1

No ☐2

If yes

If no, please go to Question 12



3. What specific products/services do you associate with Natwest?

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

4. Do you currently own or have you ever owned any products or services from Natwest?

Yes, currently ☐1

Yes, in the past ☐2

No ☐3

Please turn over the page and complete the rest of the questionnaire.



5. Even if you are not a Natwest customer, from what you know or have heard about the Natwest brand, please state your agreement with the following statements.

	Totally Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Totally Disagree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
Natwest is of high quality	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I trust Natwest	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Natwest is different from other brands of financial services	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Natwest is a brand I respect	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
There are definite reasons to buy products/ services from Natwest rather than other providers	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9

6. What promotional material for Natwest have you seen/heard in the last 4 weeks, including today? Please tick all that apply.

TV advert	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	Magazine/Newspaper advert	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Sponsorship	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	Internet advertising	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Poster	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	None	<input type="checkbox"/> 9

7. Even if you are not a Natwest customer, please state your agreement with the following statements.

	Totally Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Totally Disagree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
I feel loyal to Natwest	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I was satisfied with Natwest the last time I purchased a product or service from the company	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I would recommend Natwest to my friends and family	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
The Natwest brand has a distinctive personality	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Natwest is a leader in financial services	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9

8. Are you aware of any sponsorship of sporting events by Natwest? If yes, what events?

Yes ☐1                      No ☐2

Events: \_\_\_\_\_

9. Compared to other brands of financial services, Natwest is:

The best	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
One of the best	<input type="checkbox"/> 4
About the same	<input type="checkbox"/> 3
One of the worst	<input type="checkbox"/> 2
The worst	<input type="checkbox"/> 1
Don't know	<input type="checkbox"/> 9

Please  
turn over

10. Even if you are not a Natwest customer, please state your agreement with the following statements.

	Totally Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Totally Disagree	Not Applicable/ Don't Know
I intend to purchase products or services from Natwest in the future	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I would be willing to pay a higher price for Natwest products/services over other competing brands	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Natwest offers worse value for money than other brands	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Natwest is a brand that is growing in popularity	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
When I am looking for a financial services provider, I will consider Natwest	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
Natwest offers innovative products and services	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I have a clear image of the type of person who would use Natwest products/services	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9
I hold an opinion about the Natwest brand	<input type="checkbox"/> 5	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 9

11. Natwest is a sponsor of one day cricket. Knowing this, how has your opinion of the brand changed?

- Like a lot more ☐5
- Like a little more ☐4
- Like the same as before ☐3
- Like a little less ☐2
- Like a lot less ☐1
- Don't know ☐9

12. Gender:

Male ☐1                      Female ☐2

13. Age:

Under 18 ☐9                      18-24 ☐1                      25-34 ☐2                      35-44 ☐3  
45-54 ☐4                      55-64 ☐5                      65+ ☐6

14. What is your annual household income, before tax?

Less than £10000 ☐1                      £10001 - £20000 ☐5                      £20001 - £30000 ☐2  
£30001 - £40000 ☐6                      £40001 - £50000 ☐3                      More than £50000 ☐7  
Decline to answer ☐4

**Thank you for your co-operation. Please return the completed questionnaire in the enclosed, pre-paid envelope. All responses are anonymous and cannot be traced to individuals.**



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## **Appendix 10**

**Letter to comparison sample respondents**

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[REDACTED]

5 February 2007

Dear [REDACTED]

My name is Leah Donlan and I am a fellow member of [REDACTED]. I am currently studying for a PhD in sports management at Sheffield Hallam University, where I am conducting research into different brands.

I understand that you will be very busy, but I have enclosed with this letter a short questionnaire and I would be very grateful if you could spare a few minutes to complete it. I have also enclosed a pre-paid envelope for you to return the questionnaire, which should take no more than five minutes for you to fill in.

The questionnaire asks about your opinions towards a particular brand, which you may or may not be very familiar with. Even if you don't know much about the brand in question, I would be grateful if you could still answer the questions to the best of your knowledge as all answers are valid and informative for my research. All responses are completely anonymous and cannot be identified with you personally. I am not working for the brand in question and no personal information will be passed to any third parties.

Once again, I would very much appreciate your help in completing this questionnaire as I need as many responses as possible to make the study reliable. If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me either by e-mail at [REDACTED] or by phone on [REDACTED].

Many thanks in advance for your assistance.

Yours sincerely,

Leah Donlan  
Research Student  
Sport Industry Research Centre  
Sheffield Hallam University



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## **Appendix 11**

### **E-mail approach to sponsors**

**To:** UK Athletics  
**From:** Leah K Donlan  
**Subject:** Research at Norwich Union Athletics

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am currently undertaking a PhD in Sport Management at Sheffield Hallam University. The title for my thesis is: the contribution of sports sponsorship to consumer-based brand equity. Within this field of study I am investigating how sponsorship of a sports event aids a sponsor in achieving brand equity objectives of awareness, brand associations and brand loyalty. The domain of sports sponsorship has recently received increasing amounts of academic scrutiny, however there is still a gap in the knowledge concerning sponsorship's role in creating and building brand equity, which I intend to address in my PhD.

In order to achieve the objectives of my research I will be administering a questionnaire to groups of spectators at a range of sporting events. I am particularly interested in investigating the Norwich Union sponsorship of the Indoor Athletics in Birmingham in February. I have previously undertaken similar research at several other UK sporting events.

In order to conduct the research, I would very much like to bring a team of 4 researchers to the event, and ask spectators to complete a short questionnaire. I would of course require your permission to carry out such activities as I would not want to interfere with any other work going on at the event. Obviously I would be willing to share the results of my research with you and would provide a report of findings after the event. However, I would maintain the strictest confidentiality in reporting my findings and only attribute data by name with your expressed consent.

If you have any questions about the nature or content of the study, or the intended data collection, please do not hesitate to contact me either by e-mail:

████████████████████ or by telephone: ██████████. I understand that you are busy but I am sure you appreciate that the event is fast approaching so I look forward to hearing from you at your earliest convenience.

Yours sincerely,

Leah Donlan  
PhD Student  
Sport Industry Research Centre  
Sheffield Hallam University



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**Appendix 12**

**Supplementary Tables: Potters World Indoor Bowls and engage  
Ladies World Matchplay Bowls**

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**Appendix 12 Supplementary Tables: Potters World Indoor  
Bowls and engage Ladies World Matchplay Bowls**

The data presented here is supplementary to that presented in Chapter 5, thus no tables appearing elsewhere in the thesis are included in this appendix.

**Demographic Data**

**Table A12.1 Gender (Potters and engage event sample respondents)**

			Event Title		Total
			World Bowls	Ladies Bowls	
Gender	Male	Count	48	52	100
		% within Event Title	45.7%	45.6%	45.7%
	Female	Count	57	62	119
		% within Event Title	54.3%	54.4%	54.3%
Total	Count		105	114	219
	% within Event Title		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Table A12.2 Chi-Square Tests (Gender: Potters v  
engage event-based respondents)**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.000 <sup>a</sup>	1	.988
Likelihood Ratio	.000	1	.988
Linear-by-Linear Association	.000	1	.988
N of Valid Cases	219		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 47.95.



Table A12.3 Gender (engage event and comparison sample respondents)

			Event Title		Total
			Ladies Bowls	engage Postal	
Gender	Male	Count	52	155	207
		% within Event Title	45.6%	55.4%	52.5%
	Female	Count	62	125	187
		% within Event Title	54.4%	44.6%	47.5%
Total		Count	114	280	394
		% within Event Title	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table A12.4 Chi-Square Tests (Gender: engage event v comparison sample respondents)

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3.084 <sup>a</sup>	1	.079
Likelihood Ratio	3.083	1	.079
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.076	1	.079
N of Valid Cases	394		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 54.11.

Table A12.5 Age (Potters and engage event-based respondents)

			Event Title		Total
			World Bowls	Ladies Bowls	
Age	25-34	Count	1	0	1
		% within Event Title	1.0%	.0%	.5%
	35-44	Count	3	3	6
		% within Event Title	2.9%	2.6%	2.7%
	45-54	Count	5	2	7
		% within Event Title	4.8%	1.8%	3.2%
	55-64	Count	29	35	64
		% within Event Title	27.6%	30.7%	29.2%
	65+	Count	67	74	141
		% within Event Title	63.8%	64.9%	64.4%
	Total	Count	105	114	219
		% within Event Title	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table A12.6 Chi-Square Tests (Age: Potters v engage event-based respondents)

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.831 <sup>a</sup>	4	.587
Likelihood Ratio	3.256	4	.516
Linear-by-Linear Association	.564	1	.453
N of Valid Cases	219		

a. 6 cells (60.0%) have expected count less than 5.  
The minimum expected count is .48.

Table A12.7 Age (engage event and comparison sample respondents)

			Event Title		Total
			Ladies Bowls	engage Postal	
Age	18-24	Count	0	28	28
		% within Event Title	.0%	10.0%	7.1%
	25-34	Count	0	26	26
		% within Event Title	.0%	9.3%	6.6%
	35-44	Count	3	54	57
		% within Event Title	2.6%	19.3%	14.5%
	45-54	Count	2	78	80
		% within Event Title	1.8%	27.9%	20.3%
	55-64	Count	35	54	89
		% within Event Title	30.7%	19.3%	22.6%
	65+	Count	74	40	114
		% within Event Title	64.9%	14.3%	28.9%
	Total	Count	114	280	394
		% within Event Title	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%



Table A12.8 Chi-Square Tests (Age: engage event v comparison sample respondents)

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	141.143 <sup>a</sup>	5	.000
Likelihood Ratio	164.784	5	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	109.643	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	394		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7.52.

Table A12.9 Household income before tax (Potters and engage event-based respondents)

			Event Title		
			World Bowls	Ladies Bowls	
Household income before tax	Less than £10000	Count	9	9	18
		% within Event Title	19.1%	16.4%	17.6%
	£10001 - £20000	Count	21	17	38
		% within Event Title	44.7%	30.9%	37.3%
	£20001 - £30000	Count	6	12	18
		% within Event Title	12.8%	21.8%	17.6%
	£30001 - £40000	Count	4	9	13
		% within Event Title	8.5%	16.4%	12.7%
	£40001 - £50000	Count	1	5	6
		% within Event Title	2.1%	9.1%	5.9%
	More than £50000	Count	6	3	9
		% within Event Title	12.8%	5.5%	8.8%
Total	Count	47	55	102	
	% within Event Title	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

Table A12.10 Chi-Square Tests (Income: Potters v engage event-based respondents)

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7.429 <sup>a</sup>	5	.191
Likelihood Ratio	7.736	5	.171
Linear-by-Linear Association	.422	1	.516
N of Valid Cases	102		

a. 4 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5.  
The minimum expected count is 2.76.

