ASSESSING BRAND IMAGE TRANSFER IN SPONSORSHIP

by

ANDREA LEIGH MORRIS

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DECLARATION REGARDING PLAGIARISM

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ABSTRACT

Marketing literature has revealed that sponsorship is a key marketing communication tool used to break through promotional clutter. Sponsorship is a means by which marketing managers are able to transfer knowledge about organisational offerings to consumers and communicate how organisations are able to satisfy consumers' needs. Satisfying consumers' needs is a key philosophy of marketing, thus, it is an important objective for marketing managers to transfer knowledge to consumers about their need-satisfying capabilities. Research has shown that knowledge is transferred to consumers by first creating awareness of brands, then building consumers' knowledge of brands, and finally establishing and enhancing consumers' perceptions of brand image. According to marketing literature, the process of building brand awareness, brand knowledge and brand image ultimately contributes toward the enhancement of brand equity.

Previous research has shown that establishing brand awareness is an initial and crucial objective of sponsorship endeavours. Little research, however, has been done on the importance of brand image objectives and strategies in sponsorship. Researchers agree that brand image can be transferred between a sponsor brand and sponsored event, thereby enhancing the brand image of the respective parties. The purpose of this study was therefore to assess brand image transfer in sponsorship.

The research problem considered the question whether the brand image of sponsor brands is transferred to the brand image of sponsored events, and whether the brand image of sponsored events is transferred to the brand image of sponsor brands.

Fictitious brands were designed to assess the transfer of brand image, namely FruityBliss (sponsor brand) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (sponsored

event). Four brand image attributes were selected to assess the brand image of the sponsor brand and the brand image of the sponsored event. These included physical product and price (sponsor brand) and status and size (sponsored event). The four brand image attributes were manipulated in sixteen experiments and the brand image scores of the sponsor brand and sponsored event were subsequently measured.

Results of the study showed that brand image scores of the sponsor brand were significantly higher than the brand image scores of the sponsored event. It was therefore concluded that brand image transfer does occur from a sponsor brand to a sponsored event and vice versa. Furthermore, product and price appeared to have a greater influence on the brand image scores of the sponsor brand and the sponsored event, than did status and size of the sponsored event. It was thus concluded that although brand image transfer does occur from a sponsor brand to a sponsored event and vice versa, the sponsor brand is influenced more by the sponsorship than the sponsored event. In other words, a stronger brand image transfer takes place from a sponsored event to a sponsor brand than from a sponsor brand to a sponsored event.

From the research results, a number of recommendations were made. It was emphasised that organisations should make use of sponsorship as a means to break through promotional clutter. Sponsorship is an effective technique in enhancing brand images, and ultimately enhancing the brand equity of organisations. Organisations should therefore take careful consideration in developing sponsorship strategies; sponsor products should be affiliated with sponsored events and vice versa.

OPSOMMING

Bemarkingsliteratuur toon dat borgskap 'n belangrike bemarkingskommunikasie-instrument is om te midde van 'n warboel produkreklame 'n impak te hê op die uitbou van handelsmerkbeeld. Borgskap is 'n kommunikasiemetode waardeur bemarkingsbestuurders inligting oor bemarkingsaanbiedinge aan verbruikers oordra, oftewel aan verbruikers verduidelik hoe organisasies in hul behoeftes kan voorsien. Bevrediging van verbruikers se behoeftes is 'n belangrike filosofie van bemarking, dus, is dit 'n belangrike doelstelling vir bemarkingsbestuurders om kennis oor te dra aan verbruikers oor hulle behoefte-bevredigende vermoëns. Navorsing toon dat inligting eerstens aan verbruikers oorgedra word deur hulle bewus te maak van 'n handelsmerk; daarná hul kennis van die handelsmerk op te bou, en uiteindelik hul opvattings van die beeld van daardie handelsmerk vas te lê en te verbeter. Volgens bemarkingsliteratuur dra die opbouproses van handelsmerkbewustheid, handelsmerkkennis en 'n handelsmerkbeeld uiteindelik by tot die versterking van merkekwiteit.

Vorige navorsing dui aan dat die vestiging van handelsmerkbewustheid 'n aanvanklike en noodsaaklike doelwit van borgskap is. Tog is daar nog weinig navorsing gedoen oor die belang van handelsmerkbeelddoelwitte en –strategieë in borgskap. Navorsers is in eenstemming dat handelsmerkbeeld tussen 'n borg en 'n geleentheid oorgedra kan word, om só die handelsmerkbeeld van die onderskeie partye te versterk. Hierdie studie het ten doel gehad om sodanige handelsmerkbeeld-oordrag gedurende borgskap te beoordeel.

Die navorsingsprobleem het besin oor die vraag of die handelsmerkbeeld van borghandelsmerke na die handelsmerkbeeld van geborgde geleenthede oorgedra word, asook of die handelsmerkbeeld van geborgde geleenthede na die handelsmerkbeeld van die borghandelsmerke oorgedra word.

Fiktiewe handelsmerke, naamlik Fruitybliss (die borghandelsmerk) en die ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (die geborgde geleentheid), is ontwerp om handelsmerkbeeld-oordrag te bestudeer. Vier handelsmerkbeeld-eienskappe, naamlik fisiese produk en prys (borghandelsmerk) en status en grootte (geborgde geleentheid), is gekies om die handelsmerkbeeld van die borg en dié van die geleentheid te beoordeel. Die vier eienskappe is in sestien eksperimente gemanipuleer, waarna die handelsmerkbeeldtellings van die borghandelsmerk sowel as die geborgde geleentheid gemeet is.

Die studieresultate toon dat die borghandelsmerk beduidend hoër handelsmerkbeeldtellings as die geborgde geleentheid behaal het. Daar was afgelei dat handelsmerkbeeld wél van 'n borghandelsmerk na 'n geborgde geleentheid oorgedra word, én omgekeerd. Voorts het produk en prys van die borghandelsmerk oënskynlik 'n groter invloed op die handelsmerkbeeldtellings van die borghandelsmerk en die geborgde geleentheid gehad as die status en grootte van die geborgde geleentheid. Daaruit word afgelei dat, hoewel borgskap 'n tweerigting-oordrag tussen borghandelsmerk en geborgde geleentheid impliseer, die borgskap tog 'n groter invloed op die borghandelsmerk het as op die geborgde geleentheid. Handelsmerkbeeld-oordrag blyk dus om sterker te wees vanaf 'n geborgde geleentheid na 'n borghandelsmerk, as van 'n borghandelsmerk na 'n geborgde geleentheid.

'n Aantal aanbevelings kan op grond van die studie gedoen word. Onder meer word beklemtoon dat organisasies borgskap moet aanwend om te midde van 'n warboel produkreklame 'n impak te hê op die uitbou van handelsmerkbeeld, om sodoende uiteindelik merkekwiteit te verbeter. Daarbenewens word voorgestel dat borgskap gebruik word om die handelsmerkbeeld van organisasies te bou en te versterk. Organisasies moet dus noukeurig oorweeg tydens die ontwikkeling van borgskap strategieë; borg produkte moet geaffilieer word met geborgde geleenthede én omgekeerd.

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"Perseverance must finish its work so that you may be mature and complete, not lacking anything" James 1:4.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

"Sponsorship is a good thing. It works. Especially when the association is with sport" (Pitta, Guesalaga and Marshall, 1998:135). This quotation provides a reflection of the theme for this study. This chapter commences with an introduction to the background of this study. Thereafter, the research design implemented to achieve the purposes of this study is presented, followed by a brief orientation to the rest of the study.

1.2 MARKETING

The most prevalent business management functions identified in organisations include purchasing, production, human resources, public relations, finance, information and marketing (Bosch, Tait and Venter, 2006). A key objective of business management is to generate income. Income is derived mainly from consumers. According to Lamb, Hair, McDaniel, Boshoff and Terblanche (2004:23), consumers are willing to pay for products if the product promises to satisfy their needs and wants. "Marketing" is a philosophy whereby all activities in organisations are based around the needs and wants of consumers (Grönroos, 1989:52). According to the American Marketing Association (2007), marketing may be defined as "the activity, set of institutions, and processes for creating, communicating, delivering, and exchanging offerings that contain value for consumers, clients, partners, and society at large". The marketing task is a key value-adding function within organisations.

The marketing process represents the set of activities used to implement the philosophy of consumer satisfaction (Lamb *et al.,* 2004:23). These activities include understanding the mission of the organisation, determining the objectives of the organisation, conducting a situational and environmental analysis, designing a marketing approach, implementing the marketing approach, designing the marketing performance measures and evaluating the marketing efforts, and altering the approaches if necessary.

Designing and implementing a marketing approach involves the consideration of the so-called "four Ps". The four Ps are collectively referred to as the "marketing mix", which is described as a "toolkit of transaction marketing" (Constantinides, 2006:408). These tools have been classified into four groups, namely product, price, place and promotion. Organisations may align the marketing mix toolkit to achieve marketing objectives. One such objective is building strong brands.

1.3 BRANDING

A brand, according to the American Marketing Association (AMA), is a "name, term, sign, symbol, or design, or a combination of them", used to distinguish between the goods and services of one organisation and those of the competition (Keller, 2003:3). Marketing managers should manage brands so as to avoid consumer confusion with other competing brands, in other words to break through organisational clutter.

Establishing brand awareness amongst consumers is an initial and crucial step in building strong brands (Gerber and Boshoff, 2008; Ye and Van Raaij, 2004). Brand awareness relates to the strength of a brand's presence in consumers' minds (Aaker, 1996) and refers to the extent and ease with which consumers recall the brand and can recognise the products and services with which the brand is associated (Keller, 2003; Macdonald and Sharp, 2003). Chen (2001:431) states that building brand awareness, although a necessary

component of building brands, is not sufficient for building strong brands. Keller (2003) states that consumers need to somehow acquire knowledge about brands in order for brand-building approaches to be successful.

Researchers agree that there are two kinds of consumer knowledge, namely knowledge about consumers and knowledge possessed by consumers (Moreau, Lehmann and Markman, 2001). Knowledge about consumers involves knowledge about potential consumers and consumer segments, as well as knowledge about individual consumers. Knowledge possessed by consumers involves their knowledge about product ranges as well as the wider context and marketplace into which products and services are delivered (Rowley, 2002).

Managing consumers' brand knowledge is one of the key challenges marketing managers face. The use of knowledge is being increasingly perceived as a basis for competitive advantage and a means by which organisations can achieve increased consumer satisfaction (Gho, 2002). In other words, marketing managers can use brand knowledge as a branding tactic to achieve their organisational goals which involve satisfying consumers' needs.

Prior knowledge obtained from stimuli influences consumers' perceptions of the relative advantages and risks of a brand. Moreau *et al.* (2001) state that knowledge is expected to have the most significant influence on consumers' perceptions. Marketing managers should therefore design branding tactics with the understanding that consumers' perceptions are influenced by their brand knowledge acquired from projected stimuli. Therefore, marketing managers need to understand how knowledge transfer transpires.

1.4 KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER

Consumers learn about brands through the transferral of knowledge from various stimuli projected by marketing managers (Moreau *et al.,* 2001). This learning

occurs through a series of stages, including knowledge access, knowledge mapping and knowledge transfer. In the knowledge access stage, existing knowledge about organisational offerings serves as a source of information and becomes active in consumers' minds. Consumers then compare the content and structure of their existing knowledge with the brand they are assessing. In this comparison it is the goal to map elements in the target domain (the organisational offering in question). These so-called "knowledge mappings" then serve as paths on which additional knowledge can transfer from previous sources to the current knowledge about the organisational offering (Moreau *et al.*, 2001).

Within the knowledge transfer process, consumers align their previous knowledge obtained through various stimuli with the brand in question. This previous knowledge stems from consumers' brand awareness. Once consumers are made aware of brands, and organisations have successfully transferred knowledge to consumers about the brands, consumers are able to develop perceptions of brands (Gho, 2002, Moreau *et al.*, 2001; Rowley, 2002) which results in enhancing the value of their brands in the form of establishing brand images in consumers' minds.

Brand image refers to the perceptions about a brand as reflected by the brand associations and attributes held in memory (Keller, 1993). Researchers concur that brand image is composed of numerous associations. These associations are each composed of attributes. Attributes can be either functional/product related or emotional/non-product related (Keller, 1993). Furthermore, functional attributes are composed of consumers' perceptions of the physical product attributes and physical packaging of the product, whilst emotional attributes are composed of consumers' perceptions of price, of user characteristics of the product and of the product usage situations (Biel, 1992; Keller, 1993; Chen, 2001).

Therefore, building strong brands involves firstly establishing brand awareness, then transferring knowledge about the brand to consumers, and thereafter creating and managing perceived brand images. Building strong brands can be viewed as enhancing organisations' brand equity (see Figure 1.1). Researchers agree that the most important organisational asset is brand equity (Blatch, 2002). Brand equity is the result of consumers' response to their knowledge of a specific brand (Aaker, 1996; Keller, 2003). A fundamental objective of marketing managers is to enhance organisational brand equity by building strong brands through knowledge transfer (as illustrated in Figure 1.1).

Figure 1.1 Building strong brands in marketing
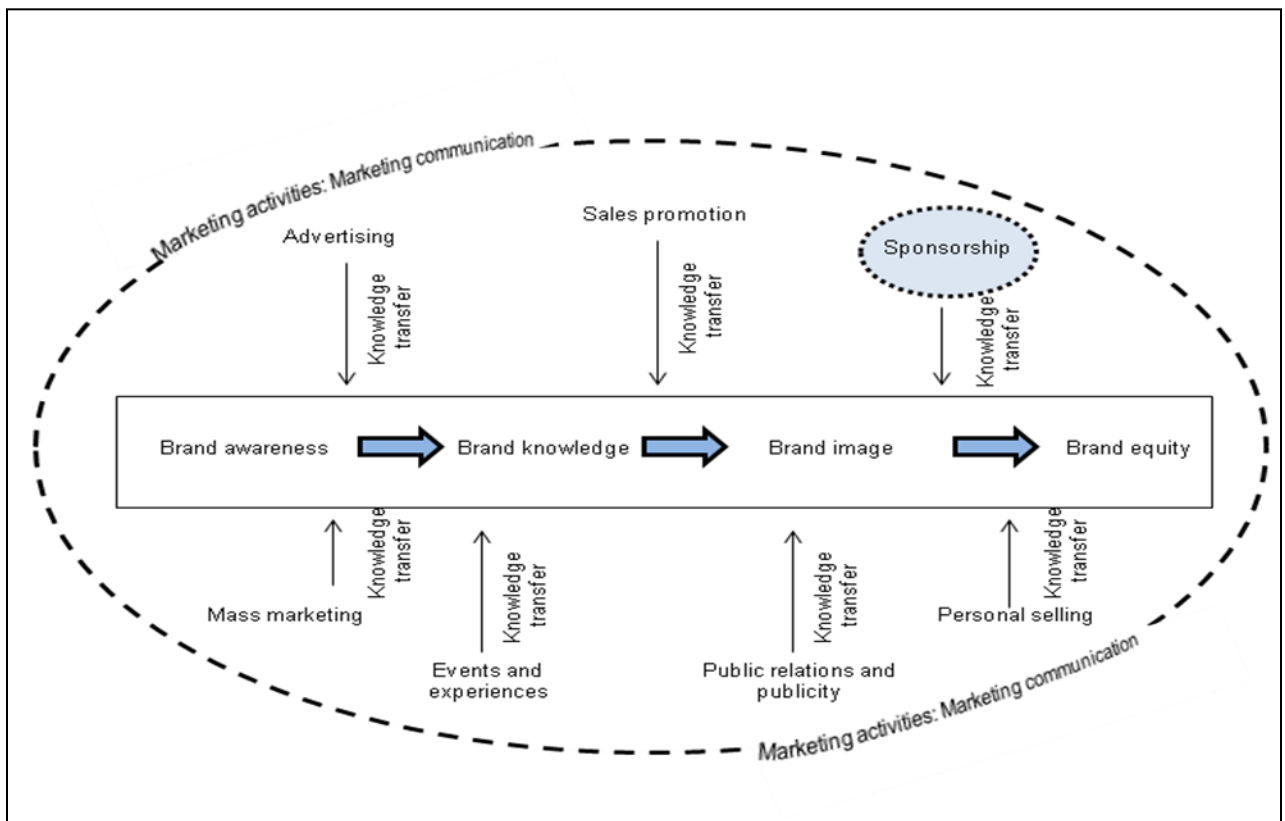
Source: Adapted from Kotler and Keller (2006:536)

As demonstrated in Figure 1.1, consumers acquire knowledge about brands through various means of marketing communication (stimuli) from the associated organisation and marketing managers. Marketing communication may take on numerous formats. Advertising, sales promotions, events and experiences,

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public relations and publicity, personal selling, direct marketing and sponsorship are considered a part of the marketing communication programme, which are marketing activities implemented by marketing managers to raise consumers' awareness of brands, establish consumers' knowledge of brands (Kotler and Keller, 2006:536) and ultimately enhance brand images in consumers' minds. The marketing communication programme therefore is also used as a knowledge-transfer facilitator between organisations and consumers.

Gardner and Shuman (1986:16) confirm the impact of an appropriate marketing communication strategy by referring to sponsorship as a marketing communication tool, which may, if executed correctly, establish brand awareness, and enhance brand image, as well as contribute in achieving financial and non-financial goals of organisations (Shimp, 2010). It has been determined that there are numerous forms of marketing communication which may have an influence on brand awareness, brand knowledge and brand image. These influences contribute to the enhancement of organisations' brand equity, which is important in achieving competitive advantage and financial goals (Keller, 1993). One form of marketing communication which has had an influence on brand knowledge transfer in previous cases, is sponsorship.

1.5 SPONSORSHIP

Sponsorship is a popular marketing communication tool that is used by marketing managers to communicate with consumers. Sponsorship can be defined as a marketing activity whereby organisations obtain the rights to use a company, product or brand name and logo by contractually granting monetary and other support to the organisation (Lamb *et al.*, 2004:446). Sponsorship has proved successful in breaking through the clutter of traditional forms of communication such as television advertising, radio advertising and magazine advertising (Gardner and Shuman, 1986). Sponsorship is a unique marketing communication tool as it provides a medium by which marketing managers are

able to work closely with their targeted consumers. Messages may be delivered to the wrong consumers if traditional forms of marketing communication are used by brand managers. By using sponsorship, brand managers are able to reach their targeted consumers, and not waste their marketing communication budgets on irrelevant consumers.

Sponsorship may be used to create and enhance the awareness of a brand, and facilitate brand knowledge transfer as well as to create and enhance the image of a brand or event (Grohs, Wagner and Vsetecka, 2004; Moreau *et al.*, 2001). Figure 1.2 is a portrayal of the role of sponsorship in building strong brands through establishing brand awareness, brand knowledge and brand image.

Figure 1.2 Brand awareness, brand knowledge and brand image
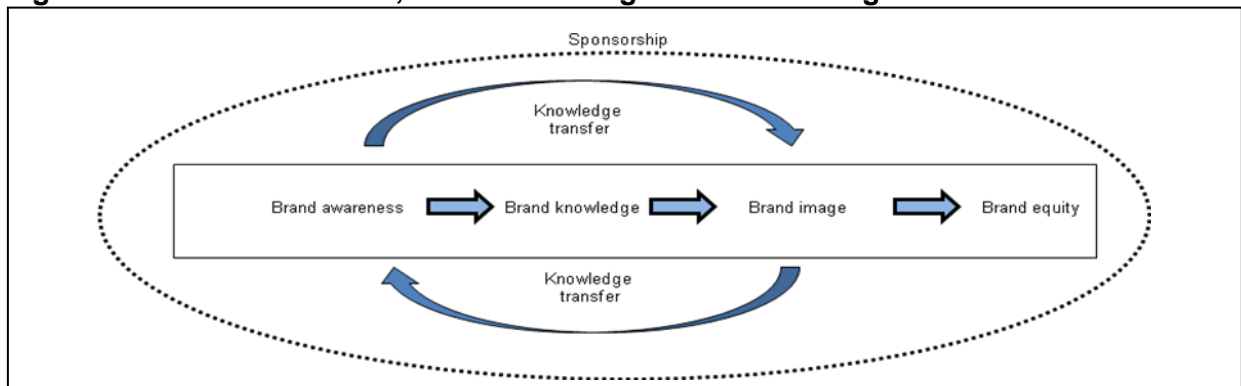
Source: Adapted from Keller (1993)

Many organisations use sponsorship simply to create awareness for their brands, as this is the most straightforward, visible objective of sponsorship. Once awareness is achieved, marketing managers often feel that "the job is done" and end the sponsorship (Gwinner and Eaton, 1999). Marketing managers often do not realise that they are able to use the sponsorship further and work with the sponsored party in order to create and enhance their brand images through knowledge transfer.

A sponsorship relationship entails two-way communication and contributions between the parties involved (Duncan and Moriarty, 1998). Thus, a sponsorship

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cannot be assumed to work in only one direction (creating or enhancing a brand image) from the sponsor. A sponsorship can also be used to create or enhance the brand image of the party (event) being sponsored. Therefore, it is proposed that sponsorship facilitates brand image transfer from a sponsor brand to a sponsored event, and from a sponsored event to a sponsor brand (see Figure 1.3).

Figure 1.3 Brand image transfer in sponsorship
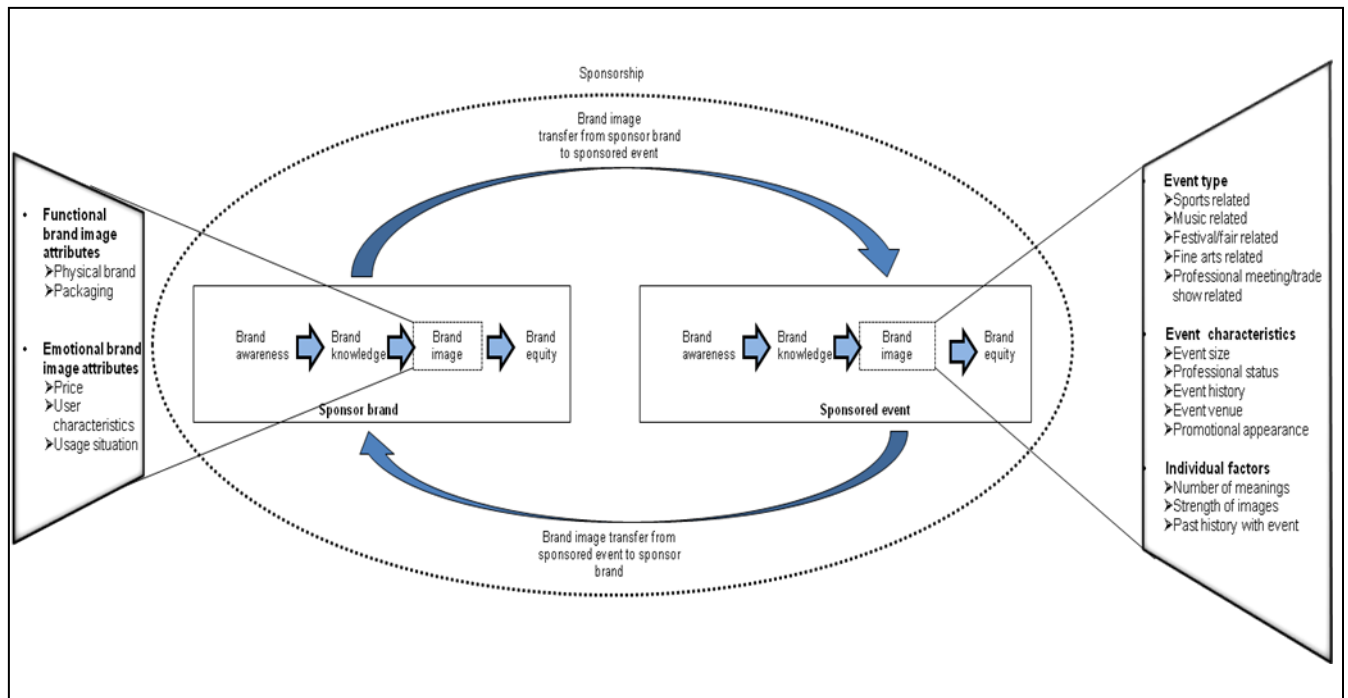
Source: Adapted from Gwinner (1997:148)

Gwinner (1997:148) identified three factors which may impact consumers' perceptions of an event. As illustrated in Figure 1.3, the event image attributes which may impact consumers' perceptions of an event include event type, event characteristics and individual factors. These three factors shape the brand image of an event as perceived by the spectator. The "event type" refers to whether the event is sport-related, culture-related, charity-related or otherwise-related. The "event characteristics" refer to the event size, the professional status of the participants in the event, the venue where the event is to take place and the

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promotional appearance of the event. Finally, the "individual factors" refer to the number of images associated with the event, the strength of these images and the past history of the event.

As stated, sponsorship may be used by organisations to create and enhance the image of a sponsor brand. From the brief discussion on the attributes of brand image, it is proposed that if a sponsorship can indeed be used to build brand awareness, generate brand knowledge, and to create and enhance the image of a brand, then the sponsorship should somehow affect the perceptions of the physical attributes, the packaging, the price, the user characteristics and the usage situation of the sponsor product, and thereby facilitate knowledge transfer. Similarly, it has been explained that sponsorship may also be used by organisations to create and enhance the brand image of a sponsored event. From the brief discussion on the factors contributing to event brand image, it is proposed that if a sponsorship can be used to build brand awareness, generate brand knowledge, and create and enhance the brand image of an event, then the sponsorship should somehow affect the perceptions of the event type, event characteristics and individual factors of the sponsored event, and thereby facilitate knowledge transfer.

In theory, as already discussed, a sponsorship can create and enhance the respective images of a sponsor brand and a sponsored event through knowledge transfer. However, little research has been conducted to validate this theory (Smith, 2004). Thus, research was conducted to determine whether the brand image of a sponsor brand is transferred to the brand image of a sponsored event and vice versa, thereby creating and enhancing the images of a sponsor brand and the sponsored event respectively.

1.6 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Marketing is a function in organisations which matches organisations' goals and objectives with consumers' needs and expectations. The marketing function has become increasingly understood and respected amongst marketing managers, leading to clutter in the market place. Marketing managers use branding as a tactic to break through this clutter and achieve a competitive advantage. Marketing communication is one of the techniques used to build strong brands. Consumers acquire knowledge about a brand through the marketing communication efforts of the organisation. One form of marketing communication which also builds a brand is sponsorship. Sponsorship is a popular marketing communication tool that is used by marketing managers to create and enhance the awareness of a brand, as well as to create and enhance the image of a brand (or event).

Many organisations use sponsorship merely to create awareness for their brands, but, in doing so, do not realise that they are able to extract more value from the sponsorship by creating and enhancing their brand images. Little research has been conducted which demonstrates the validity that sponsorship is useful in creating and enhancing brand image (Gwinner and Eaton, 1999). The purpose of this study was to empirically assess brand image transfer between a sponsor brand and a sponsored event.

1.7 OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH

The primary objective of this study was to assess the brand image transfer between a sponsor brand and a sponsored event. The secondary objectives of this study therefore included the following:

- Assess the brand image transfer from a sponsor brand to a sponsored event.

- Assess the brand image transfer from a sponsored event to a sponsor brand.

1.8 METHODOLOGY

Secondary research, which is research collected for some other purpose than the study at hand (Zikmund and Babin, 2007:160), was conducted in the form of a literature review. Literature on the topics of sponsorship and brand image is presented in Chapters 1, 2, 3 and 4.

1.8.1 PRIMARY RESEARCH

The primary research method which was used in this study was an experimental research design. Experimental research allows a researcher to control the research situation so that causal relationships among variables may be evaluated. The marketing experimenter manipulates one or more independent variables and holds constant all other possible independent variables while observing the effects on a dependent variable (Zikmund and Babin, 2007:256). A 2 x 2 x 2 x 2 full factorial design (discussed in detail in Chapter 5) was used for the purposes of this study.

1.8.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

As a full factorial experimental design was applied in this study, it was necessary to scale down and select brand image attributes which were best suited for the research design. As part of the research design, it was necessary to create a fictitious sponsor brand (FruityBliss) and a fictitious sponsored event (the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge), and thereafter assess the brand images and brand image transfer between the two parties (discussed in detail in Chapter 5). An appropriate sponsor brand was created by using perceptions of the quality of the physical product and price. Similarly, an appropriate sponsored event was created by using perceptions of the size of an event and the status of the

participants in an event. Quality perceptions of the physical product and price of the sponsor brand, and quality perceptions of the status and size of the sponsored event were manipulated in order to assess the perceived brand images of the sponsor brand and sponsored event respectively. Posters were used to manipulate the respective qualities of the sponsor brand and sponsored event. Respondents were exposed to the posters and then requested to answer a questionnaire.

1.8.3 MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENT

In this study, the respondents' perceptions of the brand images of the sponsor brand and the sponsored event were assessed with a questionnaire. The questionnaire was comprised of structured questions only. The scale questions were five-point multiple-item Likert scale questions. Pre-determined scales used to measure quality perceptions of products (discussed in detail in Chapter 5) were adapted in order to assess the quality perceptions of the selected sponsor brand and the sponsored event.

1.8.4 SAMPLING

The target population for this study included shoppers in LSM groups 8 to 10. For the purposes of this study, non-probability judgement and convenience sampling was executed in a field experiment. Non-probability sampling was best suited for this study, because the population was a homogenous population (Diamantopoulous and Schlegelmilch, 2009) in that they were all shoppers in LSM groups 8 to 10. The sample size for this study was 442 shoppers. Klemz (2008:1) states that for a factorial experiment, a minimum number of 24 respondents for each cell (experimental group) is required. Sixteen experiments were conducted to assess each manipulation of quality for the sponsor brand and sponsored event. One of the experiments was repeated as a control group to test for reliability of the study. For each experiment, 26 respondents were surveyed. Thus, the total sample size including the control group was 442. These

442 respondents represented the population according to race, age, home language and region. Only young adults were used, as they represented LSM groups 8 to 10 (discussed in detail in Chapter 5).

1.8.5 DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

A research company, namely *Interserv Market Research* was responsible for gathering the data in Johannesburg. The fieldworkers were required to first screen the respondents to ensure that they fell within the appropriate LSM groups. The fieldworkers then administered the questionnaires. The questionnaire took six to eight minutes to complete. Thereafter, the questionnaires were collected. The researcher was not present while the respondents completed the questionnaires - so as to avoid interviewer bias. After the questionnaires were completed, the data was cleaned, coded and analysed in two statistical programmes, namely SPSS version 18 and Statistica. The data results were reported and conclusions and recommendations were drawn.

1.9 ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

This chapter was designed to familiarise the reader with the theme and purpose of this study. The purpose of this study was to assess brand image transfer in sponsorship. An empirical study was conducted to assess the brand image transfer between a fictitious brand and a fictitious sporting event, namely FruityBliss fruit juice and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge.

Chapter 2 is dedicated to discussing the background of the marketing construct. Chapter 3 addresses various issues pertaining to branding. Chapter 4 addresses sponsorship as a marketing communication tool. Chapter 5 provides a detailed discussion of how the brand image transfer of FruityBliss fruit juice and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge was empirically assessed. Chapter 6 involves the data analyses and data description of the results obtained through the empirical

testing. Finally, Chapter 7 amalgamates the findings of this particular study, providing recommendations for marketing managers and suggesting further areas of research regarding brand image transfer in sponsorship.

CHAPTER 2

MARKETING AS A FIELD WITHIN BUSINESS MANAGEMENT

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Business management dates back roughly 100 years. Although the origins of business management may be traced back to the medieval ages, the actual business management discipline came into being after the Industrial Revolution (Cronje, DuToit, Marais and Motlatla, 2004). The Industrial Revolution was marked by a growth in population as well as living standards. With this growth, came an increased demand for products. Organisations realised that they could not rely on experience alone, but needed to develop a professional management discipline to determine how organisations should best be managed - thus, the birth of business management.

The task of business management is to establish how organisations can achieve the highest possible output such as products or services, with the least possible input such as labour, capital and land in order to maximise profits (Cronje *et al.*, 2004:25). There are various business management functions which serve to achieve these highest possible outputs by executing activities within organisations. The most common business management functions identified include purchasing, production, human resources, public relations, finance and information and marketing (Bosch *et al.*, 2006).

This chapter deals with the marketing function within the business management context. Four marketing function tactics, namely market segmentation, target marketing, positioning and the marketing mix are discussed. The chapter

concludes with a brief overview of the positioning, and marketing-mix tactics through which branding and sponsorship are theoretically linked.

2.2 THE MARKETING FUNCTION

Organisations consist of a collection of activities (referred to as "functions") performed in the process of designing, producing, marketing, delivering and supporting products or services which ultimately create value for organisations (Hough, 2008:120). As stated, the most common business management functions identified within organisations include purchasing, production, human resources, public relations, finance, information and marketing (Bosch *et al.*, 2006). "Marketing" is defined as a philosophy in which all activities within organisations are based around the needs and wants of consumers (Grönroos, 1989:52). Lamb *et al.* (2004:5) separate the definition of marketing into two sections. Firstly, marketing is a philosophy of satisfying consumers. Secondly, marketing is a set of activities used to implement the philosophy of satisfying consumers. Thus, the marketing function is an accumulation of activities which contribute value to organisations by focusing on consumer satisfaction.

As illustrated in Figure 2.1, Porter's value chain (1985:37) conceptualises the business management functions within organisations which are essential in gaining any real competitive advantage. The value chain is regarded as a combination of primary and support functions. Primary functions include inbound logistics, operations, outbound logistics, marketing and sales, and service. Support functions include organisation infrastructure, human resource management, technology development and procurement. As illustrated in Figure 2.1, Porter's value chain incorporates these business functions and emphasises marketing as an important business management function.

Primary activities are foremost in creating value for consumers. The support activities facilitate and enhance the performance of the primary activities.

Marketing is regarded as a primary function within the organisation and is an important dimension of the value chain (Coyle, Bardi and Langley, 2003:15). The importance of the marketing function is emphasised by Lamb *et al.* (2004:27) who mention that a basic understanding of the marketing function is important to all employees and all business individuals across all organisational functions and not merely the marketing department. Many other primary and support functions include an element of marketing by aiming to satisfy consumers (Grönroos, 1989:55). Lamb *et al.* (2004:7) state that the marketing function contributes directly to achieving the objectives of organisations. Marketing capabilities in an organisation, if implemented correctly, are immune to competition and competitive threats (Krasnikov and Jayachandran, 2008:8). Grönroos (1989:52) states that marketing, or rather, the philosophy of consumer satisfaction will result in the success and profitability of organisations. Thus, the marketing function is a key value-adding function within organisations, which focuses on consumer satisfaction, which ultimately leads to organisations' profitability and competitiveness in markets.

Figure 2.1 Organisational value chain
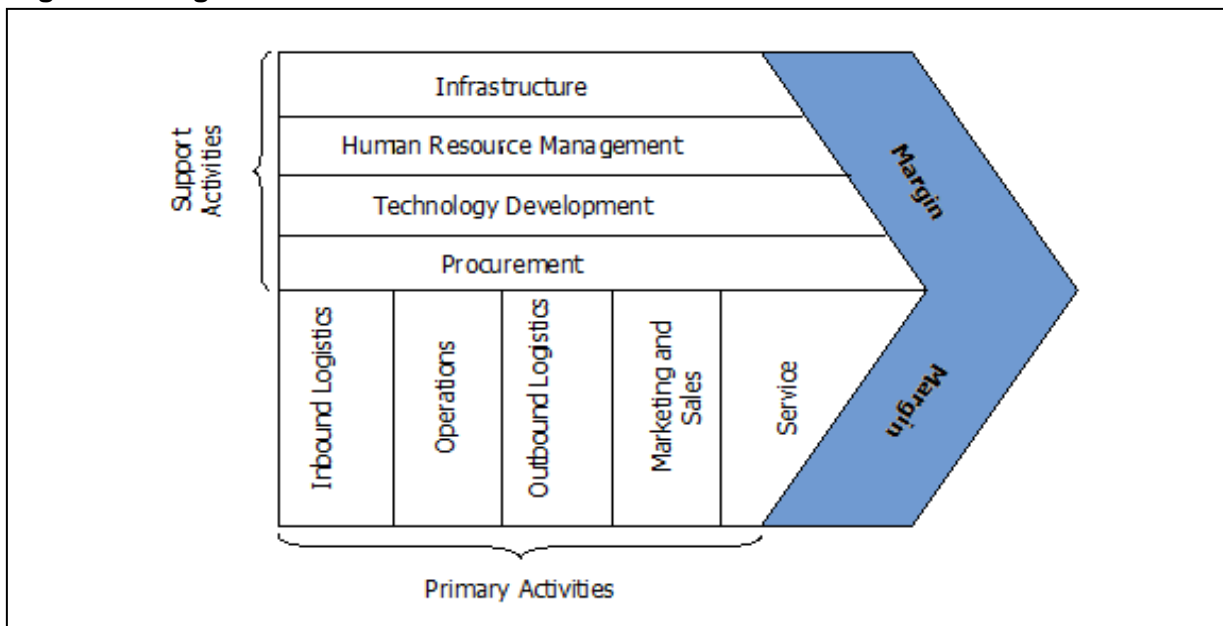
Source: Adapted from Porter (1985:37-43)

As stated, marketing is the philosophy of satisfying consumers. The marketing process represents the set of activities used to implement the philosophy of consumer satisfaction (Lamb *et al.*, 2004:23). As illustrated in Figure 2.2, these activities include understanding the mission of the organisation, aligning the objectives of the organisation with meeting consumers' needs, conducting a situational and environmental analysis, designing a marketing approach, implementing the marketing approach, designing the marketing performance measures, and evaluating the marketing efforts and altering the approaches if necessary.