Table A12.11 Household income before tax (engage event and comparison sample respondents)

			Event Title		Total
			Ladies Bowls	engage Postal	
Household income before tax	Less than £10000	Count	9	15	24
		% within Event Title	16.4%	6.2%	8.1%
	£10001 - £20000	Count	17	30	47
		% within Event Title	30.9%	12.4%	15.8%
	£20001 - £30000	Count	12	52	64
		% within Event Title	21.8%	21.5%	21.5%
	£30001 - £40000	Count	9	43	52
		% within Event Title	16.4%	17.8%	17.5%
	£40001 - £50000	Count	5	31	36
		% within Event Title	9.1%	12.8%	12.1%
	More than £50000	Count	3	71	74
		% within Event Title	5.5%	29.3%	24.9%
Total	Count	55	242	297	
	% within Event Title	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	



**Table A12.12 Chi-Square Tests (Income: engage event v comparison sample respondents)**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	26.261 <sup>a</sup>	5	.000
Likelihood Ratio	27.549	5	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	23.827	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	297		

a. 1 cells (8.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.44.

**Sponsorship Awareness**

**Table A12.13 World Bowls title sponsor**

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Potters	48	44.9
engage	23	21.5
Other	12	11.2
None	24	22.4
Total	107	100.0

**Table A12.14 Ladies Matchplay Bowls title sponsor**

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid engage	32	27.8
Potters	20	17.4
Saga	3	2.6
Dales Sports Surfaces	2	1.7
Great British Mobility	1	.9
None	57	49.6
Total	115	100.0

Table A12.15 engage sponsorship awareness (comparison sample)

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes	11	78.6
	No	3	21.4
	Total	14	100.0

a. among respondents aware of engage brand

Table A12.16 engage sponsorship activity (comparison sample)

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Rugby League	8	57.1
	None	3	21.4
	Cricket	1	7.1
	World Bowls	1	7.1
	Tour	1	7.1
	Rugby	1	7.1
	Total	14	100.0

a. among respondents aware of engage brand

**Brand Awareness**

Table A12.17 Potters Brand Awareness

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes	106	99.1
	No	1	.9
	Total	107	100.0



**Table A12.18 engage Brand Awareness (event-based respondents)**

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Yes	59	51.3
No	56	48.7
Total	115	100.0

**Table A12.19 engage Brand Awareness (comparison sample respondents)**

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Yes	14	5.0
No	266	95.0
Total	280	100.0

**Table A12.20 Chi-Square Tests (Brand Awareness: Potters v engage event-based respondents)**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	66.256 <sup>a</sup>	1	.000
Likelihood Ratio	82.237	1	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	65.957	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	222		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 27.47.

**Table A12.21 Chi-Square Tests (Brand awareness:  
engage event v comparison samples)**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	116.016 <sup>a</sup>	1	.000
Likelihood Ratio	107.587	1	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	115.722	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	395		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 21.25.

**Table A12.22 Potters Product Associations**

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Holidays	77	72.0
Bowls	55	51.4
Leisure/Entertainment	50	46.7
Food & Drink	19	17.8
Other	2	1.9
None	1	.9
Total	107	100.0

**Table A12.23 engage Product Associations  
(event-based sample)**

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Insurance	39	66.1
Assurance	3	5.1
Life Assurance	1	1.7
Life Insurance	1	1.7
Bowls	1	1.7
Green layers	1	1.7
Car sales	1	1.7
None	12	20.3
Total	59	100.0

a. among those aware of engage brand



**Table A12.24 engage Product Associations (comparison sample)**

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Rugby League	6	42.9
Financial Products	2	14.3
Insurance	1	7.1
Life Insurance	1	7.1
Homeowners Investment	1	7.1
Cricket Sponsor	1	7.1
None	2	14.3
Total	14	100.0

a. among those aware of engage brand

**Table A12.25 Hold opinion about Potters brand**

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Totally Agree	28	28.0
Agree	42	42.0
Neither agree nor disagree	27	27.0
Disagree	1	1.0
Totally Disagree	2	2.0
Total	100	100.0
Missing	7	
Total	107	

**Table A12.26 Hold opinion about engage brand (event-based sample)**

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Totally Agree	4	7.3
Agree	11	20.0
Neither agree nor disagree	30	54.5
Disagree	2	3.6
Totally Disagree	8	14.5
Total	55	100.0
Missing	4	
Total	59	

a. among those aware of engage brand

Table A12.27 Hold opinion about engage brand  
(comparison sample)

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Totally Agree	1	7.1
	Agree	2	14.3
	Neither agree nor disagree	2	14.3
	Disagree	1	7.1
	Totally Disagree	1	7.1
	Not Applicable	7	50.0
	Total	14	100.0

Table A12.28 Independent samples t-test (Brand opinion: Potters v  
engage)

Event Title		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Opinion	World Bowls	100	1.9000	.97959	.09796
	Ladies Bowls	111	.4144	1.06573	.10116

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Opinion	Equal variances assumed	1.558	.213	10.504	209	.000	1.48559
	Equal variances not assumed			10.550	208.912	.000	1.48559



Table A12.29 Independent samples t-test (Brand Opinion: engage event v comparison samples)

Event Title		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Opinion	Ladies Bowls	111	.4144	1.06573	.10116
	engage Postal	14	.4286	1.28388	.34313

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Opinion	Equal variances assumed	.686	.409	-.046	123	.964	-.01416
	Equal variances not assumed			-.040	15.344	.969	-.01416

Brand Associations

Table A12.30 Mann-Whitney test Cumulative Brand Associations (Potters v engage event-based respondents)

Event Title		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Brand Associations	World Bowls	96	148.99	14303.50
	Ladies Bowls	103	54.33	5596.50
	Total	199		

	Brand Associations
Mann-Whitney U	240.500
Wilcoxon W	5596.500
Z	-11.976
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000

Table A12.31 Mann-Whitney test Cumulative Brand Associations  
(engage event-based v comparison sample respondents)

Event Title		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Brand Associations	Ladies Bowls	103	59.27	6105.00
	engage Postal	14	57.00	798.00
	Total	117		

	Brand Associations
Mann-Whitney U	693.000
Wilcoxon W	798.000
Z	-.306
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.759

Table A12.32 Potters as appropriate sponsor for bowls

		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Agree	63	60.6	60.6
	Agree	39	37.5	98.1
	Neither agree nor disagree	2	1.9	100.0
	Total	104	100.0	
Missing		3		
Total		107		

Table A12.33 engage as appropriate sponsor for bowls

		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Agree	10	17.9	17.9
	Agree	26	46.4	64.3
	Neither agree nor disagree	19	33.9	98.2
	Totally Disagree	1	1.8	100.0
	Total	56	100.0	
Missing	Not Applicable	56		
		3		
	Total	59		
Total		115		



**Table A12.34 Individual Brand Associations mean scores (Potters v engage  
Event samples)**

Event Title		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Trust	World Bowls	104	2.3942	.72965	.07155
	Ladies Bowls	108	.3426	.78731	.07576
Different	World Bowls	101	2.0297	1.01445	.10094
	Ladies Bowls	110	.2455	.66617	.06352
Reasons to Buy	World Bowls	102	2.3333	.76214	.07546
	Ladies Bowls	109	.1927	.60057	.05752
Distinctive Personality	World Bowls	103	2.2524	.78863	.07771
	Ladies Bowls	109	.2477	.65484	.06272
Worse Value	World Bowls	99	2.0707	1.05223	.10575
	Ladies Bowls	111	.1802	.63530	.06030
User Image	World Bowls	103	2.0777	.88217	.08692
	Ladies Bowls	111	.2432	.62109	.05895

Table A12.35 Mann-Whitney test Individual Brand Associations  
(Potters v engage event-based respondents)

	Event Title	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Trust	World Bowls	104	153.25	15938.00
	Ladies Bowls	108	61.48	6640.00
	Total	212		
Different	World Bowls	101	149.52	15101.50
	Ladies Bowls	110	66.04	7264.50
	Total	211		
Reasons to Buy	World Bowls	102	156.06	15918.00
	Ladies Bowls	109	59.16	6448.00
	Total	211		
Distinctive Personality	World Bowls	103	154.89	15953.50
	Ladies Bowls	109	60.78	6624.50
	Total	212		
Worse Value	World Bowls	99	150.18	14868.00
	Ladies Bowls	111	65.65	7287.00
	Total	210		
User Image	World Bowls	103	154.47	15910.00
	Ladies Bowls	111	63.92	7095.00
	Total	214		

	Trust	Different	Reasons to Buy	Distinctive Personality	Worse Value	User Image
Mann-Whitney U	754.000	1159.500	453.000	629.500	1071.000	879.000
Wilcoxon W	6640.000	7264.500	6448.000	6624.500	7287.000	7095.000
Z	-11.560	-10.640	-12.251	-11.910	-10.821	-11.408
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000



**Table A12.36 Individual Brand Associations mean scores (engage Event v comparison samples)**

Event Title		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Trust	Ladies Bowls	108	.3426	.78731	.07576
	engage Postal	14	.2143	.57893	.15473
Different	Ladies Bowls	110	.2455	.66617	.06352
	engage Postal	14	.5000	.75955	.20300
Reasons to Buy	Ladies Bowls	109	.1927	.60057	.05752
	engage Postal	14	.2143	.89258	.23855
Distinctive Personality	Ladies Bowls	109	.2477	.65484	.06272
	engage Postal	14	.2143	.89258	.23855
Worse Value	Ladies Bowls	111	.1802	.63530	.06030
	engage Postal	14	.0000	.67937	.18157
User Image	Ladies Bowls	111	.2432	.62109	.05895
	engage Postal	14	.0714	.61573	.16456

Table A12.37 Mann-Whitney test Individual Brand Associations  
(engage event-based v comparison sample respondents)

	Event Title	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Trust	Ladies Bowls	108	61.44	6636.00
	engage Postal	14	61.93	867.00
	Total	122		
Different	Ladies Bowls	110	61.08	6719.00
	engage Postal	14	73.64	1031.00
	Total	124		
Reasons to Buy	Ladies Bowls	109	61.45	6698.00
	engage Postal	14	66.29	928.00
	Total	123		
Distinctive Personality	Ladies Bowls	109	61.53	6707.00
	engage Postal	14	65.64	919.00
	Total	123		
Worse Value	Ladies Bowls	111	63.19	7014.50
	engage Postal	14	61.46	860.50
	Total	125		
User Image	Ladies Bowls	111	63.51	7050.00
	engage Postal	14	58.93	825.00
	Total	125		