Figure 2.2 The marketing process
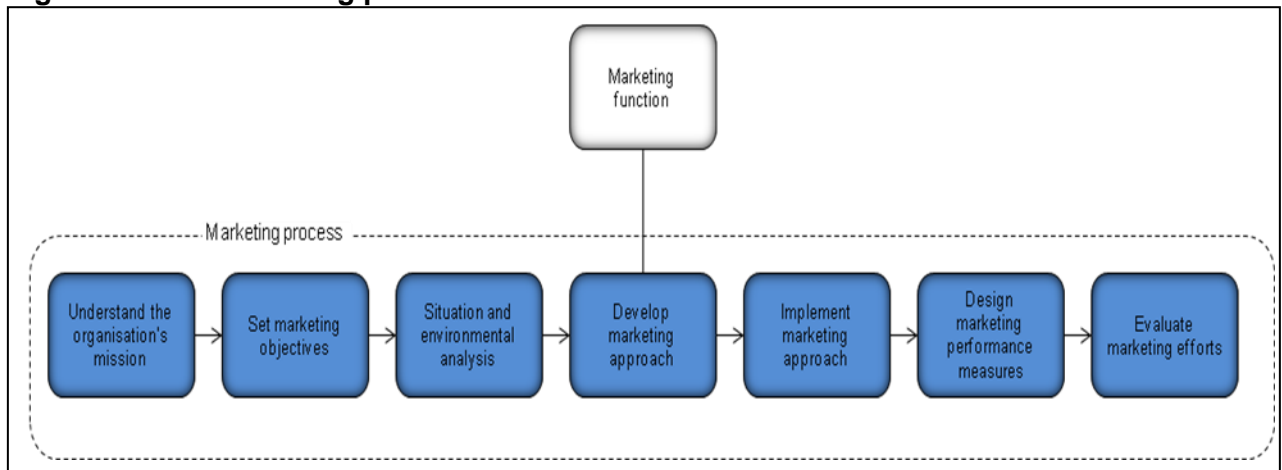
Source: Adapted from Lamb *et al.* (2004:24)

Marketing approaches are formulated to pursue marketing opportunities (Lamb *et al.*, 2004:24) and are thus an important part of the marketing process. Marketing approaches consist of segmenting the market, targeting the market, positioning the brand within the selected market, and then designing and implementing the organisation's marketing mix (see Figure 2.3). The marketing manager is required to perform these activities in such a way that the marketing function is executed effectively.

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Figure 2.3 Marketing strategy
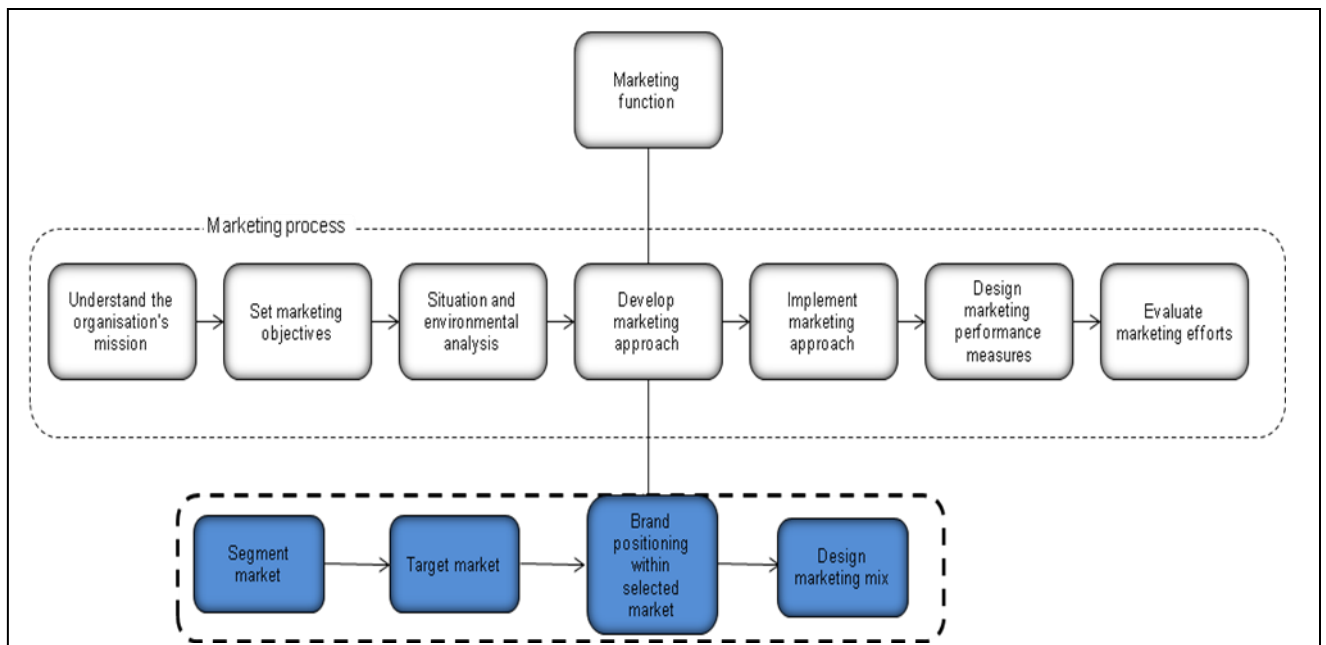
Source: Adapted from Lamb *et al.* (2004:24)

2.2.1 MARKET SEGMENTATION

According to Lamb *et al.* (2004), dividing a market into meaningful, similar and identifiable segments is the first task of marketing. Market segmentation can be based on descriptive characteristics of consumers, such as demographic, geographic and psychographic factors. Market segments can also be formed based on consumer behaviour, such as consumer responses to benefits, usage situations, or uses of the product. Once marketing managers have segmented the markets, they then proceed to selecting and targeting a market.

2.2.2 TARGET MARKETING

According to Lamb *et al.* (2004), identifying a group of people for whom the organisation designs, implements and maintains a marketing mix intended to meet their needs, is the task of target marketing. In practice, marketing managers select a group of consumers from the segmented groups as determined in the previous task of market segmentation. Once marketing

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managers have completed the task of target marketing, they will proceed to the task of positioning.

2.2.3 POSITIONING

According to Kotler and Keller (2006), the positioning task involves the designing of organisations' brands to inhabit a distinctive position in the minds of consumers in selected target markets. Positioning brands entails establishing defined brand images in the minds of consumers relative to competition (Hawkins, Mothersbaugh and Best, 2007; Sujan and Bettman, 1989). Marketing managers differentiate organisations by establishing unique brand images, and communicating them to consumers. Differentiation provides organisations with unique positions in selected markets. Unique brand images are established through the development and communication of brand identities - a combination of all the methods organisations select to identify themselves in markets (Meenaghan, 1994:24), such as brand names, brand signs or brand symbols.

An effective positioning endeavour differentiates a brand relative to competition in market segments and establishes competitive superiority (Keller and Lehmann, 2006:740). Positioning brands effectively involves designing distinct brand images relative to competing brands in the minds of consumers through the communication of brand identities. "Branding" is defined as providing products and services with the power of a brand, and by doing so creating differentiation for brands (Kotler and Keller, 2006:275). Marketing managers use branding to differentiate organisations from competition, and ultimately position organisations in selected markets (Boulding, Lee and Staelin, 1994). Positioning, in the scope of the marketing process, is illustrated in Figure 2.4.

Figure 2.4 Brand positioning
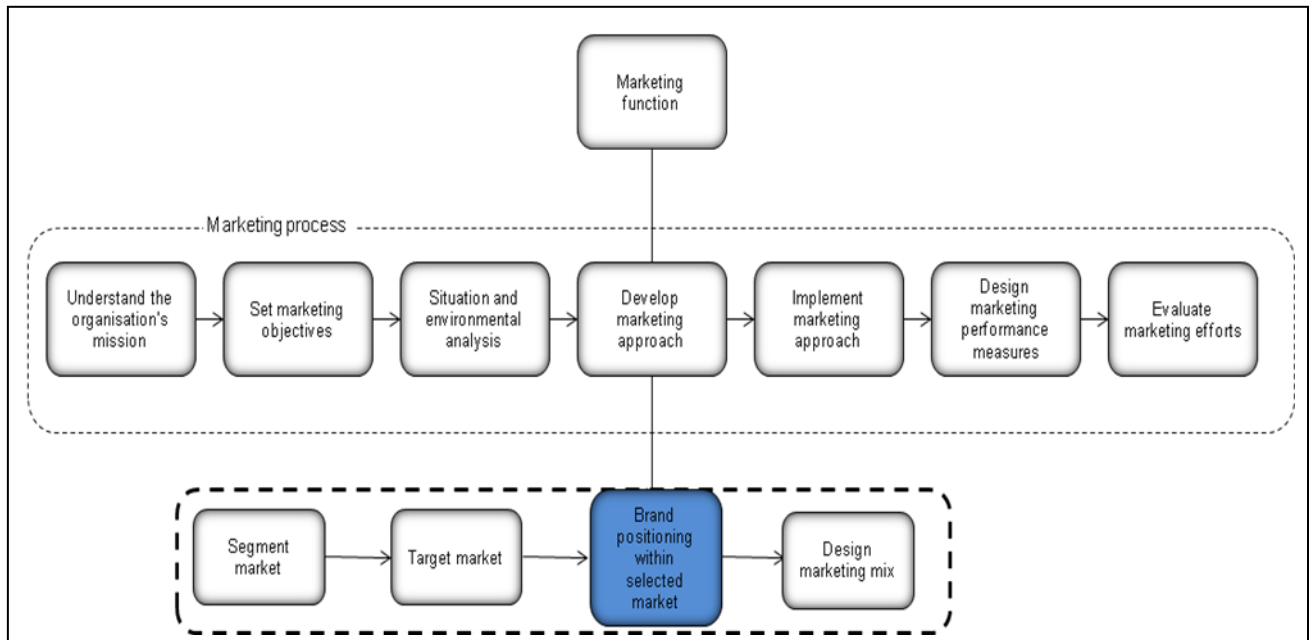
Source: Adapted from Lamb *et al.* (2004:24)

Once the market segmentation, target marketing and positioning tasks are completed, marketing managers are able to design a mix to satisfy consumers.

2.2.4 THE MARKETING MIX

The marketing mix is defined as a theoretical framework which helps marketing managers to structure approaches to achieve marketing tasks (Smith and Taylor, 2004:6) which satisfy consumers' needs and wants. Badot and Cova (2008:209) state that marketing is centred on the market, but more specifically on its actions on the market. The marketing mix thus focuses on the activities necessary to achieve consumer satisfaction in the marketing process.

Kotler (2003:15) describes the marketing mix as "a set of marketing tools an organisation uses to pursue its entire marketing objectives". Constantinides (2006:408) similarly describes the marketing mix as a "toolkit of transaction marketing". Logically, a "toolkit" encompasses various tools. Borden (1964) developed the initial marketing mix which encompassed twelve such tools. Later,

these elements were condensed and categorised into four categories, more commonly known amongst academics and practitioners as the 4Ps. According to Grönroos (1994:4), the concept of the 4Ps - product, price, place and promotion - were introduced during the 1960s and served as an approach to enhance organisations' profitability through satisfying consumers' expectations. The marketing mix combines four marketing elements, namely product, price, place (distribution) and promotion (marketing communication), in a way which creates exchanges satisfying to both consumer and organisational needs (Lamb *et al.*, 2004).

The product (or service) is the organisational offering to consumers in terms of features, designs, packaging, warranties and return policies. The product offering is usually the starting point in creating a marketing mix (Lamb *et al.*, 2004:222). Good distribution channels, persuasive marketing communication campaigns and fair prices have no value without a strong, adequate product. The success of any product depends on consumers' ability to distinguish one product from another. Branding, according to Lamb *et al.* (2004:230), is used as a tool by marketing managers to distinguish organisations' products from those of competitors.

The price is the fiscal value assigned to products on offer to consumers, and may include discounts, allowances and payment options. "Pricing" refers to the policies and procedures relating to which price level organisations adopt, the specific prices that organisations adopt, the various pricing policies (one-price or varying price) that organisations implement and the margins which organisations adopt (Borden, 1984:9). Viewed from a financial-based perspective, prices are set according to consumers' perceptions of brands (Keller and Lehmann, 2006:745). Effective branding leads consumers to pay premium prices (Lamb *et al.*, 2004:232), because of the added value bestowed on products and services by a brand. In other words, if brands are perceived as superior to competing brands, organisations may set higher prices on these brands.

"Placement" serves as a means to fulfill the role of facilitating the transfers of goods between organisations and consumers through specific store and non-store channels. Channel members such as retailers provide space and time utilities which aid in closing the gap between manufacturers and consumers (Lamb *et al.*, 2004:280). Placement thus refers to how organisations distribute goods to consumers. Marketing managers often rely on placement tactics to distinguish the quality and superiority of their brands. For example, by distributing goods to up-market areas, managers persuade consumers to perceive the brand in a positive light.

Finally, "promotion" is defined as a means to inform, persuade and remind consumers about brands (Kotler and Keller, 2006:536) through the utilisation of marketing communication tools such as advertising, sales promotion and public relations. The marketing-mix elements are illustrated in Figure 2.5 in the scope of the marketing process.

Figure 2.5 The marketing mix
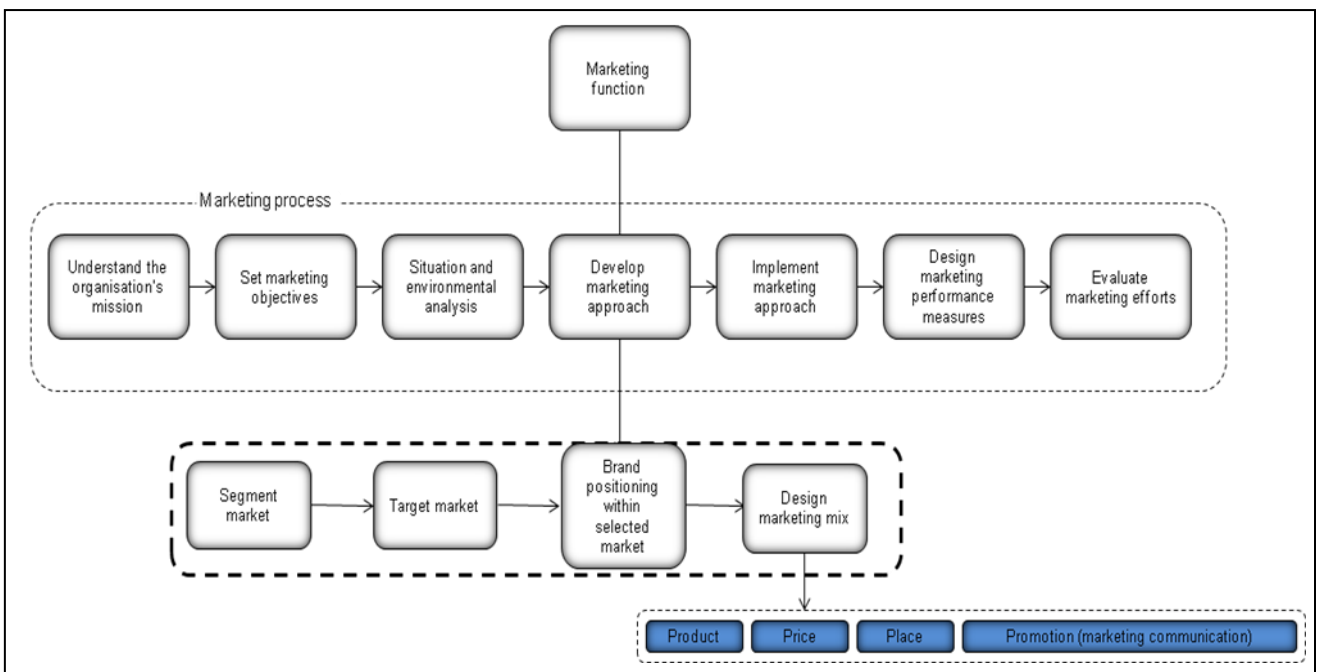
Source: Adapted from Lamb *et al.* (2004:23); Kotler (1993)

"Marketing communication" is defined as the passing of information, the exchange of ideas or the practice of establishing a frequency of thought between a sender and a receiver (Belch and Belch, 2007:137). Marketing communication is designed by marketing managers to transfer information, ideas and thoughts to consumers in order to inform, persuade and remind them about organisations' brands. Consumers learn about brands through the transferral of knowledge from various stimuli projected by marketing managers (Moreau *et al.*, 2001). This stimulus is projected through marketing communication techniques. "Marketing communication" involves designing a marketing communication mix, which is comprised of various elements (Egan, 2007:17) and is used to achieve organisational marketing communication objectives (Belch and Belch, 2007:15). Shimp (2010:7) conceptualises the marketing communication mix as being comprised of advertising, direct response, promotions, event marketing, sponsorship, public relations and publicity, as well as personal selling. The marketing communication mix in the scope of the marketing mix and the marketing function is illustrated in Figure 2.6.