	Trust	Different	Reasons to Buy	Distinctive Personality	Worse Value	User Image
Mann-Whitney U	750.000	614.000	703.000	712.000	755.500	720.000
Wilcoxon W	6636.000	6719.000	6698.000	6707.000	860.500	825.000
Z	-.068	-1.887	-.716	-.633	-.270	-.686
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.945	.059	.474	.527	.787	.493



**Perceived Quality**

**Table A12.38 Mann-Whitney test Perceived Quality (Potters v engage event-based respondents)**

Event Title	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Perceived Quality World Bowls	94	144.13	13548.00
Ladies Bowls	99	52.25	5173.00
Total	193		

	Perceived Quality
Mann-Whitney U	223.000
Wilcoxon W	5173.000
Z	-11.798
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000

**Table A12.39 Mann-Whitney test Perceived Quality (engage event-based v comparison sample respondents)**

Event Title	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Perceived Quality Ladies Bowls	99	57.14	5656.50
engage Postal	14	56.04	784.50
Total	113		

	Perceived Quality
Mann-Whitney U	679.500
Wilcoxon W	784.500
Z	-.155
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.877

Table A12.40 Independent samples t-test engage Comparison with Competitors (event-based v comparison sample)

Event Title		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Comparison	Ladies Bowls	108	.2685	.63550	.06115
	engage Postal	14	-.1429	.53452	.14286

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Comparison	Equal variances assumed	2.031	.157	2.316	120	.022	.41138
	Equal variances not assumed			2.647	18.127	.016	.41138

Table A12.41 Mann-Whitney test engage Comparison with Competitors (event-based v comparison sample)

Event Title		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Comparison	Ladies Bowls	108	63.08	6813.00
	engage Postal	14	49.29	690.00
	Total	122		

	Comparison
Mann-Whitney U	585.000
Wilcoxon W	690.000
Z	-2.179
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.029



**Table A12.42 Individual Perceived Quality Dimensions mean scores  
(Potters v engage Event samples)**

Event Title		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
High Quality	World Bowls	104	2.6154	.54519	.05346
	Ladies Bowls	110	.3636	.79825	.07611
Respect	World Bowls	102	2.3529	.68429	.06776
	Ladies Bowls	110	.3182	.82319	.07849
Leader	World Bowls	102	2.2353	.81053	.08025
	Ladies Bowls	108	.2685	.67818	.06526
Popularity	World Bowls	102	2.0980	.75137	.07440
	Ladies Bowls	110	.3000	.73634	.07021
Innovative	World Bowls	99	2.0202	.84491	.08492
	Ladies Bowls	111	.1802	.55919	.05308
Comparison	World Bowls	102	2.1176	.82407	.08160
	Ladies Bowls	108	.2685	.63550	.06115

**Table A12.43 Mann-Whitney test Individual Perceived  
Quality Dimensions (Potters v engage event-based  
respondents)**

Event Title		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
High Quality	World Bowls	104	157.61	16391.00
	Ladies Bowls	110	60.13	6614.00
	Total	214		
Respect	World Bowls	102	154.55	15764.50
	Ladies Bowls	110	61.94	6813.50
	Total	212		
Leader	World Bowls	102	152.91	15597.00
	Ladies Bowls	108	60.72	6558.00
	Total	210		
Popularity	World Bowls	102	152.90	15595.50
	Ladies Bowls	110	63.48	6982.50
	Total	212		
Innovative	World Bowls	99	154.45	15290.50
	Ladies Bowls	111	61.84	6864.50
	Total	210		

	High Quality	Respect	Leader	Popularity	Innovative
Mann-Whitney U	509.000	708.500	672.000	877.500	648.500
Wilcoxon W	6614.000	6813.500	6558.000	6982.500	6864.500
Z	-12.218	-11.620	-11.696	-11.322	-11.888
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000



**Table A12.44 Individual Perceived Quality Dimensions mean scores  
(engage event v comparison samples)**

Event Title		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
High Quality	Ladies Bowls	110	.3636	.79825	.07611
	engage Postal	14	.2143	.89258	.23855
Respect	Ladies Bowls	110	.3182	.82319	.07849
	engage Postal	14	.2143	.89258	.23855
Leader	Ladies Bowls	108	.2685	.67818	.06526
	engage Postal	14	-.1429	.77033	.20588
Popularity	Ladies Bowls	110	.3000	.73634	.07021
	engage Postal	14	.3571	.63332	.16926
Innovative	Ladies Bowls	111	.1802	.55919	.05308
	engage Postal	14	.0000	.55470	.14825
Comparison	Ladies Bowls	108	.2685	.63550	.06115
	engage Postal	14	-.1429	.53452	.14286

**Table A12.45 Mann-Whitney test engage Individual Perceived Quality Dimensions (event-based v comparison sample respondents)**

Event Title		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
High Quality	Ladies Bowls	110	62.50	6874.50
	engage Postal	14	62.54	875.50
	Total	124		
Respect	Ladies Bowls	110	62.29	6851.50
	engage Postal	14	64.18	898.50
	Total	124		
Leader	Ladies Bowls	108	62.93	6796.00
	engage Postal	14	50.50	707.00
	Total	122		
Popularity	Ladies Bowls	110	61.80	6797.50
	engage Postal	14	68.04	952.50
	Total	124		
Innovative	Ladies Bowls	111	63.68	7068.00
	engage Postal	14	57.64	807.00
	Total	125		

	High Quality	Respect	Leader	Popularity	Innovative
Mann-Whitney U	769.500	746.500	602.000	692.500	702.000
Wilcoxon W	6874.500	6851.500	707.000	6797.500	807.000
Z	-.005	-.261	-1.883	-.904	-1.041
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.996	.794	.060	.366	.298



**Brand Loyalty**

**Table A12.46 Currently staying at Potters  
Leisure Resort**

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes	69	65.1
	No	37	34.9
	Total	106	100.0
Missing		1	
Total		107	

**Table A12.47 Stayed at Potters Leisure  
Resort previously**

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes	45	42.5
	No	61	57.5
	Total	106	100.0
Missing		1	
Total		107	

**Table A12.48 engage Customer Status (event-based and comparison sample  
respondents)**

			engage Customer		
			Yes, currently	No	
Event Title	Ladies Bowls	Count	0	49	49
		% within Event Title	.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	engage Postal	Count	1	13	14
		% within Event Title	7.1%	92.9%	100.0%
Total		Count	1	62	63
		% within Event Title	1.6%	98.4%	100.0%

Table A12.49 Independent Samples t-test engage Purchase Intention  
(event-based v comparison sample respondents)

Event Title		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Intend to Purchase	Ladies Bowls	112	.2143	.50988	.04818
	engage Postal	14	-.0714	.99725	.26653

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Intend to Purchase	Equal variances assumed	7.693	.006	1.736	124	.085	.28571
	Equal variances not assumed			1.055	13.862	.310	.28571

Table A12.50 Mann-Whitney test engage Purchase Intention  
(event-based v comparison sample respondents)

Event Title		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Intend to Purchase	Ladies Bowls	112	64.07	7175.50
	engage Postal	14	58.96	825.50
	Total	126		

	Intend to Purchase
Mann-Whitney U	720.500
Wilcoxon W	825.500
Z	-.671
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.502



Table A12.51 Mann-Whitney test Brand Loyalty (Potters v engage event-based respondents)

Event Title		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Brand Loyalty	World Bowls	96	149.94	14394.50
	Ladies Bowls	104	54.86	5705.50
	Total	200		

	Brand Loyalty
Mann-Whitney U	245.500
Wilcoxon W	5705.500
Z	-11.949
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000

Table A12.52 Mann-Whitney test Brand Loyalty (engage event-based v comparison sample respondents)

Event Title		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Brand Loyalty	Ladies Bowls	104	58.95	6131.00
	engage Postal	12	54.58	655.00
	Total	116		

	Brand Loyalty
Mann-Whitney U	577.000
Wilcoxon W	655.000
Z	-.525
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.600

**Table A12.53 Individual Brand Loyalty dimensions mean scores  
(Potters v engage event-based respondents)**

Event Title		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Loyal	World Bowls	101	1.9604	.91565	.09111
	Ladies Bowls	110	.2182	.70881	.06758
Satisfied	World Bowls	100	2.2000	1.06363	.10636
	Ladies Bowls	108	.1019	.38524	.03707
Recommend	World Bowls	103	2.3981	.77130	.07600
	Ladies Bowls	106	.2264	.60605	.05886
Higher Price	World Bowls	103	1.3010	1.22742	.12094
	Ladies Bowls	111	.1351	.53063	.05037
Consider	World Bowls	103	2.2718	.81882	.08068
	Ladies Bowls	110	.2182	.69575	.06634



**Table A12.54 Mann-Whitney test Individual Brand Loyalty  
Dimensions (Potters v engage)**

	Event Title	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Loyal	World Bowls	101	152.20	15372.00
	Ladies Bowls	110	63.58	6994.00
	Total	211		
Satisfied	World Bowls	100	149.30	14930.00
	Ladies Bowls	108	63.02	6806.00
	Total	208		
Recommend	World Bowls	103	152.67	15725.50
	Ladies Bowls	106	58.67	6219.50
	Total	209		
Higher Price	World Bowls	103	141.27	14550.50
	Ladies Bowls	111	76.17	8454.50
	Total	214		
Consider	World Bowls	103	154.45	15908.00
	Ladies Bowls	110	62.57	6883.00
	Total	213		

	Loyal	Satisfied	Recommend	Higher Price	Consider
Mann-Whitney U	889.000	920.000	548.500	2238.500	778.000
Wilcoxon W	6994.000	6806.000	6219.500	8454.500	6883.000
Z	-11.040	-11.351	-12.026	-8.129	-11.639
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

**Table A12.55 Individual Brand Loyalty dimensions mean scores (engage event-based v comparison sample respondents)**

Event Title		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Loyal	Ladies Bowls	110	.2182	.70881	.06758
	engage Postal	13	-.0769	.86232	.23916
Satisfied	Ladies Bowls	108	.1019	.38524	.03707
	engage Postal	14	.1429	.53452	.14286
Recommend	Ladies Bowls	106	.2264	.60605	.05886
	engage Postal	13	.0000	.81650	.22646
Higher Price	Ladies Bowls	111	.1351	.53063	.05037
	engage Postal	14	-.3571	1.15073	.30755
Consider	Ladies Bowls	110	.2182	.69575	.06634
	engage Postal	14	-.0714	1.26881	.33910

**Table A12.56 Mann-Whitney test Individual Brand Loyalty Dimensions (engage event-based v comparison respondents)**

Event Title		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Loyal	Ladies Bowls	110	62.83	6911.50
	engage Postal	13	54.96	714.50
	Total	123		
Satisfied	Ladies Bowls	108	61.02	6590.50
	engage Postal	14	65.18	912.50
	Total	122		
Recommend	Ladies Bowls	106	60.39	6401.50
	engage Postal	13	56.81	738.50
	Total	119		
Higher Price	Ladies Bowls	111	64.47	7156.00
	engage Postal	14	51.36	719.00
	Total	125		
Consider	Ladies Bowls	110	63.59	6994.50
	engage Postal	14	53.96	755.50
	Total	124		

	Loyal	Satisfied	Recommend	Higher Price	Consider
Mann-Whitney U	623.500	704.500	647.500	614.000	650.500
Wilcoxon W	714.500	6590.500	738.500	719.000	755.500
Z	-.978	-.801	-.543	-1.751	-1.349
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.328	.423	.587	.080	.177



**Table A12.57 ANOVA Brand Loyalty compared with Brand Associations and Perceived Quality (Potters)**

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Brand Associations	Between Groups	775.877	14	55.420	14.468	.000
	Within Groups	291.112	76	3.830		
	Total	1066.989	90			
Perceived Quality	Between Groups	805.028	14	57.502	19.885	.000
	Within Groups	213.983	74	2.892		
	Total	1019.011	88			

**Table A12.58 ANOVA Brand Loyalty compared with Brand Associations and Perceived Quality (engage event-based respondents)**

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Brand Associations	Between Groups	784.724	13	60.363	39.913	.000
	Within Groups	133.090	88	1.512		
	Total	917.814	101			
Perceived Quality	Between Groups	843.620	13	64.894	32.177	.000
	Within Groups	169.411	84	2.017		
	Total	1013.031	97			

**Table A12.59 ANOVA Brand Loyalty compared with Brand Associations and Perceived Quality (engage comparison sample respondents)**

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Brand Associations	Between Groups	121.617	5	24.323	9.539	.008
	Within Groups	15.300	6	2.550		
	Total	136.917	11			
Perceived Quality	Between Groups	118.917	5	23.783	35.675	.000
	Within Groups	4.000	6	.667		
	Total	122.917	11			

**Impact of Sponsorship Awareness among Comparison Sample**

**Table A12.60 Independent samples t-test engage Brand Equity Scores among comparison sample (aware v non-aware of engage sponsorship activity)**

Aware Sponsorship		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Brand Associations	Yes	11	1.3636	2.57964	.77779
	No	3	.6667	6.02771	3.48010
Brand Loyalty	Yes	10	.2000	3.08401	.97525
	No	2	-3.0000	8.48528	6.00000
Perceived Quality	Yes	11	.9091	1.70027	.51265
	No	3	-1.0000	6.55744	3.78594

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Brand Associations	Equal variances assumed	3.504	.086	.314	12	.759	.69697
	Equal variances not assumed			.195	2.204	.862	.69697
Brand Loyalty	Equal variances assumed	6.049	.034	1.041	10	.323	3.20000
	Equal variances not assumed			.526	1.053	.688	3.20000
Perceived Quality	Equal variances assumed	10.427	.007	.947	12	.362	1.90909
	Equal variances not assumed			.500	2.074	.665	1.90909



**Impact of Customer Status**

**Table A12.61 Independent Samples t-test Impact of customer status on Potters Brand Equity Scores**

Staying at Potters now		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Brand Associations	Yes, currently	60	13.7333	3.45855	.44650
	No	36	11.8611	3.23510	.53918
Perceived Quality	Yes, currently	61	11.4918	3.04753	.39020
	No	34	10.8824	2.33244	.40001
Brand Loyalty	Yes, currently	61	10.6557	3.91529	.50130
	No	35	8.8000	2.95854	.50008

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Brand Associations	Equal variances assumed	.308	.580	2.630	94	.010	1.87222
	Equal variances not assumed			2.674	77.767	.009	1.87222
Perceived Quality	Equal variances assumed	7.072	.009	1.012	93	.314	.60945
	Equal variances not assumed			1.091	83.900	.279	.60945
Brand Loyalty	Equal variances assumed	6.573	.012	2.432	94	.017	1.85574
	Equal variances not assumed			2.621	86.925	.010	1.85574

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## **Appendix 13**

### **Supplementary Tables: Norwich Union Grand Prix Athletics**



**Appendix 13 Supplementary Tables: Norwich Union Grand Prix Athletics**

The data presented here is supplementary to that presented in Chapter 6, thus no tables appearing elsewhere in the thesis are included in this appendix.

**Demographic Data**

**Table A13.1 Gender (Event-based and comparison sample respondents)**

			Sample Group		Total
			Event-based	Comparison	
Gender	Male	Count	104	87	191
		% within Sample Group	50.7%	61.7%	55.2%
	Female	Count	101	54	155
		% within Sample Group	49.3%	38.3%	44.8%
Total	Count		205	141	346
	% within Sample Group		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

**Table A13.2 Chi-Square Tests (Gender: Event-based v comparison sample respondents)**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.066 <sup>a</sup>	1	.044
Likelihood Ratio	4.087	1	.043
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.054	1	.044
N of Valid Cases	346		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 63.16.

Table A13.3 Age Categories (Event-based and comparison sample respondents)

			Sample Group		Total
			Event-based	Comparison	
Age	18-24	Count	18	22	40
		% within Sample Group	8.8%	15.6%	11.6%
	25-34	Count	41	14	55
		% within Sample Group	20.0%	9.9%	15.9%
	35-44	Count	46	22	68
		% within Sample Group	22.4%	15.6%	19.7%
	45-54	Count	36	47	83
		% within Sample Group	17.6%	33.3%	24.0%
	55-64	Count	47	26	73
		% within Sample Group	22.9%	18.4%	21.1%
	65+	Count	17	10	27
		% within Sample Group	8.3%	7.1%	7.8%
Total	Count	205	141	346	
	% within Sample Group	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

Table A13.4 Chi-Square Tests (Age: Event-based v comparison sample respondents)

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	20.295 <sup>a</sup>	5	.001
Likelihood Ratio	20.421	5	.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	.001	1	.981
N of Valid Cases	346		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 11.00.



Table A13.5 Household income before tax (Event-based and comparison sample respondents)

			Sample Group		Total
			Event-based	Comparison	
Household income before tax	Less than £10000	Count	15	7	22
		% within Sample Group	8.9%	6.1%	7.8%
	£10001 - £20000	Count	24	13	37
		% within Sample Group	14.3%	11.4%	13.1%
	£20001 - £30000	Count	35	22	57
		% within Sample Group	20.8%	19.3%	20.2%
	£30001 - £40000	Count	41	14	55
		% within Sample Group	24.4%	12.3%	19.5%
	£40001 - £50000	Count	21	16	37
		% within Sample Group	12.5%	14.0%	13.1%
	More than £50000	Count	32	42	74
		% within Sample Group	19.0%	36.8%	26.2%
Total	Count	168	114	282	
	% within Sample Group	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

Table A13.6 Chi-Square Tests (Income: Event-based v comparison sample respondents)

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	14.622 <sup>a</sup>	5	.012
Likelihood Ratio	14.763	5	.011
Linear-by-Linear Association	7.231	1	.007
N of Valid Cases	282		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.89.

Table A13.7 Norwich Union Customer Status (Event-based and comparison sample respondents)

			Sample Group		Total
			Event-based	Comparison	
Norwich Union Customer	Yes, currently	Count	63	50	113
		% within Sample Group	31.0%	36.5%	33.2%
	Yes, in the past	Count	46	37	83
		% within Sample Group	22.7%	27.0%	24.4%
	No	Count	94	50	144
		% within Sample Group	46.3%	36.5%	42.4%
Total	Count	203	137	340	
	% within Sample Group	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

Table A13.8 Chi Square Test (Customer status: event-based v comparison sample respondents)

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3.226 <sup>a</sup>	2	.199
Likelihood Ratio	3.245	2	.197
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.544	1	.111
N of Valid Cases	340		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 33.44.

Sponsorship Awareness

Table A13.9 Grand Prix Athletics title sponsor

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Norwich Union	195	94.7
	None	11	5.3
	Total	206	100.0



Table A13.10 Norwich Union sponsorship awareness (comparison sample)

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes	53	38.4
	No	85	61.6
	Total	138	100.0
Missing		3	
Total		141	

Table A13.11 Norwich Union sponsorship activity (comparison sample)

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Athletics	46	86.8
	Football	1	1.9
	Show Jumping	1	1.9
	None	5	9.4
	Total	53	100.0

a. Among respondents aware of some Norwich Union sponsorship

Brand Awareness

Table A13.12 Brand Awareness (Indoor and Outdoor Athletics sample groups)

			Event Title		Total
			Indoor Athletics	Outdoor Athletics	
Heard of Brand	Yes	Count	133	70	203
		% within Event Title	99.3%	97.2%	98.5%
	No	Count	1	2	3
		% within Event Title	.7%	2.8%	1.5%
Total		Count	134	72	206
		% within Event Title	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table A13.13 Chi-Square Tests (Brand name awareness: indoor v outdoor athletics samples)

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.347 <sup>a</sup>	1	.246
Likelihood Ratio	1.265	1	.261
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.340	1	.247
N of Valid Cases	206		

a. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5.  
The minimum expected count is 1.05.

Table A13.14 Brand Awareness (Event-based and comparison sample respondents)

			Sample Group		Total
			Event-based	Comparison	
Heard of Brand	Yes	Count	203	138	341
		% within Sample Group	98.5%	97.9%	98.3%
	No	Count	3	3	6
		% within Sample Group	1.5%	2.1%	1.7%
Total		Count	206	141	347
		% within Sample Group	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table A13.15 Chi-Square Tests (Brand awareness: event-based v comparison sample respondents)

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.222 <sup>a</sup>	1	.637
Likelihood Ratio	.218	1	.640
Linear-by-Linear Association	.221	1	.638
N of Valid Cases	347		

a. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5.  
The minimum expected count is 2.44.



Table A13.16 Chi-Square Tests (Product class associations: Event-based v comparison sample respondents)

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7.547 <sup>a</sup>	3	.056
Likelihood Ratio	7.756	3	.051
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.025	1	.311
N of Valid Cases	347		

a. 2 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5.  
The minimum expected count is 2.03.