Figure 2.6 Marketing communication mix
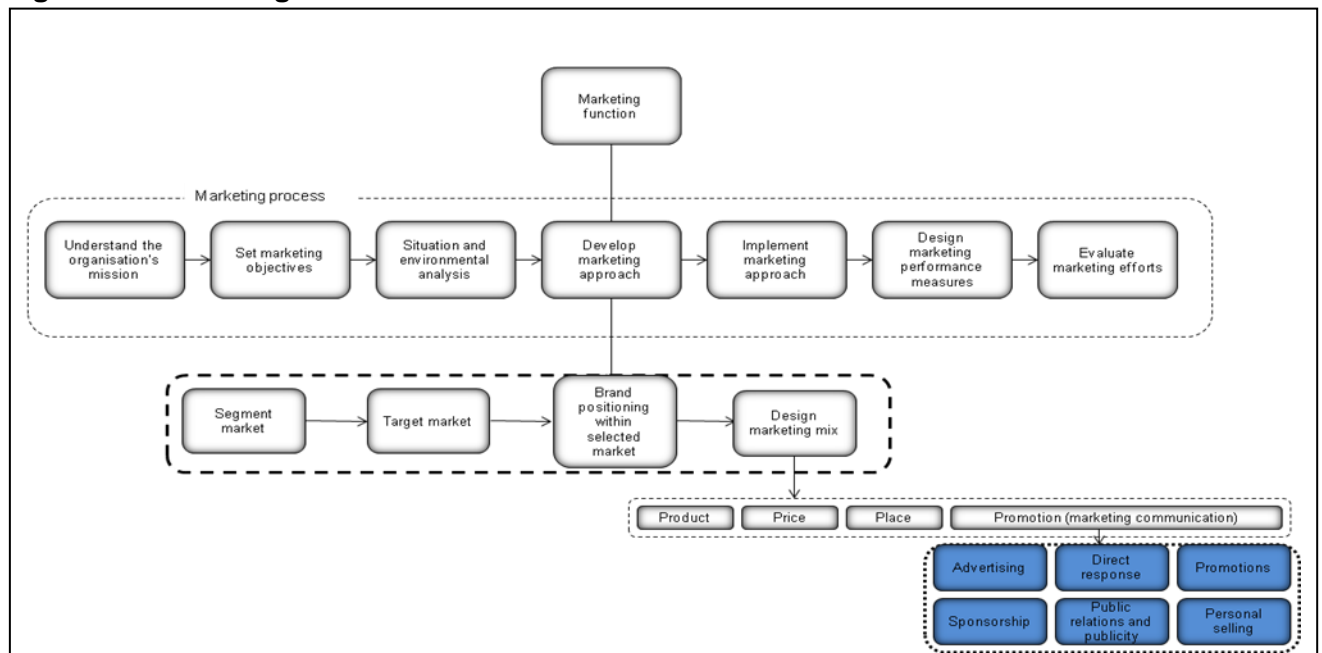
Source: Adapted from Lamb *et al.* (2004:23); Shimp (2010:7)

"Sponsorship" is a marketing communication mix element (Shimp, 2010) which is used by organisations to differentiate their communication methods, because it is unique, breaks through marketing communication clutter, and can be tailored to offer a unique solution for particular organisations (Erdogan and Kitchen, 1998:369). Sponsorship is thus an important marketing communication tool used to inform, persuade and remind consumers about organisational brands, and ultimately facilitate in transferring knowledge from organisations to consumers and from consumers to organisations.

As brand identity is the medium through which consumers perceive brand image (Ghodeswar, 2008), one can deduce that sponsorship is an effective marketing communication tool that communicates brand identities to consumers by transferring knowledge to them about the brand. Sponsorship is thus one of the methods used to communicate positions of brands, which in turn communicate brand identities to consumers, thereby informing, persuading and reminding them about brands and enhancing brand image.

2.3 CONCLUSION

This chapter introduced the marketing function as part of the vast discipline of business management. "Business management" is represented as a task which aims at achieving the highest possible output with the lowest possible input, in order to maximise profits for organisations. Tasks are executed by various business management functions within organisations, and include purchasing, production, human resources, public relations, finance, information, and marketing. Marketing is identified as an important, primary function, because its focus is on consumer satisfaction.

The marketing function has been given particular attention because, if managed effectively, it can serve as a competitive advantage to an organisation and achieve profitability. Within the marketing function, positioning and marketing

communication tactics are of particular interest; it is said that branding and sponsorship are both means by which marketing function tasks (specifically positioning and marketing communication respectively) are implemented and consumers satisfied. Thus, branding and sponsorship are linked to the marketing function, which in turn is linked to the field of business management. The purpose of this study was to assess brand image transfer in sponsorship, thus branding and sponsorship need to be examined in further detail. Branding is explored in Chapter 3 and sponsorship is explored in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 3

BRANDING

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The most common business management functions, namely purchasing, production, human resources, public relations, finance, information, and marketing, exist within organisations in order to achieve the highest outputs possible through the execution of various activities (Porter, 1985). The marketing function enables marketing managers to establish competitive positions in the market by focusing on consumer satisfaction. Various tactics are followed in the marketing function to immunise the organisation against competitive threats and satisfy consumers' needs and wants. Positioning a brand is one such tactic by which marketing managers communicate unique offerings to consumers.

A variety of branding activities can be conducted to help achieve the desired brand positioning in organisations (Keller and Lehmann, 2006:743). Branding enables an organisation to position itself in the market, and forms the basis for differentiation amongst competition. By positioning organisations' brands in selected markets, marketing managers communicate brand identities to consumers and thus establish unique brand images in selected markets. Brands can be communicated through knowledge transfer (see section 1.3). Marketing managers are able to transfer knowledge by exposing consumers to stimuli which enable consumers to become aware of brands. Once consumers are made aware of brands and organisations have successfully transferred knowledge to consumers about the brands, consumers are able to develop perceptions of brands (Gho, 2002, Moreau *et al.*, 2001; Rowley, 2002).

Branding is viewed as a powerful means to establish a competitive advantage (Kotler and Keller, 2006:275) by occupying unique positions in selected markets and communicating organisations' abilities to satisfy consumers' needs. Branding as a construct is addressed in this chapter, as well as its importance. Brand knowledge is then examined. The chapter concludes with a discussion on brand image.

3.2 BRANDING AS A CONSTRUCT

As stated in Chapter 1, a "brand" can be defined as a name, term, symbol, design, or combination thereof that identifies sellers' offerings and differentiates them from competitors' offerings (Faircloth, Capella and Alford, 2001; Lamb *et al.*, 2004). Branding goes back to the medieval period in England, when "to brand" was "to burn with a hot iron". By 1587, branding was being used in a modern sense – "to mark lastingly, as proof of ownership and a sign of quality" (Hofmeyr and Parton, 2006:2). By 1602, branding was being used to impress ideas, beliefs and thoughts about various items permanently on people's memories. Branding became increasingly popular as an activity when manufacturing emerged in the 19th century. Branding was a simple way to indicate origins and promise quality about organisational offerings. Branding has been around for centuries as a way in which to differentiate the goods of one producer from those of another (Kotler and Keller, 2006:274).

Branding has become an important management priority for all types of organisations (Keller and Lehmann, 2006:754). It is identified by marketing managers as a positioning tactic used to differentiate organisations from competitors and to favourably position organisations in the minds of consumers. Before designing branding approaches, marketing managers need to conduct a cost-benefit analysis of whether branding will be beneficial to their organisations, as well as make various branding decisions.

3.2.1 ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF BRANDING

According to Kotler and Keller (2006:274-275), there are various advantages to branding, which persuade marketing managers to build strong brands. Firstly, branding helps to simplify brand handling, in that brands aid in organising inventory accounting records. Secondly, branding provides organisations and their offerings with legal protection. For instance, a brand name can be protected by registered trademarks, and packaging can be protected by copyrights and designs. Intellectual property rights, such as trademarks and copyrights, enable organisations to make sound investments in their brands. Thirdly, brands may signify a level of quality to consumers, so that they may become loyal to the brand in the long term. Furthermore, branding is used for product identification, to encourage repeat sales and to enhance new product sales (Lamb *et al.*, 2004:231).

Although branding offers many advantages to organisations, Onkvisit and Shaw (1988:24) suggest that there are also disadvantages associated with it. Branding can be costly to organisations in terms of marketing costs, production costs and legal costs. It is thus necessary that marketing managers weigh up the benefits and the costs associated with branding in order to decide whether or not it will be profitable or not to implement various branding approaches as marketing positioning tactics. As stated, positioning entails branding approaches, by which brand identities are created and communicated to consumers. In the attempt to successfully position brands, marketing managers embark upon various branding decisions.

3.2.2 BRANDING DECISIONS

Marketing managers frequently face complex branding decisions. According to Lamb *et al.* (2004:235), the first decision is whether to brand at all. Marketing managers who decide to brand are faced with decisions whether to use a manufacturer's brand, a private brand, or both. Irrespective of which policy they

select, marketing managers must then decide between a policy of individual branding or family branding, or again a combination of both.

Products which are not assigned brands are simply identified by their product categories (Kotler, 1999). Unbranded (generic) products are appealing to organisations because they are inexpensive. Branded products, on the other hand, are identified by their brand identities. Although costly compared to unbranded approaches, branding benefits organisations in a sense that their offerings can be differentiated from competition through the communication of brand identities.

Branding involves the communication of brand identities of organisations' offerings, which may ultimately contribute towards competitive advantage. Branding is thus a valuable asset in organisations (Aaker, 1992). The following section discusses the importance of brands as equity-enhancing assets in organisations.

3.3 BRAND EQUITY

As stated above, brands are one of the most valuable intangible assets which organisations possess (Keller and Lehmann, 2006:740). Researchers contend that brand equity is in fact the most important organisational asset, in that effective branding leads consumers to pay premium prices (Lamb *et al.*, 2004:232) for products, because of the added value bestowed upon products and services by a brand, known as brand equity (Broniarczyk and Alba, 1994; Kotler and Keller, 2006).

Although researchers and practitioners have defined brand equity in various ways, they concur that brand equity involves consumers assigning value to a brand beyond the value created by the functional characteristics of the product (Biel, 1992; Broniarczyk and Alba, 1994; Hawkins *et al.*, 2007). Researchers

have found that brand equity positively affects several areas which include future profits and long-term cash flows, consumers' willingness to pay premium prices, merger and acquisition decision-making, stock prices, sustainable competitive advantage, and marketing success (Yoo and Donthu, 2001).

According to Keller and Lehmann (2006:745), brand equity can be viewed from an organisation's perspective (organisation-based brand equity), from a financial (financial-based brand equity) point of view and from the perspective of the consumer (consumer-based brand equity). Brand equity from an organisation's perspective is the additional value gained by the organisation because of the presence of a brand name. Viewed from the financial-based perspective, brand equity is the price a brand can or could demand in the marketplace (Keller and Lehmann, 2006:745). Consumer-based brand equity is the added value attributed to a product by the brand as perceived by the consumer, and is created by the subjective or emotional part of the product offering and not merely by the product attributes (Keller and Lehmann, 2006; Park and Srinivasan, 1994).

Consumer-based brand equity is the result of consumers' response to their knowledge of a specific brand, and has been defined in a number of different ways (Aaker, 1996; Keller, 2003; Keller and Lehmann, 2005). As stated earlier, consumers' knowledge of brands is derived from the knowledge transfer which occurs through various marketing communication efforts such as sponsorship (see section 1.3). Knowledge transfer allows organisations to generate awareness of a brand, then develop consumer brand knowledge about the brand, and ultimately enhance the value of their brands in the form of establishing brand images in consumers' minds (Gho, 2002, Moreau *et al.,* 2001; Rowley, 2002). It is therefore concluded that consumer-based brand equity is the result of consumers' responses to organisations' knowledge transfer efforts, which involve the creation of consumers' brand awareness of brands,

consumers' accrual of brand knowledge and consequently, the creation and enhancement of consumers' perceived brand image.

3.3.1 BRAND AWARENESS

Brand awareness is comprised of brand recall or brand recognition (Keller, 1993:3). Brand recall requires one step in consumers' memories, while brand recognition is twofold – first a search and then recognition (Pope, 1998:125). This entails that in order for consumers to *recognise* a brand, they somehow need to be cued (a marketing manager will mention a product category), whilst consumers who *recall* a brand are not cued - they merely recall the brand from their memories.

As stated in section 1.3, brand awareness is essential before brand knowledge can be developed, and consequently brand images can be created and managed (Pitta and Katsanis, 1995:54). Keller (1993:3) identifies three major roles that brand awareness fulfils. Firstly, brand awareness entails that consumers think about a brand when they are thinking about a product category, and thus are likely to consider a specific brand when considering a purchase. Secondly, brand awareness may affect consumers' purchase decisions, even if no images exist in consumers' memories of a brand. Lastly, brand awareness is directly related to how consumers develop and perceive images created by a brand. Brand awareness can be regarded as the cornerstone of brand equity. As stated, building brand awareness, although a necessary component of building strong brands, is not sufficient for building a strong brand (see section 1.3). Once consumers are made aware of brands, marketing managers can proceed to generating consumers' brand knowledge (Gho, 2002, Moreau *et al.*, 2001; Rowley, 2002).

3.3.2 BRAND KNOWLEDGE

Brand knowledge is a topic in branding literature which has been debated and dissected by many researchers and academicians (e.g. Biel, 1992; Faircloth *et al.*, 2001; Pitta and Katsanis, 1995). Brand knowledge, according to Keller (1993; 1998), is the culmination of consumers' perceptions of a brand, and is a result of organisations' knowledge transfer efforts. Marketing managers are able to enhance consumer-based brand equity through the enhancement of consumers' brand knowledge about organisations' brands. After consumers have been made aware of brands and organisations have successfully established brand knowledge in consumers' minds, consumers are able to develop perceptions of brands (Gho, 2002, Moreau *et al.*, 2001; Rowley, 2002) which reflect a certain brand image. The purpose of this study is to assess brand image transfer in sponsorship, thus the remainder of this chapter is dedicated to brand image.

3.4 BRAND IMAGE

Researchers concur that brand image is generally defined as a set of brand associations that serve to differentiate the brand from competitors in the minds of consumers (Biel, 1992; Dobni and Zinkhan, 1990; Faircloth *et al.,* 2001; Hawkins *et al.*, 2007; Keller, 1993; Kotler and Keller, 2006). "Brand association" is defined as "anything about the likeableness of a brand which helps in the formation of a brand's image" (James, 2005:14). The similarity of brand associations and brand image is emphasised by the numerous studies that use brand associations to determine brand image (Biel, 1992; Faircloth *et al.*, 2001; Keller, 1993). Other studies in contrast use brand image to determine brand associations (James, 2005; Low and Lamb, 2000). One could therefore assume that brand image and brand associations are two similar concepts used interchangeably. For the purpose of this study, no distinction is made between these concepts, and only the term "brand image" is used to refer to both brand image and brand association.

Brand images are initiated and developed from a variety of sources. Marketing researchers have attempted to decipher the sources of brand image, and the result has been numerous perspectives on brand image foundations which are not always consistent with parallel studies. However, "brand image" remains a vital concept for marketing managers (Dobni and Zinkhan, 1990:110). Table 3.1 depicts various studies performed by researchers over the past two decades in an attempt to clarify the constituents of brand image. The studies have been identified by the researcher as useful in obtaining a thorough and holistic understanding of brand image. From the definitions identified in Table 3.1, the researcher has formulated a conclusive definition of brand image.

Table 3.1 Views of brand image

Author(s)	Definition of brand image	Key brand image constructs
Park, Jaworski and MacInnis, 1986	*Brand image originates from functional, symbolic and/or experiential benefits.*	Functional needs Symbolic needs Experiential needs
Dobni and Zinkhan, 1990	*Brand image is the concept of a brand held by consumers and is not only present in the technical, functional or physical concerns.*	Context variables Characteristics of perceiver (consumer)
Aaker, 1991:114	*Brand image is a set of associations usually organised in some meaningful way.*	Product attributes; intangibles; consumer benefits; relative price; use/application; user/consumer; celebrity/person; lifestyle/personality; product class; competitors; country/geographic area
Biel, 1992	*Brand image is a cluster of attributes that consumers connect to brand names.*	Functional attributes Emotional attributes
Keller, 1993	*Brand image can be classified into three major categories: attributes; benefits; attitudes.*	Product-related attributes vs. Non-product-related attributes Functional benefits vs. experiential benefits vs. symbolic benefits Brand attitudes = function of attributes and benefits ➤ Salient beliefs ➤ Judgment of

		beliefs
Pitta and Katsanis, 1995	*Unique brand associations have been classified into three major categories: attributes; benefits; attitudes.*	Product-related attributes vs. non-product-related attributes Benefits: functional; experiential; symbolic Attitudes = sum of salient beliefs x strength of evaluation of beliefs
Chen, 2001	*Brand associations come in all forms and represent the characteristics of brands.*	Functional attributes: product attributes, perceived quality and functional benefits Non-functional attributes: symbolic associations, emotional associations, price/value, user/usage situation.
Low and Lamb, 2001	*Brand associations = brand image + brand attitude + perceived quality.*	Brand image = functional and symbolic brand beliefs Brand attitude = consumers' overall evaluation of a brand Perceived quality = consumers' judgment about a brand's excellence or superiority
Kotler and Keller, 2006:286	*Brand image is the accumulation of perceptions and beliefs held by consumers as reflected in the associations held in consumer memory.*	Source attributes = Organisations; countries/geographical regions; channels of distribution; other brands; characters; spokespeople; sponsorship.

Table 3.1 illustrates that although views are broad in terms of what constitutes brand image, there are some similarities between definitions. Therefore, a conclusive definition of brand image was deduced. Firstly, brand image is composed of brand attitudes, brand benefits and brand attributes as perceived by consumers. Secondly, brand attributes can be functional/product-related/hard/tangible. Examples of functional brand image attributes include technology, speed, premium price and service (Biel, 1992:8-9). Finally, brand attributes can be emotional/non-product related/soft/intangible. Keller (1993) pays little attention to product-related attributes, but ascertains that the non-

product-related attributes (emotional attributes) include price information, packaging or product appearance information, user imagery (the typical users of the product) and usage imagery (how and in which situations the product is utilised).

Dobni and Zinkhan (1990) conducted a historical overview of brand image and inferred that: brand image is the concept of a brand held by consumers; is largely subjective and formed through consumer interpretation, whether reasoned or emotional; and is not inherent in the technical, functional or physical concerns of brands, but rather affected by marketing activities, context variables and characteristics of consumers. Kotler and Keller (2006:287) state that brands are linked to various sources such as organisations, countries, geographical regions, channels of distribution, other brands, characters, spokespeople and sponsorship. Aaker (1993:114) states that brand image includes product attributes, intangibles, consumer benefits, relative price, use, user, celebrity, lifestyle, personality, product class, competitors and geographic area. Pitta and Katsanis (1995) define brand image in terms of brand associations, which are composed of attributes, benefits and attitudes.

As stated, branding is a marketing function tactic used by marketing managers in organisations to position brands in the minds of consumers and satisfy consumers' needs and wants (section 1.3). Brands are positioned by marketing managers transferring knowledge to consumers via various marketing communication tools and thereby establishing and strengthening organisations' brand images. Brand image is created once brand awareness and brand knowledge have been achieved. Brand images are composed of brand image attributes, benefits and attitudes. Figure 3.1 is a culmination of the various definitions of brand image as depicted in Table 3.1. For the purposes of this study, it is concluded that brand image is comprised of attitudes, benefits and attributes.