Table A13.17 Product Class Associations (Indoor and Outdoor Athletics samples)

			Event Title		Total
			Indoor Athletics	Outdoor Athletics	
First Product Association	None	Count	8	3	11
		% within Event Title	6.0%	4.2%	5.3%
	Other	Count	1	0	1
		% within Event Title	.7%	.0%	.5%
	Other Financial Services	Count	17	17	34
		% within Event Title	12.7%	23.6%	16.5%
	Insurance	Count	108	52	160
		% within Event Title	80.6%	72.2%	77.7%
Total	Count		134	72	206
	% within Event Title		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table A13.18 Chi-Square Tests (Product class associations: indoor v outdoor athletics samples)

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.632 <sup>a</sup>	3	.201
Likelihood Ratio	4.813	3	.186
Linear-by-Linear Association	.136	1	.712
N of Valid Cases	206		

a. 3 cells (37.5%) have expected count less than 5.  
The minimum expected count is .35.

**Table A13.19 Hold opinion about Norwich Union brand (event-based sample)**

		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Agree	8	4.0	4.0
	Agree	64	32.2	36.2
	Neither agree nor disagree	106	53.3	89.4
	Disagree	15	7.5	97.0
	Totally Disagree	6	3.0	100.0
	Total	199	100.0	
Missing		7		
Total		206		

**Table A13.20 Hold opinion about Norwich Union brand (comparison sample)**

		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Agree	3	2.4	2.4
	Agree	39	31.7	34.1
	Neither agree nor disagree	49	39.8	74.0
	Disagree	26	21.1	95.1
	Totally Disagree	6	4.9	100.0
	Total	123	100.0	
Missing	Not Applicable	15		
		3		
	Total	18		
Total		141		



Table A13.21 Independent Samples t-test (Brand Opinion:  
Event-based v comparison sample respondents)

Sample Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Opinion	Event-based	199	1.1608	1.01716	.07210
	Comparison	138	.7101	1.24515	.10599

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Opinion	Equal variances assumed	18.708	.000	3.645	335	.000	.45066
	Equal variances not assumed			3.515	255.306	.001	.45066

Brand Associations

Table A13.22 Independent Samples t-test (Brand Associations: indoor v outdoor  
athletics samples)

Event Title		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Cumulative Brand Associations	Indoor Athletics	126	5.7302	3.84377	.34243
	Outdoor Athletics	68	5.7794	4.28411	.51952

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Cumulative Brand Associations	Equal variances assumed	.491	.484	-.082	192	.935	-.04925
	Equal variances not assumed			-.079	125.196	.937	-.04925

Table A13.23 Mann Whitney Test Cumulative Brand Associations (Event-based v comparison sample respondents)

EventRec		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Cumulative Brand Associations	Event-based	194	181.30	35172.50
	Comparison	133	138.76	18455.50
	Total	327		

	Cumulative Brand Associations
Mann-Whitney U	9544.500
Wilcoxon W	18455.500
Z	-4.013
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000

Table A13.24 Norwich Union as appropriate sponsor for athletics (event-based sample)

		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Agree	26	13.0	13.0
	Agree	102	51.0	64.0
	Neither agree nor disagree	69	34.5	98.5
	Disagree	2	1.0	99.5
	Totally Disagree	1	.5	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	
Missing		6		
Total		206		



Table A13.25 Individual Brand Associations mean scores (Event-based v comparison sample respondents)

Sample Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Trust	Event-based	203	1.3054	.88178	.06189
	Comparison	138	1.2971	.93909	.07994
Different	Event-based	199	.6884	.88387	.06266
	Comparison	136	.3824	1.00413	.08610
Reason to Buy	Event-based	202	.8564	.99460	.06998
	Comparison	137	.6058	1.05967	.09053
Distinctive Personality	Event-based	200	1.1200	1.00030	.07073
	Comparison	137	.7372	1.06599	.09107
Worse Value	Event-based	202	1.0000	.88661	.06238
	Comparison	136	.7868	.86417	.07410
User Image	Event-based	201	.7313	.96823	.06829
	Comparison	138	.2536	1.02567	.08731

Table A13.26 Mann Whitney Test Individual Brand Associations (Event-based v comparison samples)

	Sample Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Trust	Event-based	203	170.38	34587.50
	Comparison	138	171.91	23723.50
	Total	341		
Different	Event-based	199	179.03	35627.00
	Comparison	136	151.86	20653.00
	Total	335		
Reason to Buy	Event-based	202	178.89	36136.00
	Comparison	137	156.89	21494.00
	Total	339		
Distinctive Personality	Event-based	200	182.48	36495.50
	Comparison	137	149.32	20457.50
	Total	337		
Worse Value	Event-based	202	178.04	35964.00
	Comparison	136	156.82	21327.00
	Total	338		
User Image	Event-based	201	187.35	37657.50
	Comparison	138	144.73	19972.50
	Total	339		

	Trust	Different	Reason to Buy	Distinctive Personality	Worse Value	User Image
Mann-Whitney U	13881.50	11337.00	12041.00	11004.500	12011.000	10381.500
Wilcoxon W	34587.50	20653.00	21494.00	20457.500	21327.000	19972.500
Z	-.151	-2.800	-2.191	-3.229	-2.096	-4.176
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.880	.005	.028	.001	.036	.000



Perceived Quality

Table A13.27 Independent Samples t-test Cumulative Perceived Quality (indoor v outdoor athletics samples)

Event Title		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Cumulative Perceived Quality	Indoor Athletics	125	7.1680	4.03360	.36078
	Outdoor Athletics	66	7.5758	3.61220	.44463

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Cumulative Perceived Quality	Equal variances assumed	.552	.458	-.688	189	.492	-.40776
	Equal variances not assumed			-.712	145.666	.478	-.40776

Table A13.28 Mann Whitney Test Cumulative Perceived Quality Scores (Event-based v comparison samples)

Sample Group		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Cumulative Perceived Quality	Event-based	191	174.03	33240.00
	Comparison	136	149.91	20388.00
	Total	327		

	Cumulative Perceived Quality
Mann-Whitney U	11072.000
Wilcoxon W	20388.000
Z	-2.282
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.022

**Table A13.29 Individual Perceived Quality Dimensions mean scores  
(Event-based and comparison samples)**

	Sample Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
High Quality	Event-based	202	1.4406	.81585	.05740
	Comparison	138	1.4783	.90592	.07712
Respect	Event-based	202	1.4158	.91714	.06453
	Comparison	138	1.4058	.95625	.08140
Leader	Event-based	199	1.2261	.96615	.06849
	Comparison	137	.8978	1.03102	.08809
Popularity	Event-based	201	1.1194	.80974	.05711
	Comparison	137	.8394	.78809	.06733
Innovative	Event-based	201	.8955	.81488	.05748
	Comparison	138	.6957	.76041	.06473
Comparison with competitors	Event-based	198	1.0960	.83446	.05930
	Comparison	137	.9416	.83812	.07161



Table A13.30 Mann Whitney Test Individual Perceived Quality Dimensions (Event-based v comparison samples)

	EventRec	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
High Quality	Event-based	202	168.05	33947.00
	Comparison	138	174.08	24023.00
	Total	340		
Respect	Event-based	202	170.40	34421.50
	Comparison	138	170.64	23548.50
	Total	340		
Leader	Event-based	199	180.31	35882.00
	Comparison	137	151.34	20734.00
	Total	336		
Popularity	Event-based	201	181.84	36550.50
	Comparison	137	151.39	20740.50
	Total	338		
Innovative	Event-based	201	178.57	35892.00
	Comparison	138	157.52	21738.00
	Total	339		
Comparison with competitors	Event-based	198	174.63	34577.00
	Comparison	137	158.42	21703.00
	Total	335		

	High Quality	Respect	Leader	Popularity	Innovative	Comparison with competitors
Mann-Whitney U	13444.00	13918.50	11281.0	11287.50	12147.00	12250.00
Wilcoxon W	33947.00	34421.50	20734.0	20740.50	21738.00	21703.00
Z	-.602	-.024	-2.833	-2.998	-2.120	-1.597
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.547	.981	.005	.003	.034	.110

**Brand Loyalty**

**Table A13.31 Independent Samples t-test Cumulative Brand Loyalty Scores  
(indoor v outdoor athletics samples)**

Event Title		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Cumulative	Indoor Athletics	127	4.9055	4.59370	.40763
Brand Loyalty	Outdoor Athletics	69	4.7391	4.06800	.48973

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Cumulative	Equal variances assumed	1.337	.249	.252	194	.801	.16638
Brand Loyalty	Equal variances not assumed			.261	154.769	.794	.16638

**Table A13.32 Mann Whitney Test Cumulative Brand Loyalty Scores (Event-based v comparison samples)**

Event		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Cumulative	Event-based	196	178.39	34964.00
Brand	Comparison	136	149.37	20314.00
Loyalty	Total	332		

	Cumulative Brand Loyalty
Mann-Whitney U	10998.000
Wilcoxon W	20314.000
Z	-2.717
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.007



**Table A13.33 Individual Brand Loyalty Dimensions mean scores  
(Event-based and comparison samples)**

	Sample Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Loyal	Event-based	200	.6950	1.04279	.07374
	Comparison	138	.2101	1.25246	.10662
Satisfied	Event-based	200	1.1050	1.05334	.07448
	Comparison	137	1.1898	1.08826	.09298
Recommend	Event-based	201	.9154	.97356	.06867
	Comparison	137	.8321	1.09524	.09357
Intend to Purchase	Event-based	201	.8209	1.02848	.07254
	Comparison	138	.4638	1.05443	.08976
Higher Price	Event-based	201	-.1841	1.17514	.08289
	Comparison	137	-.6569	1.11433	.09520
Consider	Event-based	202	1.4653	1.02762	.07230
	Comparison	138	1.3261	1.06135	.09035

**Table A13.34 Mann Whitney Test Individual Brand Loyalty Dimensions (Event-based v comparison samples)**

	Sample Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Loyal	Event-based	200	182.73	36545.00
	Comparison	138	150.33	20746.00
	Total	338		
Satisfied	Event-based	200	165.47	33094.50
	Comparison	137	174.15	23858.50
	Total	337		
Recommend	Event-based	201	170.69	34309.00
	Comparison	137	167.75	22982.00
	Total	338		
Intend to Purchase	Event-based	201	182.25	36633.00
	Comparison	138	152.15	20997.00
	Total	339		
Higher Price	Event-based	201	184.81	37147.50
	Comparison	137	147.03	20143.50
	Total	338		
Consider	Event-based	202	175.34	35419.50
	Comparison	138	163.41	22550.50
	Total	340		

	Loyal	Satisfied	Recommend	Intend to Purchase	Higher Price	Consider
Mann-Whitney U	11155.00	12994.50	13529.000	11406.000	10690.500	12959.50
Wilcoxon W	20746.00	33094.50	22982.000	20997.000	20143.500	22550.50
Z	-3.185	-.848	-.286	-2.972	-3.676	-1.244
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.397	.775	.003	.000	.213