Figure 3.1 Brand image
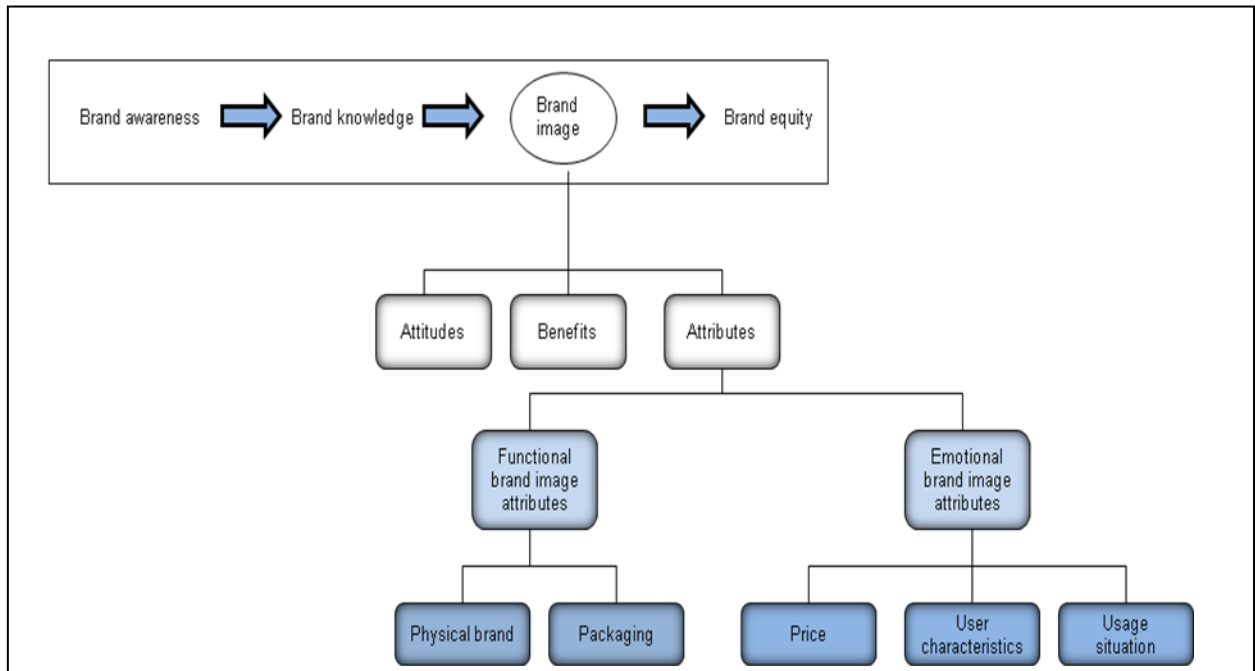
Source: Adapted from Park, Jaworski and MacInnis (1986); Dobni and Zinkhan (1990); Aaker (1991); Biel (1992); Keller (1993); Pitta and Katsanis (1995); Chen (2001); Low and Lamb (2001); Kotler and Keller (2006)

Keller (1993:5) describes attitudes, benefits and attributes as follows: "Attitudes refer to the consumers overall evaluation or judgement of a product; benefits refer to the value consumers attach to the product; attributes are descriptive features which give character to a product".

● Attitudes

Brand attitudes are defined as consumers' overall evaluations of brands (Low and Lamb, 2001). According to Keller (1993:4), brand attitudes are the function of the associated attributes and benefits perceived by consumers. Brand attitudes are the sum of beliefs held by consumers, multiplied by the strength of evaluation of each belief (Pitta and Katsanis, 1995).

- Benefits

Benefits represent the "want" satisfaction consumers experience from brand features (Pitta and Katsanis, 1995). Park *et al*. (1986) identify brands as having mixtures of symbolic, functional and experiential benefits from which brand images are established. Functional benefits are defined as the features of brands which satisfy externally generated, consumption-related needs. Symbolic benefits are defined as features of brands which satisfy internally generated needs such as self-enhancement, role position, group membership or ego-identification. Experiential benefits are defined as the features of brands which satisfy needs such as sensory pleasure, variety or cognitive stimulation.

- Attributes

Aaker (1990:114) suggests that "probably the most used positioning approach is to associate an object with a brand attribute or characteristic". Studies have failed to find that brand attitudes consistently predict purchase intentions or behaviour. Manipulation of brand image attributes, however, do have a direct influence on consumers' purchase intentions and behaviour (Faircloth *et al.,* 2001:64).

Attributes relate to the performance of brands. Dobni and Zinkhan (1990:118) define brand image as being both a concrete and an abstract expression. In other words, attributes can be product-related or non-product-related. Product-related attributes are the physical features of the product, whilst non-product-related attributes are the external aspects relating to the purchase and consumption of the brands, such as price, packaging, identity of consumers and brand usage situations.

Biel (1992) distinguishes between "hard" and "soft" brand image attributes where hard attributes are those functional attributes such as perceptions of speed or user-friendliness, whereas the softer attributes are emotional attributes such as

fun or exciting perceptions of a brand. The functional attributes associated with brand image aim to satisfy the functional or utilitarian needs of the consumer, which are the practical and immediate consumption-related needs that can be solved by a product. The non-functional attributes consumers link to a brand (symbolic attributes) relate to internally generated needs satisfied by the brand, such as the need for self-enhancement, role position, group membership, ego-identification, self-image or social image (Park *et al.*, 1986). Furthermore, Keller (1993:3) argues that brand image attributes are tangible and intangible features as well as physical characteristics of a brand. One can thus deduce that functional attributes are product-related (hard) attributes which represent the physical, tangible characteristics of brands whilst emotional attributes are non-product related (soft) attributes which represent the intangible characteristcs of brands.

Owing to the vagueness of brand image attitudes and benefits, brand image will be assessed in the light of brand image attributes in this study. For illustrative purposes, examples of brand image attributes are provided with reference to a brand category, namely fruit juice. As depicted in Figure 3.1, the functional brand image attributes (product-related) include the physical brand attributes and packaging of the brand.

o   *Perceptions of physical brand attributes*. Physical brand image attributes are defined as the features necessary to perform the product or service function as required by consumers (Keller, 1993:4). The physical product attributes relate to brands' physical compositions (Keller, 1993:4). Physical product attributes perceived by consumers relate to the sometimes unique, tangible features of products. Examples of physical brand image attributes of a fruit juice include the actual juice, the sediment in the juice, or the flavour of the juice.

o   *Perceptions of packaging of the brand.* Packaging of the brand not only
serves a practical function, such as protection, but is also a means of
establishing competitive advantage by promoting and differentiating
products through unique designs, colours and shapes to influence
consumers' perceptions (Lamb *et al.*, 2004). One can reason that
although Keller (1993) regards the packaging or product information as a
non-product attribute, it can in fact be a product attribute, as the
information on the packaging is tangible and forms a part of the physical
product. Thus, for the purposes of this study, consumers' perceptions of
the packaging or product appearance information is classified as a
product-related attribute of a brand. Perceptions of packaging are thus
defined as consumers' beliefs about styles or designs, quality, uniqueness
and functionality of physical packaging of products. For example,
consumers perceive the physical packaging of products based on the
design, style, shape, quality and functionality of objects on fruit juice
cartons such as the Tetrapak, caps, labels and tags, as well as wording
and pictures on the labelling.

Emotional brand image attributes refer to the price perceptions, user
characteristics and usage perceptions (see Figure 3.1). Emotional attributes are
the beliefs and feelings consumers have in relation to brand features that are not
directly linked to the physical products' characteristics and functioning. These
emotional attributes are more symbolic or metaphorical (Biel, 1992:9) and may
shape consumers' beliefs and attitudes towards brands.

o   *Price perception.* Consumers rely on prices as indications of product value
and quality (Lamb *et al.*, 2004; Lichtenstein and Burton, 1989). The impact
of price on perceived quality varies significantly across consumers and the
type of product (durable or nondurable) being judged (Lichtenstein and
Burton, 1989:429). This implies that in judging the quality of nondurable
products, consumers may apply a product-type-specific schema, that is to

say, consumers perceive a higher price as indicating higher quality or value and vice versa. Consumers consider factors such as brand class, the price range of the brand category, perceived risk of the purchase and amount of search time involved. Examples include the actual price of a fruit juice (R8,50 or R12,75), and whether it is in the same league as Liquifruit and Ceres or Amazing and Mix-a-Drink.

o *Perception of user characteristics.* The perception of the users' characteristics are defined as beliefs or perceptions of brands' typical users, defined by demographic factors (age, race, gender, language, income or level of education), geographic factors and psychographic factors, which relate to consumers' lifestyles (Keller, 1993:4). An example of a user characteristic brand image attribute is consumers' perceptions that consumers who drink Energade are fit and healthy. Therefore, in consumers' minds, Energade promotes fitness and health and is thus perceived positively.

o *Perception of brand usage.* Perceptions regarding the usage of brands include beliefs about the typical usage situations of brands such as: when, how and the type of occasions they are consumed; the location in which they are consumed (inside or outside); and the type of activity (formal or informal) which accompanies or leads to consumption (Keller, 1993:4) of brands. An example of a brand usage image attribute is consumers' perceptions that Ceres fruit juice is consumed on family picnics and during leisurely activities. Therefore, the Ceres brand is perceived as healthy, relaxing and enjoyable, and ultimately positive.

3.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter commenced with an explanation of branding. Branding is theoretically rooted within the marketing function by serving as a tactic to position

organisations in consumers' minds through the communication of brand identities. Positioning is thus a marketing function tactic which ultimately differentiates organisations from competition and communicates brand identities to consumers.

Next, the importance of branding was presented, and it was explained that brands derive a certain value for organisations which is measured as brand equity. Marketing managers can enhance brand equity by managing the various brand components or brand identities. Brand identity is how consumers perceive brand image. Brand image is important to marketing managers because it builds consumers' knowledge about brands and ultimately improves organisations' brand equity.

The chapter concluded with a discussion on brand image and how it contributes to consumers' brand knowledge by communicating brand image attributes. Brand image was explained to be of particular interest in this study, and was thus examined in detail. It was emphasised that marketing managers should give careful attention to brand image attribute approaches, so as to effectively position organisations in the minds of consumers and differentiate organisations from competition through the enhancement of brand knowledge. The brand image attributes identified and used to achieve the objectives of this study include perceptions of physical features of brands, packaging, prices, user characteristics and usage situations.

The purpose of this study was to assess brand image transfer in sponsorship. It was explained in this chapter that branding is theoretically rooted within the marketing function as it is a tactic by which marketing managers can position organisations in competitive spheres. Similarly, sponsorship is theoretically rooted within the marketing function in that sponsorship is a tactic performed by marketing managers to achieve marketing communication objectives. Sponsorship is discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 4

SPONSORSHIP

4.1 INTRODUCTION

A review of the marketing literature indicates that branding is a positioning tactic within the marketing function. The marketing function is defined in terms of the marketing process, which includes numerous tasks aimed at satisfying consumers' needs. Marketing managers aim to inform, persuade and remind consumers about organisations' brands, thereby transferring knowledge about the brand to consumers. Sponsorship is one of the marketing communication tools used to inform, persuade and remind consumers about brands, and communicate brand identities to consumers so that positioning endeavours will be effective.

This chapter examines sponsorship as a construct and the importance it holds within the marketing function. Sponsorship is then described in detail. The chapter concludes with a discussion of how branding and sponsorship strategies can be used by marketing managers as marketing function tactics (positioning and marketing communication) to position organisations in the minds of consumers by means of knowledge transfer.

4.2 SPONSORSHIP AS AN ELEMENT OF THE MARKETING COMMUNICATION MIX

Sponsorship decision-makers in South Africa have shown that sponsorship budgets are increasing faster than advertising budgets (Hooper, 2003:209),

because brand marketers want to communicate with consumers and break through other marketing communication clutter (Sampson, 2006:341). Sponsorship is therefore a popular marketing communication tool. "Sponsorship" is defined as investing in entities to bear the marketing objectives and marketing communication goals of organisations (Amis and Cornwell, 2005:152). The sponsor exchanges money or products for the right to associate its brand with the sporting event or participant (Shank, 2002:16). Thus, sponsorship is a popular marketing communication tool used to inform, persuade and remind consumers about brands by associating brands with events.

4.2.1 ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF SPONSORSHIP

Researchers maintain that sponsorship yields benefits to all parties involved in the partnership (Shank, 2002:408). The parties involved in the sponsorship are usually the sponsors and the sponsored event. Sponsor brands may become associated with the event and sponsored events may become associated with the sponsor brand. It is because of this beneficial situation that there has been a rise in the popularity of sponsorship as a marketing communication tool (Fahy, Farrelly and Quester, 2002:1026).

The following benefits are unique to sponsorship (Mullin, Hardy and Sutton, 2007:322-333): exclusivity, heightened communication and publicity.

o   *Exclusivity*. Sponsorship offers opportunities for exclusivity not often achieved by other means of communication (Fahy *et al.,* 2002:1015). In some cases, marketing managers can negotiate sponsorship agreements which appoint their organisations as exclusive sponsors.

o   *Heightened communication.* Sponsorship enables marketing managers to obtain coverage at more favourable rates than traditional advertising and other marketing communication elements, as well as to cope with

changing media viewing habits of consumers (Gardner and Shuman, 1986:12). Marketing managers also use sponsorship to overcome cultural boundaries (Fahy *et al.*, 2002:1016) and thus have the potential to communicate with broad audiences.

o *Publicity*. Publicity via sponsorship is delivered by an event which positions organisations' messages more clearly in the minds of consumers (Mullin *et al.*, 2007:323) and provides organisations with good opportunities to acquire visibility. Sponsorship creates interactive environments which make key messages more relevant and persuasive to consumers.

Although sponsorship provides exclusivity, heightened communication and publicity for organisations, there is a trade-off of the costs and benefits associated with sponsorship. The rapid growth of sponsorship within organisations has given rise to two potential pressures, namely "sponsorship clutter" and "ambush marketing" (Fahy *et al.,* 2004:1013).

Although sponsorship offers unique solutions to organisations, many organisations have subsequently implemented sponsorship strategies, resulting in even more clutter and competition (Walliser, 2003:23). A sponsor typically competes for signage or attention from every other organisation which sponsors a specific event (Shimp, 2010:564).

"Ambush marketing" has also emerged as a threat to marketing managers implementing sponsorship tactics. Ambush marketing is a campaign planned by organisations to associate themselves indirectly with events (Shank, 2002:409) with the intention of communicating false impressions that they are sponsors. Ambushing weakens consumers' perceptions of official sponsors (competitor) and provides the ambushing party with the recognition and benefits associated with being the official sponsor (Crompton, 2004:1). A "cluttered" sponsorship

environment and ambushers in the marketing communication environment pose a threat to organisations' sponsorship endeavours. Marketing managers are thus required to critically assess the potential of these threats before implementing a sponsorship tactic.

4.2.2 TYPES OF SPONSORED EVENTS

Sponsorships may take on several forms, such as art sponsorships, event sponsorships, sports sponsorships and cause-related sponsorships (Cornwell, Weeks and Roy, 2005:21). The various types of sponsorships are illustrated in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1 Types of sponsorship
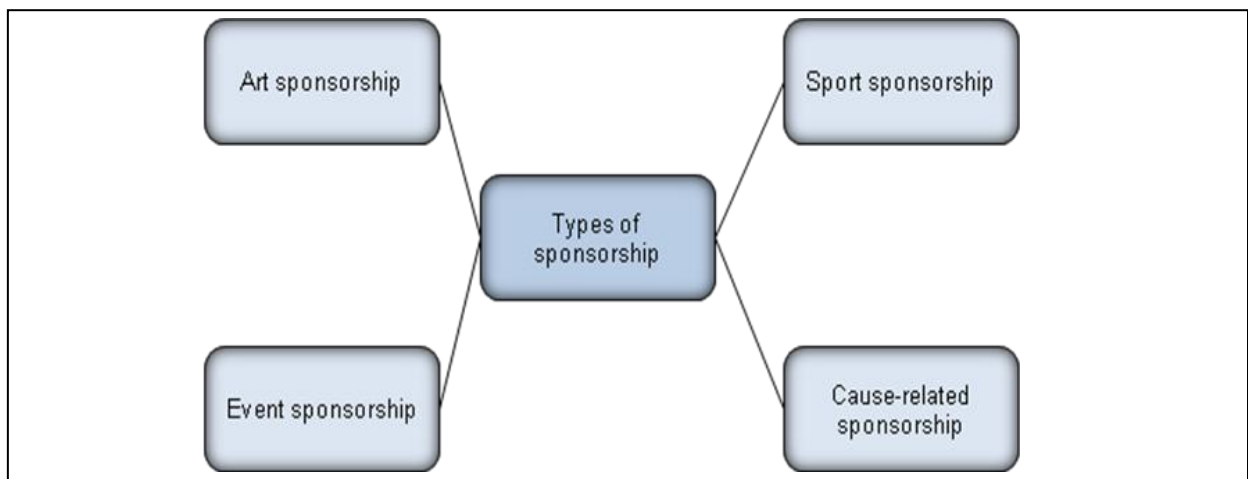
Source: Adapted from Egan (2007:271)

According to Egan (2007:271), art sponsorship refers to sponsorship relationships between organisations and artistic affiliates. Art sponsorship originated with churches and wealthy families, where organisations would sponsor musicians, artists, festivals, fairs or even cultural institutions. Event sponsorship is where the organisation sponsors an event, whether it be organised by the organisation itself or already in existence. Organisations are attracted to event sponsorship because it is memorable and motivating to consumers. Marketing managers are also fond of cause-related sponsorships, as

they result in consumers developing positive attitudes toward organisations supporting good causes (Witcher, Craigen, Culligan and Harvey, 1991:14). Non-profit organisations usually involve themselves in cause-related sponsorships and alliances (Shimp, 2010:567).

Finally, managers undertake sponsorships involving sports. Sport sponsorship is where organisations sponsor sporting events or teams such as golf, tennis or extreme sports (Shimp, 2010:563) in the intention of associating themselves with the attributes of sporting events. Although the costs of sport sponsorship can be high, sponsorship managers benefit from reaching large audiences, experiencing extensive media coverage and reaching a large target audience sharing similar interests (Egan, 2007:271). Walliser (2003) states that sport sponsorship is generally more successful than the sponsorship of arts or social causes. It can thus be concluded that sport sponsorship is a marketing communication tool which should be given particular consideration within the marketing function.