**Table A13.35 ANOVA Brand Loyalty compared with Brand Associations and Perceived Quality (Event-based sample)**

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Cumulative Brand Associations	Between Groups	1881.001	23	.81.783	12.631	.000
	Within Groups	1074.793	166	6.475		
	Total	2955.795	189			
Cumulative Perceived Quality	Between Groups	1649.041	22	74.956	11.280	.000
	Within Groups	1096.421	165	6.645		
	Total	2745.463	187			

**Table A13.36 Kruskal Wallis Test Brand Loyalty compared with Brand Associations and Perceived Quality (Event-based sample)**

	Cumulative Brand Associations	Cumulative Perceived Quality
Chi-Square	111.421	98.742
df	23	22
Asymp. Sig.	.000	.000

**Table A13.37 ANOVA Brand Loyalty compared with Brand Associations and Perceived Quality (comparison sample)**

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Cumulative Brand Associations	Between Groups	976.979	21	46.523	6.547	.000
	Within Groups	781.650	110	7.106		
	Total	1758.629	131			
Cumulative Perceived Quality	Between Groups	1310.960	22	59.589	10.239	.000
	Within Groups	651.810	112	5.820		
	Total	1962.770	134			

Table A13.38 Kruskal Wallis Test Brand Loyalty compared with Brand Associations and Perceived Quality (comparison sample)

	Cumulative Brand Associations	Cumulative Perceived Quality
Chi-Square	71.245	82.974
df	21	22
Asymp. Sig.	.000	.000

Impact of Customer Status

Table A13.39 Mann Whitney Test Impact of sponsorship on Brand Equity for customers

	Sample Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Cumulative Brand Associations	Event-based	57	61.30	3494.00
	Comparison	48	43.15	2071.00
	Total	105		
Cumulative Perceived Quality	Event-based	58	59.81	3469.00
	Comparison	49	47.12	2309.00
	Total	107		
Cumulative Brand Loyalty	Event-based	60	59.88	3593.00
	Comparison	48	47.77	2293.00
	Total	108		

	Cumulative Brand Associations	Cumulative Perceived Quality	Cumulative Brand Loyalty
Mann-Whitney U	895.000	1084.000	1117.000
Wilcoxon W	2071.000	2309.000	2293.000
Z	-3.055	-2.120	-2.007
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.034	.045



Table A13.40 Mann Whitney Test Impact of sponsorship on Brand Equity for non-customers

	Sample Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Cumulative Brand Associations	Event-based	45	47.56	2140.00
	Comparison	37	34.14	1263.00
	Total	82		
Cumulative Perceived Quality	Event-based	45	46.26	2081.50
	Comparison	37	35.72	1321.50
	Total	82		
Cumulative Brand Loyalty	Event-based	45	46.18	2078.00
	Comparison	37	35.81	1325.00
	Total	82		

	Cumulative Brand Associations	Cumulative Perceived Quality	Cumulative Brand Loyalty
Mann-Whitney U	560.000	618.500	622.000
Wilcoxon W	1263.000	1321.500	1325.000
Z	-2.555	-2.006	-1.969
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.011	.045	.049

Table A13.41 Individual Brand Loyalty Dimensions mean scores (Event-based and comparison sample Norwich Union customers)

	Sample Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Loyal	Event-based	61	1.3115	1.00898	.12919
	Comparison	50	.8000	1.22890	.17379
Satisfied	Event-based	61	1.9344	.70401	.09014
	Comparison	49	1.7551	1.05140	.15020
Recommend	Event-based	61	1.4098	1.05478	.13505
	Comparison	49	1.2653	1.18630	.16947
Intend to Purchase	Event-based	62	1.4355	1.06542	.13531
	Comparison	50	.9000	1.09265	.15452
Higher Price	Event-based	62	-.0806	1.29689	.16470
	Comparison	49	-.6531	1.19984	.17141
Consider	Event-based	62	1.6935	.95108	.12079
	Comparison	50	1.4400	1.07210	.15162

Table A13.42 Independent Samples t-test Individual Brand Loyalty Dimensions  
(Event-based v comparison sample Norwich Union customers)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Loyal	Equal variances assumed	.568	.453	2.408	109	.018	.51148
	Equal variances not assumed			2.362	94.538	.020	.51148
Satisfied	Equal variances assumed	6.011	.016	1.068	108	.288	.17932
	Equal variances not assumed			1.024	80.452	.309	.17932
Recommend	Equal variances assumed	.560	.456	.676	108	.501	.14453
	Equal variances not assumed			.667	97.020	.506	.14453
Intend to Purchase	Equal variances assumed	.430	.513	2.614	110	.010	.53548
	Equal variances not assumed			2.607	103.888	.010	.53548
Higher Price	Equal variances assumed	3.904	.051	2.386	109	.019	.57242
	Equal variances not assumed			2.408	106.270	.018	.57242
Consider	Equal variances assumed	.626	.430	1.325	110	.188	.25355
	Equal variances not assumed			1.308	98.926	.194	.25355



**Table A13.43 Individual Brand Loyalty Dimensions mean scores  
(Event-based and comparison sample Norwich Union non-customers)**

Sample Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Loyal	Event-based	94	.4043	.95399	.09840
	Comparison	50	-.2000	1.10657	.15649
Satisfied	Event-based	93	.3333	.64830	.06723
	Comparison	50	.2800	.60744	.08590
Recommend	Event-based	94	.5213	.71435	.07368
	Comparison	50	.3600	.89807	.12701
Intend to Purchase	Event-based	93	.4409	.84006	.08711
	Comparison	50	.0000	.94761	.13401
Higher Price	Event-based	93	-.2581	1.10240	.11431
	Comparison	50	-.7400	.96489	.13646
Consider	Event-based	94	1.3085	1.03723	.10698
	Comparison	50	1.2400	.95959	.13571

**Table A13.44 Independent Samples t-test Individual Brand Loyalty Dimensions  
(Event-based v comparison sample Norwich Union non-customers)**

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Loyal	Equal variances assumed	3.322	.070	3.421	142	.001	.60426
	Equal variances not assumed			3.269	88.143	.002	.60426
Satisfied	Equal variances assumed	.806	.371	.479	141	.632	.05333
	Equal variances not assumed			.489	106.182	.626	.05333
Recommend	Equal variances assumed	1.984	.161	1.177	142	.241	.16128
	Equal variances not assumed			1.098	82.602	.275	.16128
Intend to Purchase	Equal variances assumed	.066	.798	2.860	141	.005	.44086
	Equal variances not assumed			2.758	90.546	.007	.44086
Higher Price	Equal variances assumed	3.813	.053	2.601	141	.010	.48194
	Equal variances not assumed			2.707	112.419	.008	.48194
Consider	Equal variances assumed	.190	.663	.387	142	.699	.06851
	Equal variances not assumed			.396	107.045	.693	.06851



**Impact of Sponsorship Awareness among Comparison Sample**

**Table A13.45 Independent Samples t-test Norwich Union Brand Equity Scores among comparison sample (aware v non-aware of Norwich Union sponsorship)**

Aware of Sponsorship		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Cumulative Brand Association:	Yes	51	4.5098	3.57979	.50127
	No	82	3.6829	3.76100	.41533
Cumulative Perceived Quality	Yes	51	6.7255	4.19561	.58750
	No	85	5.9765	3.61537	.39214
Cumulative Brand Loyalty	Yes	51	3.5098	4.80155	.67235
	No	85	3.2471	4.51428	.48964

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Cumulative Brand Associations	Equal variances assumed	.001	.974	1.256	131	.212	.82688
	Equal variances not assumed			1.270	110.166	.207	.82688
Cumulative Perceived Quality	Equal variances assumed	.292	.590	1.101	134	.273	.74902
	Equal variances not assumed			1.060	93.437	.292	.74902
Cumulative Brand Loyalty	Equal variances assumed	.488	.486	.321	134	.749	.26275
	Equal variances not assumed			.316	100.305	.753	.26275

Sponsorship and Brand Preference

Table A13.46 Sponsorship Brand Image Change (indoor v outdoor athletics samples)

			Event Title		Total
			Indoor Athletics	Outdoor Athletics	
Sponsorship brand image change	Like a lot less	Count	1	0	1
		% within Event Title	.8%	.0%	.5%
	Like the same as before	Count	72	36	108
		% within Event Title	54.5%	52.2%	53.7%
	Like a little more	Count	40	18	58
		% within Event Title	30.3%	26.1%	28.9%
	Like a lot more	Count	19	15	34
		% within Event Title	14.4%	21.7%	16.9%
Total	Count	132	69	201	
	% within Event Title	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

Table A13.47 Choice of athletics sponsor over competitors (indoor v outdoor athletics samples)

			Event Title		Total
			Indoor Athletics	Outdoor Athletics	
Would choose sponsor over others	Totally Disagree	Count	5	2	7
		% within Event Title	3.9%	2.8%	3.5%
	Disagree	Count	17	11	28
		% within Event Title	13.2%	15.5%	14.0%
	Neither agree nor disagree	Count	66	27	93
		% within Event Title	51.2%	38.0%	46.5%
	Agree	Count	36	28	64
		% within Event Title	27.9%	39.4%	32.0%
	Totally Agree	Count	5	3	8
		% within Event Title	3.9%	4.2%	4.0%
Total	Count	129	71	200	
	% within Event Title	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	



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**Appendix 14**

**Supplementary Tables: Natwest Pro40 Cricket**

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Appendix 14 Supplementary Tables: Natwest Pro40 Cricket

The data presented here is supplementary to that presented in Chapter 7, thus no tables appearing elsewhere in the thesis are included in this appendix.

Demographic Data

Table A14.1 Gender (Event-based and comparison sample respondents)

			Sample Group		Total
			Cricket	Comparison	
Gender	Male	Count	76	44	120
		% within Sample Group	72.4%	43.1%	58.0%
	Female	Count	29	58	87
		% within Sample Group	27.6%	56.9%	42.0%
Total		Count	105	102	207
		% within Sample Group	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table A14.2 Chi-Square Tests (Gender: Event-based v comparison samples)

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	18.160 <sup>a</sup>	1	.000
Likelihood Ratio	18.448	1	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	18.073	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	207		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 42.87.



Table A14.3 Age (Event-based and comparison sample groups)

			Sample Group		Total
			Cricket	Comparison	
Age	18-24	Count	11	4	15
		% within Sample Group	10.4%	3.9%	7.2%
	25-34	Count	11	9	20
		% within Sample Group	10.4%	8.8%	9.6%
	35-44	Count	13	24	37
		% within Sample Group	12.3%	23.5%	17.8%
	45-54	Count	24	14	38
		% within Sample Group	22.6%	13.7%	18.3%
	55-64	Count	22	26	48
		% within Sample Group	20.8%	25.5%	23.1%
	65+	Count	25	25	50
		%,within Sample Group	23.6%	24.5%	24.0%
Total	Count	106	102	208	
	% within Sample Group	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

Table A14.4 Chi-Square Tests (Age: Event-based v comparison samples)

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	9.628 <sup>a</sup>	5	.086
Likelihood Ratio	9.837	5	.080
Linear-by-Linear Association	.686	1	.408
N of Valid Cases	208		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7.36.

Table A14.5 Household income before tax (Event-based v comparison sample respondents)

			Sample Group		Total
			Cricket	Comparison	
Household income before tax	Less than £10000	Count	10	5	15
		% within Sample Group	11.2%	6.4%	9.0%
	£10001 - £20000	Count	18	17	35
		% within Sample Group	20.2%	21.8%	21.0%
	£20001 - £30000	Count	16	12	28
		% within Sample Group	18.0%	15.4%	16.8%
	£30001 - £40000	Count	18	17	35
		% within Sample Group	20.2%	21.8%	21.0%
	£40001 - £50000	Count	11	16	27
		% within Sample Group	12.4%	20.5%	16.2%
	More than £50000	Count	16	11	27
		% within Sample Group	18.0%	14.1%	16.2%
Total	Count	89	78	167	
	% within Sample Group	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

Table A14.6 Chi-Square Tests (Income: Event-based v comparison samples)

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3.437 <sup>a</sup>	5	.633
Likelihood Ratio	3.467	5	.628
Linear-by-Linear Association	.342	1	.559
N of Valid Cases	167		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7.01.



Table A14.7 Natwest Customer Status (Event-based and comparison sample respondents)

			Sample Group		Total
			Cricket	Comparison	
Natwest Customer	Yes, currently	Count	28	27	55
		% within Sample Group	26.4%	26.5%	26.4%
	Yes, in the past	Count	16	14	30
		% within Sample Group	15.1%	13.7%	14.4%
	No	Count	62	61	123
		% within Sample Group	58.5%	59.8%	59.1%
Total	Count	106	102	208	
	% within Sample Group	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

Table A14.8 Chi-Square Tests (Customer status: Event-based v comparison)

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.083 <sup>a</sup>	2	.959
Likelihood Ratio	.083	2	.959
Linear-by-Linear Association	.011	1	.917
N of Valid Cases	208		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 14.71.

Sponsorship Awareness

Table A14.9 Pro40 Cricket title sponsor

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Natwest	64	60.4
	Friends Provident	4	3.8
	LV	2	1.9
	Brit	1	.9
	None	35	33.0
	Total	106	100.0

Table A14.10 Natwest sponsorship awareness (comparison sample)

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Yes	49	48.0
	No	53	52.0
	Total	102	100.0

Table A14.11 Natwest sponsorship activity (comparison sample)

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Cricket	43	87.8
	Football	2	4.1
	Sport	1	2.0
	Trophy	1	2.0
	None	2	4.1
	Total	49	100.0

a. Among respondents aware of some Natwest sponsorship

Brand Awareness

Table A14.12 Brand Awareness (Event-based and comparison sample respondents)

			Sample Group		Total
			Cricket	Comparison	
Heard of Brand	Yes	Count	106	102	208
		% within Sample Group	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	106	102	208
		% within Sample Group	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%



Table A14.13 Natwest Product Associations (Event-based and comparison sample respondents)

Count		Sample Group		Total
		Cricket	Comparison	
Product Associations	Financial Services	105	100	205
	Sponsorship	0	1	1
	None	1	1	2
Total		106	102	208

a. Banking and other financial services combined

Table A14.14 Chi-Square Tests: Natwest Product Associations (Event-based v comparison samples)

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.045 <sup>a</sup>	2	.593
Likelihood Ratio	1.431	2	.489
Linear-by-Linear Association	.135	1	.714
N of Valid Cases	208		

a. 4 cells (66.7%) have expected count less than 5.  
The minimum expected count is .49.

Table A14.15 Hold opinion about Natwest brand (Event-based respondents)

		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Agree	11	10.6	10.6
	Agree	23	22.1	32.7
	Neither agree nor disagree	60	57.7	90.4
	Disagree	4	3.8	94.2
	Totally Disagree	6	5.8	100.0
	Total	104	100.0	
Missing		2		
Total		106		

Table A14.16 Hold opinion about Natwest brand (comparison sample respondents)

		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Totally Agree	2	2.4	2.4
	Agree	31	37.3	39.8
	Neither agree nor disagree	29	34.9	74.7
	Disagree	16	19.3	94.0
	Totally Disagree	5	6.0	100.0
	Total	83	100.0	
Missing	Not Applicable	19		
Total		102		

Table A14.17 Independent Samples t-test Brand Opinion (Event-based v comparison samples)

Sample Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Opinion	Cricket	104	1.1827	1.13859	.11165
	Comparison	102	.6961	1.24907	.12368

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Opinion	Equal variances assumed	8.434	.004	2.923	204	.004	.48661
	Equal variances not assumed			2.921	201.483	.004	.48661



**Brand Associations**

**Table A14.18 Mann Whitney Test Cumulative Brand Associations  
(Event-based v comparison samples)**

	Sample Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Brand Associations	Cricket	99	107.93	10685.50
	Comparison	98	89.97	8817.50
	Total	197		

	Brand Associations
Mann-Whitney U	3966.500
Wilcoxon W	8817.500
Z	-2.218
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.027

**Table A14.19 Natwest as appropriate sponsor for cricket  
(Event-based respondents)**

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid    Totally Agree	18	17.0
Agree	58	54.7
Neither agree nor disagree	26	24.5
Disagree	2	1.9
Totally Disagree	2	1.9
Total	106	100.0

**Table A14.20 Individual Brand Associations mean scores (Event-based v comparison samples)**

	Sample Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Trust	Cricket	99	1.3131	1.17496	.11809
	Comparison	98	1.2959	.89913	.09083
Different	Cricket	99	.5556	1.10861	.11142
	Comparison	98	.3571	.97653	.09864
Reason to Buy	Cricket	99	.6465	1.11861	.11242
	Comparison	98	.5000	1.00770	.10179
Distinctive	Cricket	99	.8788	1.08112	.10866
	Comparison	98	.7347	1.08932	.11004
Worse Value	Cricket	99	.8889	1.00903	.10141
	Comparison	98	.7959	.90769	.09169
User Image	Cricket	99	.6566	1.05135	.10566
	Comparison	98	.1531	1.00875	.10190



Table A14.21 Mann Whitney Test Individual Brand Associations (Event-based v comparison samples)

	Sample Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Trust	Cricket	105	108.45	11387.50
	Comparison	101	98.35	9933.50
	Total	206		
Different	Cricket	102	109.04	11122.00
	Comparison	100	93.81	9381.00
	Total	202		
Reason to Buy	Cricket	105	110.20	11570.50
	Comparison	102	97.62	9957.50
	Total	207		
Distinctive	Cricket	106	110.95	11760.50
	Comparison	102	97.80	9975.50
	Total	208		
Worse Value	Cricket	104	107.82	11213.00
	Comparison	102	99.10	10108.00
	Total	206		
User Image	Cricket	104	115.32	11993.50
	Comparison	101	90.31	9121.50
	Total	205		

	Trust	Different	Reason to Buy	Distinctive	Worse Value	User Image
Mann-Whitney U	4782.500	4331.000	4704.500	4722.500	4855.000	3970.500
Wilcoxon W	9933.500	9381.000	9957.500	9975.500	10108.000	9121.500
Z	-1.287	-1.995	-1.632	-1.644	-1.113	-3.178
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.198	.046	.103	.100	.266	.001

**Perceived Quality**

**Table A14.22 Mann Whitney Test Cumulative Perceived Quality  
(Event-based v comparison samples)**

	Sample Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Perceived Quality	Cricket	104	110.51	11493.00
	Comparison	101	95.27	9622.00
	Total	205		

	Perceived Quality
Mann-Whitney U	4471.000
Wilcoxon W	9622.000
Z	-1.846
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.065

**Table A14.23 Individual Perceived Quality Dimensions mean scores  
(Event-based v comparison samples)**

	Sample Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
High Quality	Cricket	106	1.4245	1.04150	.10116
	Comparison	101	1.2574	.93438	.09297
Trust	Cricket	105	1.3429	1.17530	.11470
	Comparison	101	1.2574	.95555	.09508
Leader	Cricket	106	1.1698	1.09084	.10595
	Comparison	102	.9902	1.02923	.10191
Popularity	Cricket	106	.8019	1.03666	.10069
	Comparison	102	.6275	.81958	.08115
Innovative	Cricket	105	.7524	.96855	.09452
	Comparison	102	.5980	.84736	.08390
Comparison with Competitors	Cricket	106	.9057	.97129	.09434
	Comparison	102	.8333	.77182	.07642



**Table A14.24 Mann Whitney Test Individual Perceived Quality Dimensions (Event-based v comparison samples)**

	Sample Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
High Quality	Cricket	106	110.31	11692.50
	Comparison	101	97.38	9835.50
	Total	207		
Respect	Cricket	105	106.79	11212.50
	Comparison	102	101.13	10315.50
	Total	207		
Leader	Cricket	106	110.30	11692.00
	Comparison	102	98.47	10044.00
	Total	208		
Popularity	Cricket	106	111.29	11797.00
	Comparison	102	97.44	9939.00
	Total	208		
Innovative	Cricket	105	110.45	11597.50
	Comparison	102	97.36	9930.50
	Total	207		
Comparison with Competitors	Cricket	106	107.49	11393.50
	Comparison	102	101.40	10342.50
	Total	208		

	High Quality	Respect	Leader	Popularity	Innovative	Comparison with Competitors
Mann-Whitney U	4684.500	5062.500	4791.000	4686.000	4677.500	5089.500
Wilcoxon W	9835.500	10315.50	10044.00	9939.000	9930.500	10342.500
Z	-1.654	-.729	-1.493	-1.765	-1.674	-.777
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.098	.466	.135	.078	.094	.437

**Brand Loyalty**

**Table A14.25 Mann Whitney Test Cumulative Brand Loyalty Scores (Event-based v comparison samples)**

	Sample Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Brand Loyalty	Cricket	103	113.58	11698.50
	Comparison	98	87.78	8602.50
	Total	201		

	Brand Loyalty
Mann-Whitney U	3751.500
Wilcoxon W	8602.500
Z	-3.151
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.002