"In South Africa, sport is a very powerful association for brands and consumers" (Ford, 2010). Sport sponsorship has enjoyed a notable growth (Akaoui, 2007), specifically in South Africa, due mostly to the re-admission to international sport and the substantial increase in television coverage of major sporting events. In 1992, at the end of the Apartheid era, South Africa was re-admitted to the international sporting arena and participated in the Cricket World Cup (1992) and the Rugby World Cup (1995). Rugby, soccer and cricket are considered the "limelight" sporting events and attract large sponsorships. In 1996, sports including motor racing, soccer, rugby, golf and cricket (more than R30 million each), horseracing, athletics, road-running and motor rallies (between R10 million and R25 million each) made up the larger portion of sponsorship expenditures. In contrast, sports such as karate, baseball, softball, netball, lifesaving and ice-skating were worth much less than the limelight events at R10 million each (Van Heerden and Du Plessis, 2003). Benefits of sport sponsorship include: competition, health and fitness, pride, family involvement, necessity,

grass roots association, consumer-client entertainment and brand-image adjustment.

o *Competition.* The spectators and participants in a sport event or team engage in sport because of the competition. Competition is one of the driving forces of human nature. The ultimate goal of sport is to declare a winner (Wilkinson, 1986:2). The significance of a sporting event is that regardless of past performance, any team or individual can perform spectacularly, or even win (Parkhouse, 1991:150). Thus, consumers are attracted and loyal to sport, no matter what the outcome, as long as the event is entertaining.

o *Health and fitness.* Organisations have become eagerly aware of the increase in attention to health amongst consumers (Wilkinson, 1986:2). Sport contributes positively to health and fitness. Spectators and participants watch and partake in sport to benefit from health and fitness. Sport sponsorship thus attracts the health-conscious consumers, and inevitably reaches a health-conscious target market.

o *Pride.* There is great pride in communities across the world in sports teams (Wilkinson, 1986:2), whether it is for professional (e.g. national or provincial) or amateur (e.g. local) teams. Consumers are proud to support and be associated with particular sporting events or players. Fans, for instance, will feel considerable pride when their favourite player does particularly well.

o *Family involvement.* Many children are committed to a particular sport. There is a deep-seated interest and love for sport that is inherent in most consumers (Wilkinson, 1986:2). Parents will for instance attend their children's hockey matches on Saturday mornings because they enjoy the fact that they can watch their children partake in an activity which appeals to their senses. Sport can connect children with parents, as sport appeals to all age groups.

o   *Necessity.* Sports organisations operate successfully with corporate financing through sponsorship. Marketing managers have identified that there is a need in this regard, and they have realised that they can satisfy this need (Wilkinson, 1986:3). Organisations sponsor teams and individuals. They supply sports apparel, amongst other items and equipment to the participants in return for association with the sporting event, team, or player.

o   *Grass roots association.* Not all organisations focus on national and international sporting events and players. Many marketing managers prefer to spend their money on getting their message across to an active public. These consumers have a great deal of potential buying power. The sponsorships provide means for community involvement and cost less than sponsoring professionals who are seeking more and more for their services (Wilkinson, 1986:4).

o   *Consumer-client entertainment.* A positive aspect of any sponsorship is the opportunity it presents for a sponsor to entertain corporate clients and consumers (Wilkinson, 1986:4). Sport allows for a win-win situation, meaning that organisations can benefit from participants and spectators from a brand image viewpoint while spectators and participants can benefit from the organisation in terms of profit margins.

o   *Brand image.* The adjustment of brand image is a prevalent goal of sport sponsorship (Amis and Cornwell, 2005:9). Brand image is a key subject in any properly developed marketing plan, especially when managers need to consider matching a sport with a brand. Sponsors are viewed positively when a brand image is created through associations with the appropriate sport. Before sponsorships are able to attract the right attention to brands, it is crucial for the organisation to understand what their brand image is and how to position it (Wilkinson, 1986:3). As stated, positioning enables

marketing managers to communicate brand identities and thus create and enhance brand image.

Once they have decided that they wish to implement sponsorship as a marketing communication tactic, marketing managers should set sponsorship objectives.

4.2.3 OBJECTIVES OF SPONSORSHIP

Marketing managers need to have a clear idea of what they want to achieve through sponsorship (Hooper, 2003:209). Sponsorship objectives should be linked to the broader marketing communication objectives stemming from the organisational objectives (Shank, 2002:408). The primary objectives of sponsorship include the following: building brand awareness, acquiring a competitive advantage, reaching target markets, relationship marketing, increasing sales and building brand image.

o   *Building brand awareness*. As marketing managers seek to increase brand awareness via penetration of existing markets, they seek ways in which to achieve visibility in the marketplace (Fullerton, 2007:68). Marketing managers can achieve visibility by building brand awareness through sponsorship campaigns.

o   *Acquiring a competitive advantage*. Sponsorship is a pre-emptive tactic that will reduce competitive risk (Shank, 2002:409). By sponsoring an entity, an organisation can reduce competition; however organisations should be aware of ambush marketers who associate themselves indirectly with the same event to 'steal' association with the official sponsor.

o   *Reaching target markets.* Sponsorship as a marketing communication tool has the ability to reach consumers who are attracted to entities because they share a common interest (Shank, 2002:411). Sponsorship is thus an

effective way in which to communicate directly to a specified target audience.

o *Relationship marketing.* Sponsorship allows for relationships to be developed in an organisation, whether it is amongst consumers or employees. Relationship marketing is a noteworthy concern for marketing managers, because it helps to build consumer loyalty. Additionally, events can be used as entertainment opportunities for employees, rewarding them and allowing informal interactions among employees at different levels within an organisation (Fullerton, 2007:417).

o *Increasing sales.* Marketing managers aim to increase sales by using sponsorship (Marshall and Cook, 1992:311); therefore sponsorships tend to focus on the bottom line. In many cases consumers are more prone to purchasing organisations' brands which sponsor events they like (Fullerton, 2007:67). Marketing managers design sponsorship programmes in order to attract consumers' loyalty and preference, and therefore improve organisations' financial performance.

o *Building brand image.* One of the most important objectives of sponsorship is to maintain, build or improve the image of a brand (Gwinner and Eaton, 1999:47). Sponsorship programmes are designed by marketing managers in a way that the brand image of the sponsor will be similar to the brand image of the entity they are sponsoring.

From the above discussion it is clear that brand image is important as an objective in sponsorship and specifically of sport sponsorship. One can therefore deduce that building and enhancing brand image is one of the key objectives of sponsorship. Cornwell *et al.,* (2005:23) justify the significance of brand image as a sponsorship objective by stating that sponsorship research has focussed on improving the recall, recognitions and brand image held in consumers' memories. Sport sponsorship can be advantageous from various viewpoints.

From an organisational viewpoint, sport sponsorship is useful in adjusting brand image. As stated, building strong brands involves firstly establishing brand awareness, then transferring knowledge about the brand to consumers, and thereafter creating and managing perceived brand images (see section 1.3). Knowledge transfer is the means through which brand awareness is established, knowledge of the brand developed and brand image created and enhanced (Gho, 2002, Moreau *et al.*, 2001; Rowley, 2002). It is proposed that sponsorship is a marketing communication tool which facilitates the knowledge transfer between a sponsor brand and a sponsored event so that ultimately brand image transfer can take place from the sponsor brand to the sponsored event and from the sponsored event to the sponsor brand.

4.3 BRAND IMAGE TRANSFER IN SPONSORSHIP

Keller (1993) suggests that when brands become associated with events, some of the brand images linked with the event are transferred to the brands in consumers' memories. Brand image transfer between a sponsored event and a sponsoring brand is an important priority in sponsorship and is receiving increased research attention (Gwinner and Swanson, 2003:289). Brand image may be enhanced through the brand image transferral between a brand and an event. Figure 4.2 illustrates a model of brand image creation and brand image transfer in sponsorship as proposed by Gwinner (1997:148).

Figure 4.2 Brand image creation and brand image transfer in sponsorship
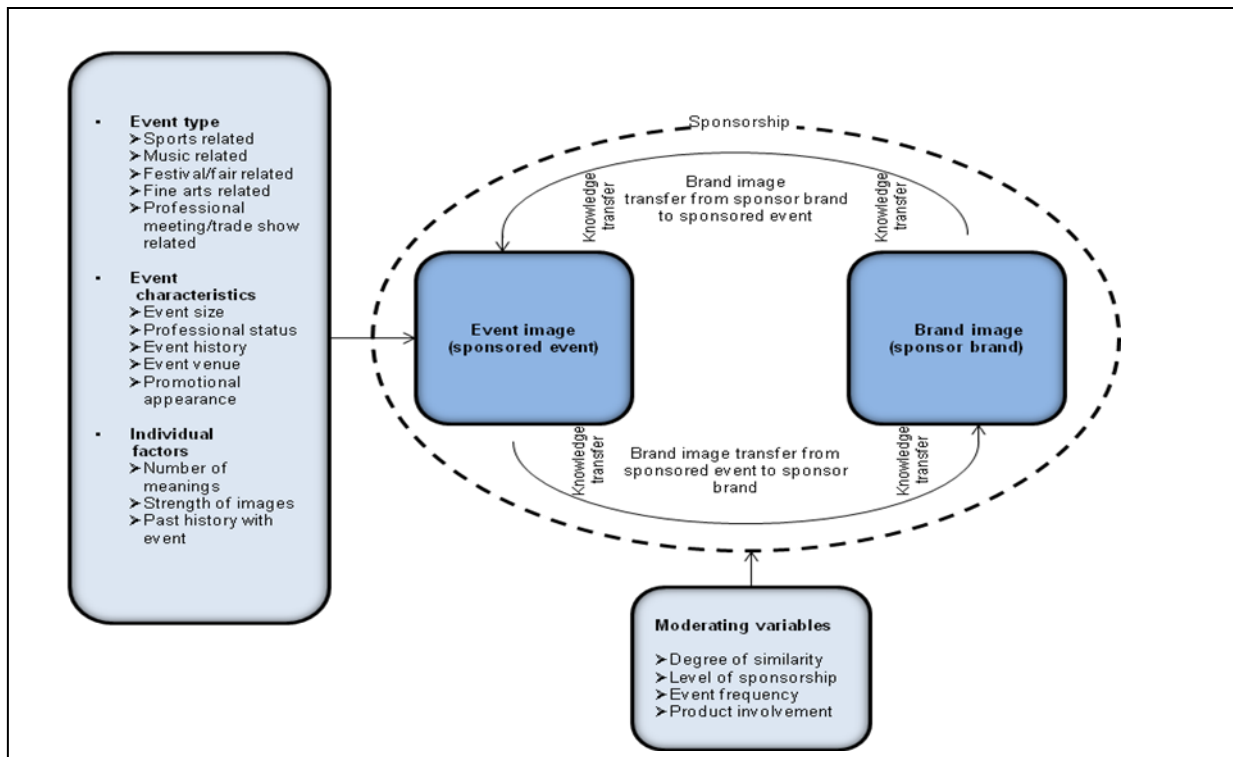
Source: Adapted from Gwinner (1997:148)

An event's brand image can be viewed in the same light as an organisational brand image. That is, just as consumers' perceptions are affected about organisational offerings through branding, so too might their perceptions of events be affected through branding (Gwinner and Eaton, 1999). An event's brand image is characterised by a particular group of consumers' overall subjective perceptions of the activity specific to the event. This is similar to the description of a product brand image, in that the brand image is how consumers perceive brands. Gwinner (1997:148) identifies three factors which may impact the perceptions of events. These include event type, event characteristics and individual factors.

o   *Event type.* The "event type" refers to whether the event is sport-related, culture-related, charity-related or otherwise-related. Examples of event type factors include the FIFA 2010 Soccer World Cup, the Cape Town City Ballet and the CANSA Shavathon initiative.

o *Event characteristics.* The event characteristics refer to the event size, the professional status of the participants in the event, the venue where the event is to take place and the promotional appearance of the event. An event may be local or provincial; host amateur participants or professional participants; be hosted in a stadium or on a local soccer pitch; and be broadcasted nationally or advertised locally. The size and status of the event as perceived by consumers will reflect the brand image of the sponsored event.

o *Individual factors.* The individual factors could be the number of images associated with the event, the strength of these images and the past history of the event.

Brand image attributes of organisational brands and events can be managed by marketing managers in order to enhance consumers' knowledge of brands. Gwinner (1997:147) suggests that through sponsorship, events' brand images will be transferred to the sponsoring brands through knowledge transfer, ultimately facilitating the creation and enhancement of brand image.

As illustrated in Figure 4.2, the moderating variables which influence the rate of brand image transfer from events to brands include the degree of similarity, the level of sponsorship, the event frequency and brand involvement (Gwinner, 1997:148). If brands and events are similar, the sponsorship level is intense, events occur frequently and consumers are highly involved with brands, strong transfer are likely to emerge between brand images of events and brand images of brands.

The purpose of this study was to assess brand image transfer in sponsorship. In order to assess brand image transfer in sponsorship, the respective brand images of a sponsoring party and a sponsored event need to be assessed. Specific brand images held by consumers are dependent on personal values and

individual purchase situations of consumers, thus marketing managers should assess their brand image attributes so as to curb competition (Pitta and Katsanis, 1995:56). As stated, consumer perceptions of events are represented by event brand image attributes, such as event types, event characteristics and individual factors of events. Similarly, consumers' perceptions of brands are represented by organisations' brand image attributes, such as the physical brand, the packaging, the price, the user characteristics and the brand usage situation (see section 3.4). Through sponsorship, knowledge about these attributes is transferred between the event and the brand. The proposed concept of brand image transfer in sponsorship is illustrated in Figure 4.3.

Figure 4.3 Brand and event image transfer in sponsorship
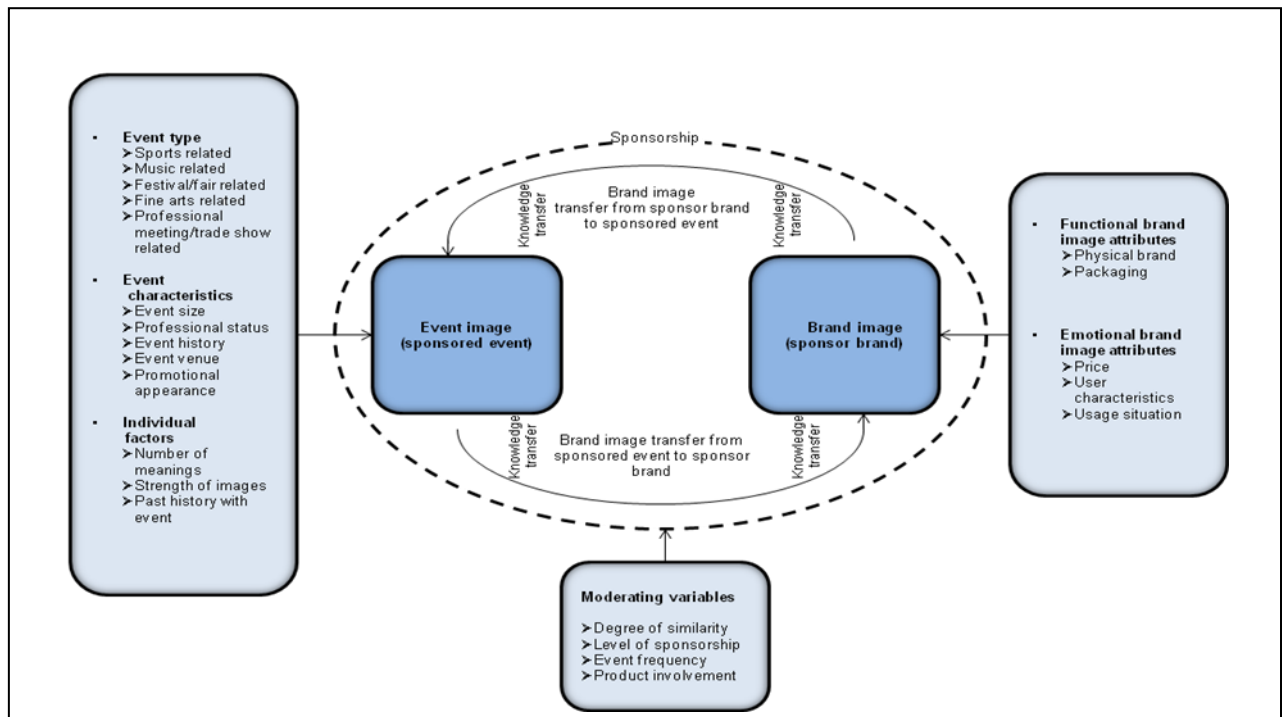
Source: Adapted from Gwinner (1997:148)

4.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter aimed to clarify how sponsorship is linked to the marketing function as a marketing communication tactic. Firstly, sponsorship was examined as a

construct in marketing literature, and its importance was highlighted. Sponsorship is regarded as a marketing communication tool used by marketing managers to communicate with consumers. Marketing communication is an element in the marketing mix. The management of the marketing mix is one of the strategies employed by marketing managers in the marketing function. Sponsorship is an important marketing communication tool because it is a means by which marketing managers can change organisational brand images. Sponsorship was then dealt with in detail. It was explained how there is a constant rise in the popularity of sponsorship as a marketing communication tool. Marketing managers regard sponsorship as having the ability to achieve various responses from consumers, namely cognitive, affective and behavioural responses. It was deduced that brand image changes occur during consumers' cognitive processing of information, and thus meaning transfers are appropriate as sponsorship tactics to affect brand image. The chapter concluded with an examination of brand image transfer in sponsorship.

Upon investigating sponsorship, it was found that sponsorship as described in this chapter plays a similar role to branding as described in Chapter 3 with regard to the marketing function. Both branding and sponsorship are strategies implemented by marketing managers to achieve profit margin objectives. Branding allows marketing managers to perform positioning strategies, and sponsorship is used by marketing managers as a marketing communication tactic. Positioning and marketing communication are tactics in the marketing function of business management. Furthermore, sponsorship is used to communicate brand image messages to consumers through the implementation of brand image transfer in sponsorship.

The purpose of this study was to assess brand image transfer in sponsorship. Chapters 2, 3 and 4 described how brand image transfer in sponsorship fits into the broader spectrum of the marketing function and ultimately business

management. Chapter 5 addresses the empirical assessment of brand image transfer in sponsorship.

CHAPTER 5

METHODOLOGY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The objective of this study was to assess brand image transfer in sponsorship by assessing the brand image transfer from a sponsor brand to a sponsored event and assessing the brand image transfer from a sponsored event to a sponsor brand. The research design used to address the objectives of this study is explained in this chapter with reference to the marketing research process. Before embarking on a discussion of the marketing research process, marketing research is defined, where after the marketing research process is applied to the study.

5.2 MARKETING RESEARCH

Successful marketing researchers understand that marketing research is conducted for only one reason - to help make better marketing decisions (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2002:23). The American Marketing Association (2007) describes marketing research as the function which links consumers with marketing managers through information used to identify and define marketing opportunities and problems; develop, refine and evaluate marketing activities; monitor marketing performance; and emphasise the importance of marketing as a process. Churchill and Iacobucci (2002:9) state that marketing research serves as a communication link between organisations and consumers. Malhotra and Birks (2000:3) acknowledge that marketing research is linked to all facets of marketing decision-making. Marketing research can help organisations improve

their marketing activities and inevitably better long term relationships with consumers, and ultimately satisfy consumer needs.

"Marketing research is the systematic and objective identification, collection, analysis and dissemination of information for improving decision-making related to the identification and solution of problems and opportunities in marketing" (Malhotra and Birks, 2000:7). In other words, marketing research is approached in a systematic manner. Marketing researchers make use of the marketing research process - a detailed system which incorporates all areas of a marketing research project.