**Table A14.26 Individual Brand Loyalty Dimensions mean scores (Event--based v comparison samples)**

	Sample Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Loyal	Cricket	103	.6699	1.25548	.12371
	Comparison	98	.2347	1.23356	.12461
Satisfied	Cricket	103	.8641	1.12936	.11128
	Comparison	98	.6531	1.14965	.11613
Recommend	Cricket	103	.8544	1.14966	.11328
	Comparison	98	.4898	1.12374	.11351
Intend to Purchase	Cricket	103	.5049	1.17050	.11533
	Comparison	98	.2143	1.10528	.11165
Higher Price	Cricket	103	-.3883	1.19831	.11807
	Comparison	98	-.9082	.97480	.09847
Consider	Cricket	103	1.2136	1.19353	.11760
	Comparison	98	1.0510	1.22156	.12340



Table A14.27 Mann Whitney Test Individual Brand Loyalty Dimensions (Event-based v comparison samples)

	Sample Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Loyal	Cricket	105	115.34	12110.50
	Comparison	102	92.33	9417.50
	Total	207		
Satisfied	Cricket	106	110.07	11667.00
	Comparison	102	98.72	10069.00
	Total	208		
Recommend	Cricket	106	115.43	12236.00
	Comparison	102	93.14	9500.00
	Total	208		
Intend to Purchase	Cricket	106	112.36	11910.00
	Comparison	102	96.33	9826.00
	Total	208		
Higher Price	Cricket	105	115.44	12121.00
	Comparison	102	92.23	9407.00
	Total	207		
Consider	Cricket	105	106.03	11133.00
	Comparison	98	97.68	9573.00
	Total	203		

	Loyal	Satisfied	Recommend	Intend to Purchase	Higher Price	Consider
Mann-Whitney U	4164.500	4816.000	4247.000	4573.000	4154.000	4722.000
Wilcoxon W	9417.500	10069.00	9500.000	9826.000	9407.000	9573.000
Z	-2.851	-1.429	-2.771	-1.988	-2.937	-1.081
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	.153	.006	.047	.003	.280

Table A14.28 ANOVA Brand Loyalty compared with Brand Associations and Perceived Quality (Event-based respondents)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Brand Associations	Between Groups	1413.908	23	61.474	9.124	.000
	Within Groups	498.592	74	6.738		
	Total	1912.500	97			
Perceived Quality	Between Groups	2156.032	23	93.741	13.050	.000
	Within Groups	560.291	78	7.183		
	Total	2716.324	101			

**Table A14.29 Kruskal Wallis Test Brand Loyalty compared with Brand Associations and Perceived Quality (Event-based sample)**

	Brand Associations	Perceived Quality
Chi-Square	63.630	62.932
df	23	23
Asymp. Sig.	.000	.000

a. Grouping Variable: Brand Loyalty

**Table A14.30 ANOVA Brand Loyalty compared with Brand Associations and Perceived Quality (comparison sample respondents)**

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Brand Associations	Between Groups	979.537	21	46.645	6.294	.000
	Within Groups	533.622	72	7.411		
	Total	1513.160	93			
Perceived Quality	Between Groups	978.274	22	44.467	6.580	.000
	Within Groups	500.056	74	6.758		
	Total	1478.330	96			

**Table A14.31 Kruskal Wallis Test Brand Loyalty compared with Brand Associations and Perceived Quality (comparison sample)**

	Brand Associations	Perceived Quality
Chi-Square	57.960	60.842
df	21	22
Asymp. Sig.	.000	.000

a. Grouping Variable: Brand Loyalty



Impact of Customer Status

Table A14.32 Independent Samples t-test Impact of sponsorship on brand equity for Natwest customers (Event-based v comparison)

Sample Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Brand Associations	Cricket	25	8.0800	4.38672	.87734
	Comparison	26	5.9231	4.17539	.81886
Perceived Quality	Cricket	27	9.0741	5.19560	.99989
	Comparison	27	8.0741	2.40074	.46202
Brand Loyalty	Cricket	26	9.0769	5.21477	1.02270
	Comparison	26	5.7692	4.98243	.97714

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Brand Associations	Equal variances assumed	.009	.923	1.799	49	.078	2.15692
	Equal variances not assumed			1.797	48.612	.079	2.15692
Perceived Quality	Equal variances assumed	1.920	.172	.908	52	.368	1.00000
	Equal variances not assumed			.908	36.618	.370	1.00000
Brand Loyalty	Equal variances assumed	.451	.505	2.338	50	.023	3.30769
	Equal variances not assumed			2.338	49.896	.023	3.30769

**Table A14.33 Mann Whitney Test Impact of sponsorship on brand equity for Natwest customers (Event-based v comparison samples)**

	Sample Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Brand Associations	Cricket	25	30.28	757.00
	Comparison	26	21.88	569.00
	Total	51		
Perceived Quality	Cricket	27	31.67	855.00
	Comparison	27	23.33	630.00
	Total	54		
Brand Loyalty	Cricket	26	32.15	836.00
	Comparison	26	20.85	542.00
	Total	52		

	Brand Associations	Perceived Quality	Brand Loyalty
Mann-Whitney U	218.000	252.000	191.000
Wilcoxon W	569.000	630.000	542.000
Z	-2.030	-1.965	-2.703
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.042	.049	.007



Table A14.34 Independent Samples t-test Impact of sponsorship on brand equity for non-customers (Event-based v comparison samples)

	Sample Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Brand Associations	Cricket	59	4.1017	3.92470	.51095
	Comparison	59	2.8305	2.69836	.35130
Perceived Quality	Cricket	62	5.8387	4.43235	.56291
	Comparison	60	4.7167	3.11416	.40204
Brand Loyalty	Cricket	61	2.2131	4.01296	.51381
	Comparison	59	.2712	2.80290	.36491

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Brand Associations	Equal variances assumed	4.960	.028	2.050	116	.043	1.27119
	Equal variances not assumed			2.050	102.819	.043	1.27119
Perceived Quality	Equal variances assumed	3.113	.080	1.613	120	.109	1.12204
	Equal variances not assumed			1.622	109.616	.108	1.12204
Brand Loyalty	Equal variances assumed	2.268	.135	3.064	118	.003	1.94193
	Equal variances not assumed			3.081	107.499	.003	1.94193

Table A14.35 Mann Whitney Test Impact of sponsorship on brand equity for non-customers (Event-based v comparison)

	Sample Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Brand Associations	Cricket	59	66.75	3938.00
	Comparison	59	52.25	3083.00
	Total	118		
Perceived Quality	Cricket	62	67.77	4201.50
	Comparison	60	55.03	3301.50
	Total	122		
Brand Loyalty	Cricket	61	70.36	4292.00
	Comparison	59	50.31	2968.00
	Total	120		

	Brand Associations	Perceived Quality	Brand Loyalty
Mann-Whitney U	1313.000	1471.500	1198.000
Wilcoxon W	3083.000	3301.500	2968.000
Z	-2.314	-2.000	-3.175
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.021	.046	.001



**Table A14.36 Impact of sponsorship on individual brand loyalty elements mean scores for Natwest customers (Event-based v comparison sample)**

	Sample Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Loyal	Cricket	28	1.8571	1.04401	.19730
	Comparison	27	.7778	1.39596	.26865
Satisfied	Cricket	28	2.0714	.94000	.17764
	Comparison	27	1.5185	1.25178	.24091
Recommend	Cricket	28	1.8214	.94491	.17857
	Comparison	27	1.4074	1.04731	.20156
Intend to Purchase	Cricket	28	1.5000	1.10554	.20893
	Comparison	27	1.2963	.82345	.15847
Higher Price	Cricket	27	-.0370	1.40004	.26944
	Comparison	27	-.8148	1.11068	.21375
Consider	Cricket	27	1.9259	1.10683	.21301
	Comparison	26	1.6538	.97744	.19169

Table A14.37 Independent Samples t-test Impact of sponsorship on individual brand loyalty elements for Natwest customers (Event-based v comparison sample)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Loyal	Equal variances assumed	4.097	.048	3.255	53	.002	1.07937
	Equal variances not assumed			3.238	48.128	.002	1.07937
Satisfied	Equal variances assumed	3.706	.060	1.857	53	.069	.55291
	Equal variances not assumed			1.847	48.231	.071	.55291
Recommend	Equal variances assumed	1.612	.210	1.540	53	.129	.41402
	Equal variances not assumed			1.538	51.990	.130	.41402
Intend to Purchase	Equal variances assumed	1.080	.303	.773	53	.443	.20370
	Equal variances not assumed			.777	49.865	.441	.20370
Higher Price	Equal variances assumed	4.096	.048	2.261	52	.028	.77778
	Equal variances not assumed			2.261	49.442	.028	.77778
Consider	Equal variances assumed	.360	.551	.947	51	.348	.27208
	Equal variances not assumed			.949	50.630	.347	.27208



**Table A14.38 Impact of sponsorship on individual brand loyalty elements  
mean scores for non-customers (Event-based v comparison sample)**

	Sample Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Loyal	Cricket	61	.3934	.98790	.12649
	Comparison	61	.0000	.94868	.12147
Satisfied	Cricket	62	.4516	.66966	.08505
	Comparison	61	.2623	.62986	.08065
Recommend	Cricket	62	.6129	.94704	.12027
	Comparison	61	.1803	.71899	.09206
Intend to Purchase	Cricket	62	.1935	.98910	.12562
	Comparison	61	-.1639	.75675	.09689
Higher Price	Cricket	62	-.4677	1.12669	.14309
	Comparison	61	-.8689	.86555	.11082
Consider	Cricket	62	1.0161	.99987	.12698
	Comparison	59	.8644	1.15158	.14992

**Table A14.39 Independent Samples t-test Impact of sponsorship on individual brand loyalty elements for non-customers (Event-based v comparison sample)**

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Loyal	Equal variances assumed	1.853	.176	2.244	120	.027	.39344
	Equal variances not assumed			2.244	119.804	.027	.39344
Satisfied	Equal variances assumed	2.196	.141	1.614	121	.109	.18932
	Equal variances not assumed			1.615	120.757	.109	.18932
Recommend	Equal variances assumed	5.446	.021	2.850	121	.005	.43258
	Equal variances not assumed			2.856	113.725	.005	.43258
Intend to Purchase	Equal variances assumed	4.656	.033	2.249	121	.026	.35748
	Equal variances not assumed			2.253	114.112	.026	.35748
Higher Price	Equal variances assumed	10.945	.001	2.212	121	.029	.40111
	Equal variances not assumed			2.216	114.313	.029	.40111
Consider	Equal variances assumed	2.928	.090	.775	119	.440	.15172
	Equal variances not assumed			.772	114.861	.442	.15172