5.3 THE MARKETING RESEARCH PROCESS

Research can be conducted in many different ways; however, a systematic approach is used by most researchers (Zikmund, 2003:59). The marketing research process is used to define a set of continuously overlapping steps which are needed to address the objectives of a marketing research study (Malhotra, 2004:9). It is noted by Churchill and Iacobucci (2002:54) that each research problem is unique in some or other way and requires a tailor-made research design. However, the marketing research process serves as a standard set of steps which act as a platform for a research design. These steps can each be tailor-made for a unique research project. The steps include the following: the problem definition; the research design; the research method; the design of the measuring instrument (questionnaire); the sampling design; the fieldwork and data collection; data analysis; the presentation of findings; and the follow up. The standard marketing research process serves as a guideline which researchers can apply to unique research problems. For the purposes of this study, the marketing research process was applied to the case of assessing brand image transfer in sponsorship; and was specifically adapted to meet the objectives of the research.

5.4 PROBLEM DEFINITION

"A problem well defined is half-solved" (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2002:61). Before an appropriate research methodology was designed, it was necessary to formulate the research problem properly, because, according to Zikmund (2003:62), data collected before the nature of the research problem is known and clearly defined will not help to solve the research problem at hand.

A research task involves the clarification of a problem, the evaluation of a problem or the identification of an opportunity (Zikmund, 2003:60). In other words, the research problem does not necessarily have to be a negative topic as the word "problem" suggests. It can also be an opportunity. In the case of this study - assessing brand image transfer in sponsorship - the research task was that of identifying opportunities. For the remainder of this study, the term "problem" is used in the context of an opportunity.

Defining the problem involves stating the general problem in broad terms and then specifying the components of the marketing research problem (Malhotra, 2004:33). The general problem in this study was to assess brand image transfer in sponsorship. After the problem was identified and clarified (see section 1.6), an approach was developed to address the research problem. Malhotra (2004:33) suggests that the following components be addressed in the approach: a theoretical and objective framework, hypotheses and the specification of the information required.

5.4.1 REVISITING THE THEORY

Research should be supported by objective evidence and be based on a theory (Malhotra, 2004:47). The theory allows a researcher to firstly be guided in the empirical research, and secondly to determine which variables should be investigated in the empirical research. Theoretical considerations identified in

previous chapters suggested that branding tactics and sponsorship approaches are theoretically rooted within the marketing function. The theoretical orientation of brand image transfer in sponsorship (as discussed in Chapter 4) is depicted in Figure 5.1.

As stated, in knowledge transfer endeavours, consumers align their previous knowledge obtained through various stimuli with the brand in question (see section 1.3). Marketing managers are able to transfer knowledge by exposing consumers to stimuli (such as sponsorship) which enable consumers to become aware of brands. Once consumers are made aware of brands, they are able to accumulate knowledge about the brand and eventually develop perceptions of a brand's image (Gho, 2002, Moreau *et al.,* 2001; Rowley, 2002). Sponsorship is a stimuli which stimulates knowledge transfer, and ultimately brand image transfer. The focus of this study was to assess brand image transfer in sponsorship.

Figure 5.1 Theoretical orientation of brand image transfer in sponsorship
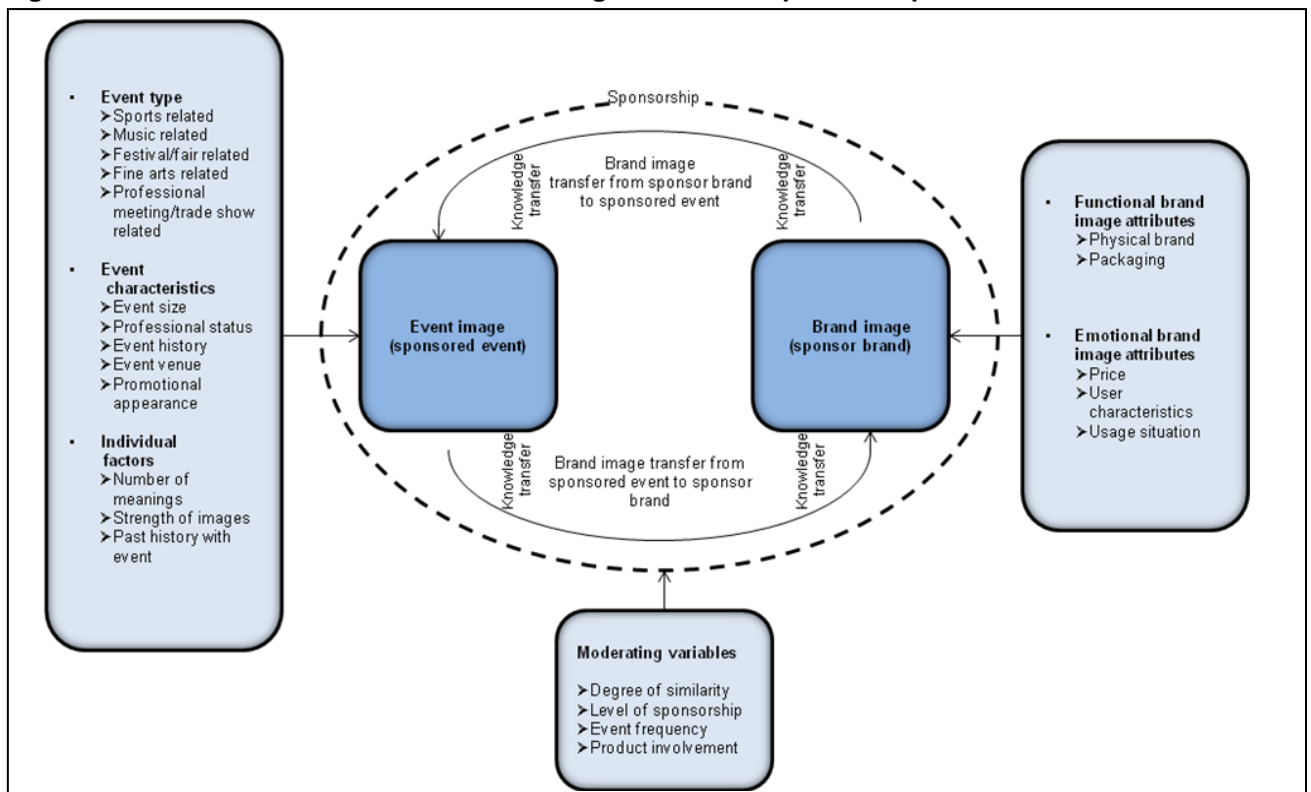
Source: Adapted from Biel (1992); Keller (1993); Chen (2001); Gwinner (1997)

5.4.2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The specification of objectives of the specific research project forms an integral part of the problem definition (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2002:54). The primary objective of this study was to assess brand image transfer in sponsorship. Secondary objectives identified for the purposes of this study therefore included the following:

- Assess the brand image transfer from a sponsor brand to a sponsored event.

- Assess the brand image transfer from a sponsored event to a sponsor brand.

5.5 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design is a framework for performing the marketing research project (Malhotra, 2004:74). Firstly, marketing research can either be classified as primary research or secondary research. Secondary research was used to orient the researcher with literature on sponsorship and branding tactics within the marketing function. Secondary data is collected for purposes other than that of a present study and primary data is originated from the researcher for the specific purpose of addressing the research problem (Malhotra, 2004:102). Thus primary and secondary research were used throughout this study.

All research can be categorised into three general types of research, namely exploratory research, descriptive research and causal research (Aaker, Kumar and Day, 2001:72). These groups are depicted in Figure 5.2. Exploratory research is used for research problems which are vague and studies which have little prior knowledge on which to build theories (Aaker *et al.,* 2001:72). As its name suggests, exploratory research is used to *explore* a situation. Often the hypotheses of exploratory research are not clearly defined or even non-existent.

Exploratory research is mainly used to discover ideas and gain insight into situations (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2002:91). Thus, the research methods are flexible, unstructured and qualitative in nature.

Figure 5.2 Types of research designs
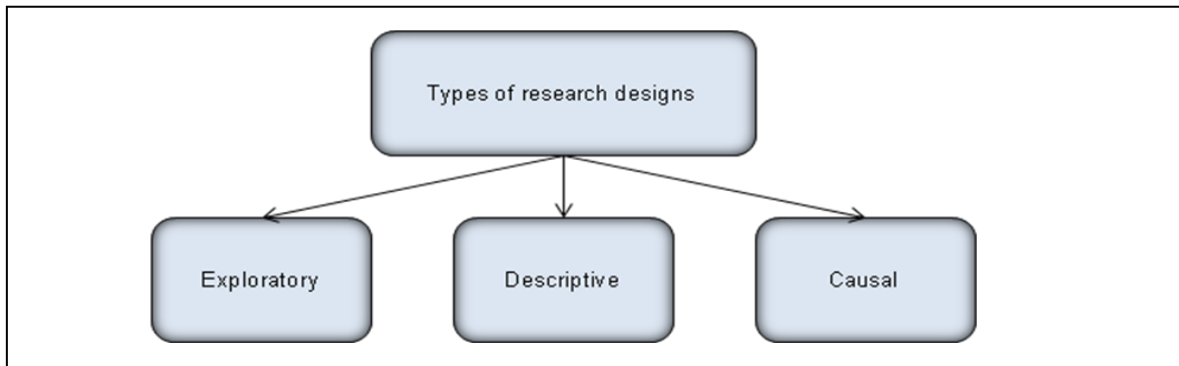
Source: Adapted from Aaker *et al.* (2001:72)

Descriptive research is often used in marketing research to describe the market, consumers or environment of an organisation (Aaker *et al.*, 2001:74). As its name suggests, descriptive research is used to *describe* a situation. Descriptive studies usually deal with frequencies of occurrences (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2002:91).

Causal research allows causal inferences to be made and seeks to identify cause-and-effect relationships (Zikmund and Babin, 2007:53). The hypotheses for causal research are usually well-defined and specific. Evidence of a relationship or association is useful. According to Malhotra (2004:85), causal research is appropriate to understand which variables are the cause and which variables are the effects of an event, as well as to determine the nature of the relationship between these variables. In the case of assessing brand image transfer in sponsorship, the effects of the sponsorship on the perceived brand images of a sponsor brand and a sponsored event were assessed using causal research.

According to Zikmund and Babin, (2007:56), marketing experiments hold the greatest potential for establishing cause-and-effect relationships. An experiment is a carefully controlled study in which the researcher manipulates a proposed cause and observes any corresponding change in the proposed effect. The research method applied in this study was thus an experiment.

5.6 RESEARCH METHOD

The purpose of this study was to assess brand image transfer in sponsorship. Brand image attributes of a sponsor brand and a sponsored event were selected and assessed to determine whether or not they had an effect on the perceived brand images of the sponsor brand and the sponsored event. If they were, it could be concluded that brand image transfer does occur in sponsorship in that the brand image from the sponsor brand is transferred to that of the sponsored event and vice versa.

Primary research was conducted by means of an experiment. An experiment is a method by which conditions are controlled in order for the researcher to be able to manipulate one or more of the variables for the purpose of testing a hypothesis (Zikmund, 2003:257). Experimental designs can be categorised into two groups, namely classical designs and statistical designs (Aaker *et al.,* 2001:337). As illustrated in Figure 5.3, classical designs can be pre-experimental, true experimental and quasi-experimental designs. Statistical designs are somewhat different from classical designs in that they are used to examine the effects of different treatment levels of an experimental variable, and also the effects of two or more independent variables. Statistical designs include completely randomised designs, randomised block designs, Latin square designs and factorial designs.

Figure 5.3 Classification of experimental designs
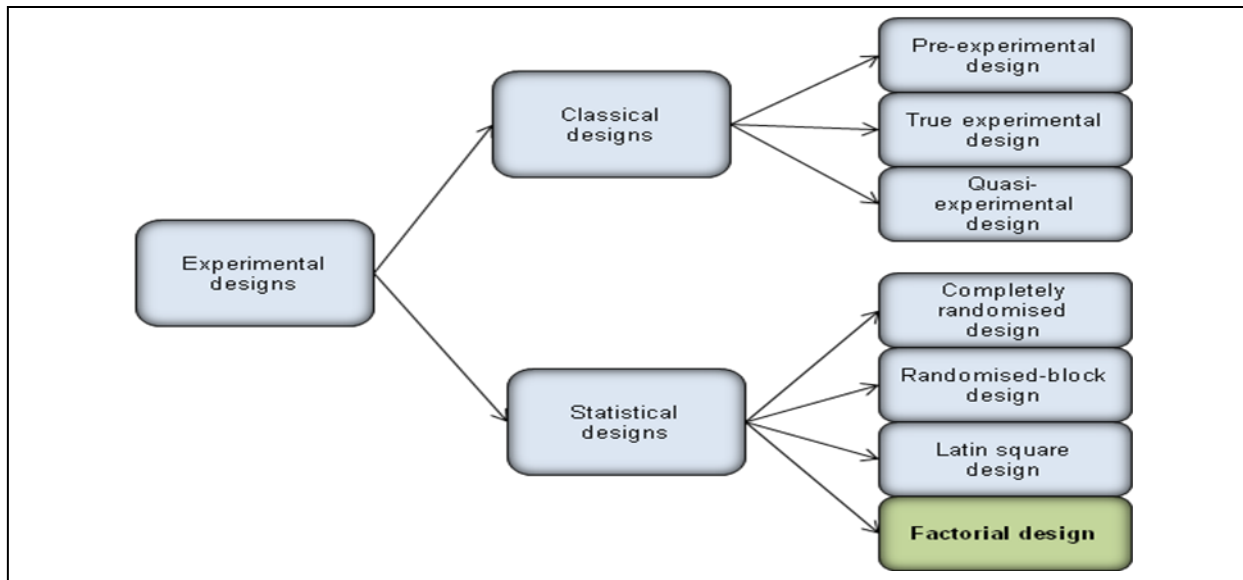
Source: Adapted from Aaker *et al.* (2001:338)

For the purposes of this study, a 2 x 2 x 2 x 2 full factorial design was applied to assess brand image transfer in sponsorship, because the research was designed with more than two factors (Shiu, Hair, Bush and Ortinau, 2009). As stated, brand image is composed of brand image attributes, which may be classified as either functional/product related attributes or emotional/non-product related attributes (see section 3.4). Similarly, event brand image is composed of event image attributes, which include event type, event characteristics (status of event, size of event, event history, event venue) and individual factors (see section 4.3). Consequently, there are many brand image attributes which make up a brand image or an event image. Four sponsor brand and sponsored event brand image attributes were selected as experimental factors to assess brand image transfer in sponsorship, namely the physical product and price of a sponsor brand and the status and size of a sponsored event. The four brand image attributes were chosen to keep the size of the study manageable and simple to understand. In order to assess the selected brand image attributes of a sponsor brand and a sponsored event, the researcher designed a fictitious sponsor brand, namely FruityBliss fruit juice and a fictitious sponsored event, namely the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge.

5.6.1 FRUITYBLISS FRUIT JUICE (SPONSOR BRAND)

In South Africa, the most popular sponsors of sporting events include McDonalds, Vodacom, Visa, Sony, Castrol, ABSA and MTN (Ford, 2010). It is uncommon that fruit juice brands are used to sponsor sporting events. By assessing the brand image of an unconventional sponsor, any bias toward the specific type of sponsor could be avoided, because the general public did not have pre-established ideas about a fruit juice brand sponsoring sporting events. Thus a fruit juice brand was decided upon to assess the effects of sponsorship on a sponsor brand. To further avoid any biases toward the fruit juice sponsor, a fictitious fruit juice sponsor was designed, namely FruityBliss fruit juice.

Physical product and price were chosen as the brand image attributes of the sponsor brand. These variables were selected because they were relatively easy to manipulate in the experiment. A qualitative pre-test confirmed that the selected levels of quality of the sponsor brand (20% fruit juice/100%fruit juice/R6,59/R19,59) to be manipulated were accurate and corresponded with perceived levels of quality in practice.

- **Physical product of sponsor brand**

The brand image of the sponsor brand (FruityBliss) was manipulated by the quality of the physical product of the sponsor brand (percentage fruit juice found in the product). Consumers use a variety of cues to construe physical product quality. Rao and Monroe (1989:352) use the example of consumers using nutrition content to assess the quality of a breakfast cereal. Similarly, it was assumed that the quality of the physical product of the sponsor brand would be assessed by whether FruityBliss is made up of pure fruit juice or lesser than pure fruit juice. A qualitative pre-test was conducted to determine what percentage of fruit juice indicated a high quality fruit juice and what percentage of fruit juice indicated a low quality fruit juice. The pre-test revealed that a high level of fruit juice within any fruit juice product is 100% fruit juice; a low level of fruit juice

within any fruit juice product is 20% fruit juice. These indications from respondents corresponded with existing fruit juice brands. Therefore, 100% fruit juice was manipulated as the highest variable for the physical product of the sponsor brand (FruityBliss) and 20% fruit juice was manipulated as the lowest variable for the physical product of the sponsor brand (FruityBliss).

- **Price of sponsor brand**

The brand image of the sponsor brand (FruityBliss) was also manipulated by price. Price is the fiscal value assigned to products on offer to consumers, and may include discounts, allowances and payment options (Lamb *et al.*, 2004). Consumers assume that the higher the price of a product, the higher the quality the product should reflect (Chen, 2001). Prices for the brand image of the sponsor brand (FruityBliss) were therefore set according to the general public's opinion of what a low quality fruit juice is priced at and what a high quality fruit juice is priced at. Fruit juice brands of high quality retail around R14.00 and fruit juice brands of low quality retail around R8.00. For the purposes of assessing the price of a sponsor brand (FruityBliss) at two different levels, a low price was set at R6.59 and a high price by R19.59.

5.6.2 THE PROFRIZ FRISBEE CHALLENGE (SPONSORED EVENT)

As discussed in section 4.2.2, sport sponsorship is generally more successful than the sponsorship of arts or social causes and should thus be given particular consideration within the marketing function. Common sport events involved in sponsorships include rugby, cricket and soccer (see section 4.2.2). For the purposes of this study, it was necessary to select an event type which was not a commonly sponsored event type, in other words an event which would not hold any pre-conceived perceptions amongst the general public. Therefore, a Frisbee event was selected as the sponsored event. A fictitious Frisbee event, namely the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge, was created in attempt to eliminate any prior bias toward the sponsored event.

Event status and the size of the event were chosen as the brand image attributes of the sponsored event. These variables were selected because they were relatively easy to manipulate in the experiment. A full factorial design was required to evaluate two or more variables simultaneously (Aaker *et al.,* 2001: 349). It was therefore necessary to select simple variables due to the size of the experiment (2 x 2 x 2 x 2). A qualitative pre-test confirmed that the selected levels of quality of the sponsored event (amateur/professional/local/national) to be manipulated were accurate and corresponded with perceived levels of quality in practice.

- **Status**

In most cases, according to Gwinner (1997:150), perceptions of quality of the sponsored event will be higher if the event is professional (players are highly experienced and paid high salaries). For the purposes of this study, the level of professionalism of the sponsored event (ProFriz Frisbee Challenge) was dependent on the number of teams participating in the event. Since the study was conducted in July 2010 (the month the FIFA 2010 Soccer World Cup took place), the qualitative pre-test revealed that a professional sport event is characterised by thirty-two teams. The FIFA 2010 Soccer World Cup had thirty-two teams and was considered a professional sport event. An amateur sporting event was identified as an event hosting only two teams, because two teams is the lowest number of teams which can participate in a sport event. Therefore, in this study, a professional sponsored event (ProFriz Frisbee Challenge) was characterised as an event hosting thirty-two teams and an amateur sponsored event (ProFriz Frisbee Challenge) was characterised as an event hosting two teams.

- **Size**

Large, elaborately staged events such as the 2010 FIFA World Cup held in South Africa and the 2010 Commonwealth Games held in India, generally increase perceptions of quality of sponsored events (Gwinner, 1997:150). For

the purposes of this study, the size of the sponsored event (ProFriz Frisbee Challenge) was manipulated by either being a large (national) event or small (local) event.

Since the purpose of this study was to assess the brand image transfer between a sponsor brand (FruityBliss) and a sponsored event (ProFriz Frisbee Challenge), the sum of the four identified brand image attributes, as well as each individual brand image attribute had to be assessed (Klemz, 2008:1). It was necessary to manipulate the selected brand image attributes (physical product, price, status and size) by their respective levels in order to determine at which level of quality brand image transfer occurs between a sponsor brand and a sponsored event.

As stated, this study made use of a full factorial experimental design (2 x 2 x 2 x 2). The various manipulations of the brand image attributes were presented in sixteen A3-sized posters (see Annexure B), advertising the FruityBliss ProFriz Frisbee Challenge. Each experimental group was therefore allocated a poster with a specific manipulation of sponsor brand and sponsored event quality as depicted in Table 5.1. Sixteen experimental groups were designed to assess the different levels of the attributes which represent the brand image scores of the sponsor brand and the sponsored event. To ensure validity of the results, experimental group 16 was repeated as a control group (n=26).

Table 5.1 Factorial design for assessment of brand image transfer in sponsorship

Assessing brand image transfer in sponsorship	
Experimental group	**Description of manipulated variables**
Experimental group 1	100% fruit juice/R19,59/32 teams/national
Experimental group 2	100% fruit juice/R6,59/32 teams/national
Experimental group 3	100% fruit juice/R19,59/2 teams/local
Experimental group 4	100% fruit juice/R19,59/32 teams/local
Experimental group 5	100% fruit juice/R6,59/2 teams/national
Experimental group 6	100% fruit juice/R6,59/2 teams/local
Experimental group 7	100% fruit juice/R19,59/2 teams/local
Experimental group 8	20% fruit juice/R19,59/32 teams/national
Experimental group 9	20% fruit juice/R6,59/32 teams/national
Experimental group 10	20% fruit juice/R19,59/2 teams/national
Experimental group 11	20% fruit juice/R19,59/32 teams/local
Experimental group 12	20% fruit juice/R6,59/2 teams/national
Experimental group 13	20% fruit juice/R6,59/2 teams/local
Experimental group 14	20% fruit juice/R19,59/2 teams/local
Experimental group 15	20% fruit juice/R6,59/32 teams/local
Experimental group 16	100% fruit juice/R6,59/32 teams/local

Once exposed to the relevant posters in the respective experimental groups, respondents were required to answer a questionnaire about FruityBliss (sponsor brand) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (sponsored event).

5.7 THE MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENT

Designing the measurement instrument is a critical point in the research process (Zikmund and Babin, 2007:353). The measurement instrument used in this study was a questionnaire (see Annexure A). Malhotra (2004:282) highlighted that researchers should take into account various considerations when designing questionnaires. Specific information needs to be identified in order to meet research objectives and questions need to be phrased correctly, sequenced correctly and the layout of the questionnaire needs to be suitable for meeting objectives of the research. These steps were taken into account when designing the questionnaire for this study.

The questionnaire was designed with structured questions only. This entails that each question had a specified format and was assigned a specified set of response alternatives (Malhotra and Birks, 1999). A combination of nominal, ordinal and interval scales were used in the design of the questionnaire. The scale questions were five-point multiple-item Likert scale questions and allowed respondents to demonstrate how strongly they agreed or disagreed with statements that ranged from very positive to very negative (Zikmund, 2003).

The researcher adapted pre-determined scales of five questions used to assess quality perceptions of products, in order to assess the brand images of a sponsor brand (FruityBliss) and a sponsored event (the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge). The Cronbach coefficient alphas of the pre-determined scales were above 0.75. The respective brand images were assessed in light of physical product, price, event status and event size. As stated, physical product and price of a sponsor brand, as well as status and size of a sponsored event, are closely related to consumers' perceptions of quality (see section 5.6). Thus, pre-determined scales measuring perceptions of product quality were adapted to suit the purposes of this study (see Annexure C). Pre-determined scales were also adapted to measure respondents attitudes towards healthy lifestyles, fruit juice and sport so

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as to account for their responses to the main constructs measuring respondents perceptions of the sponsor brand and sponsored event.

As respondents were interviewed in a mall and personal interviews were conducted by fieldworkers, a flashcard was presented to respondents so that they were clear on which response alternatives were available to them (see Annexure D). The flashcard portrayed a Likert scale ranging from one to five, where one indicated that respondents strongly disagreed with the statements and five indicated that they strongly agreed with the statements. An overall mean score was then established by combining the responses from each statement (Proctor, 2000).

In order to control for any order bias in the questionnaire, careful attention was paid to the layout of the questionnaire. According to Zikmund (2003), order bias results from earlier questions in a questionnaire or an answer's position in a set of answers. The questionnaire was laid out in the following sequence:

o   Back check details including name, contact details, name of fieldworker and date.

o   Measurement of perception of quality of the sponsor brand (FruityBliss).

o   Measurement of perception of quality of the sponsored event (the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge).

o   Demographics concerning the health status, fruit juice consumption and sport interest of respondents.

o   Demographics including gender, age, population group and home language.

o   Additional questions for LSM and sampling purposes (see section 5.8).

An essential step prior to the collection of data was to pilot the draft questionnaire and revise it if necessary. A pilot study is defined as a small-scale exploratory research technique that uses sampling but does not apply any rigorous standards (Zikmund, 2003). A pilot study was used as a pre-testing mechanism for the questionnaire. The questionnaire was pilot-tested over a period of five days amongst a total of 50 respondents. The main purpose of the pilot study was to detect flaws in the measurement procedures such as time limits and instructions, to identify unclear or ambiguously formulated items, to test the reliability of the multiple scale questions, and to search for non-verbal behaviour from the respondents which might be useful.

Cronbach's coefficient alpha measures the internal consistency of a measurement scale and ranges from 0 to 1. A coefficient alpha of 0.7 or greater is considered to report a reliable measurement scale (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). The coefficient alphas of the brand image of the sponsor brand (FruityBliss) and the sponsored event (the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge), as well as the coefficient alphas of the mean scores of respondents' health interest, fruit juice consumption and sport interest were satisfactory in the pilot study and the questionnaire was thus left unchanged for the actual study.

The next stage in the marketing research process was that of designing a sampling plan.

5.8 SAMPLING DESIGN

Once the research design was finalised and the questionnaire was ready for administration, the researcher had to clarify the sample. Researchers use sampling processes to be able to make assumptions about a large group of respondents. The sample refers to a smaller group within this large group who represent the large group. The large group is commonly referred to as the

population (Zikmund and Babin, 2007:403). According to Malhotra (2004), designing the sampling requires the following steps:

5.8.1 STEP 1: IDENTIFYING AND SPECIFYING THE TARGET POPULATION

The target population should be clearly defined so that the proper sources from which the data are to be collected can be identified (Zikmund and Babin, 2007:406). For the purposes of this study, the target population was defined as shoppers in LSM (Living Standards Measure) groups 8 to 10.

The Living Standards Measure (LSM) was developed by the South African Advertising Research Foundation (SAARF, 2010). It is an index used for segmentation, specifically in South Africa, and measures social class, or living standard, regardless of race, income or education. As stated in section 5.6, fruit juice was selected as the product of the sponsor brand (FruityBliss) and Frisbee was chosen as the sport of the sponsored event (ProFriz Frisbee Challenge). According to SAARF (2010), individuals in LSM groups 8 to 10 have higher disposable incomes, have a high level of education, are exposed to all forms of media, enjoy hobbies and have access to gyms. Therefore, the researcher assumed that most shoppers who purchase fruit juice and know what a Frisbee is fall within LSM groups 8 to 10, and thus shoppers in LSM groups 8 to 10 would be suitable in assessing the brand images of FruityBliss and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge.

Important to note is that the purpose of this study was not to obtain information about a specific type of shopper or consumer. The aim of this study was to assess the transfer of the brand images between a sponsor brand and a sponsored event. Therefore, more emphasis was placed on acquiring a sample which would yield reliable responses about the selected sponsor brand and the selected sponsored event than on a specific type of respondent.

5.8.2 STEP 2: ACQUIRE A SAMPLING FRAME

A sampling frame is a list of population elements from which a sample may be drawn (Zikmund and Babin, 2007:407). Due to the nature of the experiment and the fact that it was conducted in shopping malls, a reliable and valid sampling frame did not exist and was not available to the researcher. A sampling frame is required in most probability sampling procedures (Aaker *et al.*, 2001:371). In non-probability sampling, the challenges associated with acquiring a sampling frame are eliminated, as a sampling frame is not necessary. Thus, for the purposes of this study, a non-probability sampling method was applied.

5.8.3 STEP 3: SAMPLING SIZE

The sample size involves how many units will be included in a research study (Malhotra, 2004:318). When deciding on the sample size for a study, it is important to consider a cost-benefit analysis. In this way the question of sample size can be complex. The sample design depends on the type of sample, homogeneity of the population and the time, money and personnel available for the study (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2002:498).

Klemz (2008:1) states that for a full factorial experiment, a minimum number of 24 respondents for each cell is required. For the purposes of this study, 26 respondents were interviewed in each experimental group. Thus, a total number of 416 respondents were interviewed in this study (not including the repeat of experimental group 16 that served as a validity measurement).

5.8.4 STEP 4: SAMPLING METHOD

The sampling method used for the purposes of this study was a non-probability sampling technique, more specifically, a multi-stage sampling technique. Non-probability sampling is dependent on researchers' personal judgement rather

than a random chance of the units being selected (Malhotra, 2004:320). The stages used to sample the population are discussed below.

- **Stage one**

Judgement sampling was applied as the first stage of the sampling procedure. Judgement sampling involves the selection of the sample by an experienced individual based upon some appropriate characteristic of the sample members (Zikmund, 2003) in this study. The city of Johannesburg was the primary sampling unit. Johannesburg is known to be the most culturally-diverse and industrialised city in South Africa. Also, most people in South Africa who fall within LSM groups 8 to 10 are found in Johannesburg (Statistics South Africa, 2010).

- **Stage two**

Judgement sampling was once again applied in the second stage of the sampling process. The secondary sampling units refer to the units selected in the second stage of sampling. A number of shopping malls in the Johannesburg region were identified as secondary sampling units by the researcher. A list of all the possible malls which allowed the collection of data was drawn up and then three were selected by means of the judgement sampling technique. As stated, judgment sampling involves the selection of the sample by an experienced individual based upon some appropriate characteristic of the sample members (Zikmund, 2003). For the purpose of this study, shopping malls considered to be frequented by LSM groups 8 to 10 were selected as the secondary sampling units. The specific shopping malls selected for sampling are depicted in Table 5.2 below.

Table 5.2 Secondary sampling units

Shopping mall	Number of respondents
Greenstone Mall (Eastgate)	366
Randburg Square (Randburg)	39
Protea Centre (Brixton)	37
Total	**442**

- **Stage three**

The sample respondents were finally selected by convenience sampling. Convenience sampling is where the researcher makes use of the most convenient sample accessible (Zikmund and Babin, 2007:402). The sampling units tend to be accessible, easy to measure and cooperative. Fieldworkers were instructed to target an equal number of male and female shoppers, as a Frisbee tournament was selected as the sponsored event and not a typically male- or female-only sport. The fieldworkers approached shoppers walking in the mall who appeared to be aged 18 and older and who appeared to be from the LSM 8 to 10 categories, and requested a few minutes of shoppers' time to conduct the interview. In order to ensure that the respondents were indeed from the required LSM groups, their living standards were measured at the end of the questionnaire (see Annexure A). Those respondents who did not fall within LSM groups 8 to 10 were omitted from the study. The sampling process as approached in this study is illustrated in Figure 5.3.

Figure 5.3 The non-probability sampling process

Stage 1:	Judgment sampling: Johannesburg
Stage 2:	Judgment sampling: shopping malls representative of LSM groups 8-10 in Johannesburg
Stage 3:	Convenience sampling: shoppers
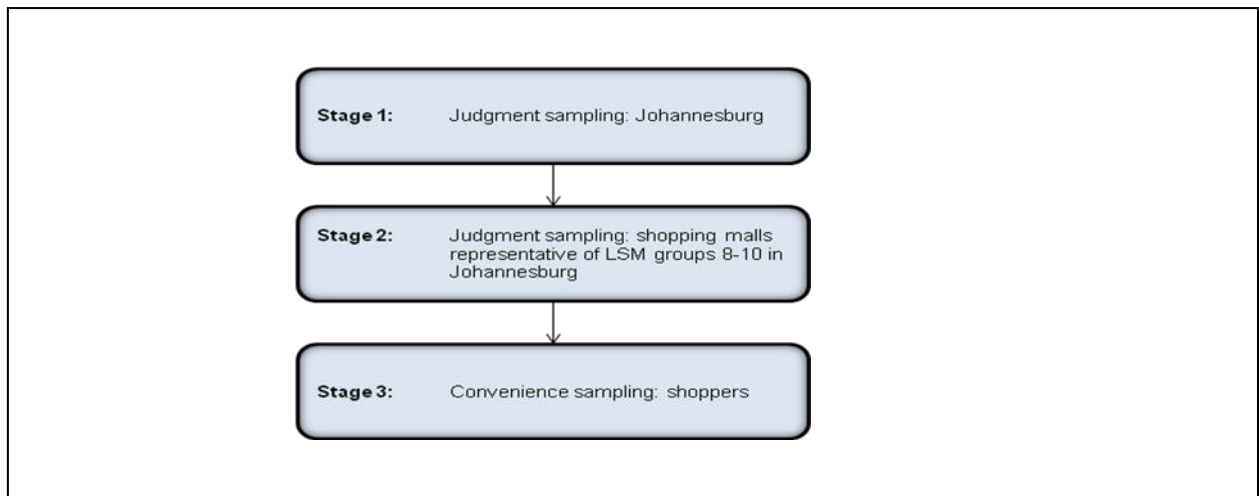
Once the research design was completed, the process of collecting information from respondents could commence. This process is referred to as fieldwork and data collection.

5.9   FIELDWORK AND DATA COLLECTION

The data was collected by fieldworkers assigned by *Interserv Market Research*. According to Malhotra and Birks (1999:412), fieldworkers are responsible for making contact with potential respondents, administering the questionnaires, recording the data and submitting the completed questionnaires for processing. For the purposes of meeting the objectives in this study, six fieldworkers were selected by *Interserv Market Research* to complete these tasks.

The respondents were approached in shopping malls by the fieldworkers and fieldworkers conducted personal interviews with the respondents. As stated, the perceived brand images of the sponsor brand and the sponsored event were assessed by means of a questionnaire (see section 5.7). Respondents were required to look at a poster and thereafter rate their perceptions about the sponsor brand and the sponsored event depicted in the poster.

In order to be able to ensure a certain level of control over the interview, the respondents were required to answer the questionnaire in the presence of the

fieldworker. As stated, respondents were presented with a flashcard (see Annexure D) which showed them which responses were available to them for each statement (see section 5.7). This also enabled the fieldworker to manage any errors such as non-response, misunderstandings and sample bias. The data was collected over a weekend. The questionnaire took on average six to eight minutes to complete. After the collection of the data, 20% of all the 416 questionnaires were back-checked as a means of quality control.

5.10 DATA ANALYSIS

Once the data was collected from the field it is necessary to convert the information into a format that can be "read" by a computer (Ferber, 1974) and ultimately be used to solve the research objectives of the study. Each questionnaire was scrutinised for omissions, illegibility and consistency in classifications. Questionnaires which did not meet these standards were discarded so as to maintain the quality of responses at maximum levels. Each response was allocated a code which was in turn used for recording and interpreting the data (Zikmund, 2003). The coding was completed by the researcher and values were entered into SPSS version 18.0 as well as Statistica 9. Errors were corrected before the actual data analyses were conducted. Descriptive analysis and inferential analysis methods (see Chapter 6) were selected and applied in accordance with the objectives of this study and at the judgement of the researcher.

5.10.1   DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive statistics are routinely used as a first stage in all quantitative research. The descriptive statistics make no assumptions about the data, but merely describe the data. Examples include cross tabulations, medians, percentiles and means (Zikmund and Babin, 2007). The researcher conducted descriptive statistics and frequency analyses to obtain a thorough understanding of the sample and the perceptions of the respondents before embarking on the

tests for significant differences using inferential statistics (see section 6.2 and section 6.3). The descriptive data also helped to identify any possible areas of future interest or research surrounding the topics of brand image and sponsorship.

5.10.2　INFERENTIAL STATISTICS

Inferential statistics are used to make statistical inferences from a sample about a whole population (Zikmund and Babin, 2007). A basic premise of statistical inference is that it is possible for numbers to be different in a mathematical sense, but not significantly different in a statistical sense (McDaniel and Gates, 2001). A difference has statistical significance if there is sufficient reason to believe that the difference does not represent random sampling fluctuations alone (Cooper and Schindler, 2003). Inferential statistics are used to test hypotheses, which in turn identify where statistical differences lie. For the purposes of this study, the statements for the null hypotheses tests were formulated as follows:

H_{01}:　There is no significant main effect interaction between FruityBliss (sponsor brand) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (sponsored event).

H_{02}:　There is no significant main effect interaction between FruityBliss (100% pure fruit juice) and FruityBliss (20% fruit juice).

H_{03}:　There is no significant main effect interaction between FruityBliss (R19,59) and FruityBliss (R6,59).

H_{04}:　There is no significant main effect interaction between the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (32 teams) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (2 teams).

H_{05}:　There is no significant main effect interaction between the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (national) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (local).

H_{06}: There is no significant 2-way interaction between FruityBliss (sponsor brand) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (sponsored event) and FruityBliss (100% fruit juice/20% fruit juice).

H_{07}: There is no significant 2-way interaction between FruityBliss (sponsor brand) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (sponsored event) and FruityBliss (R19,59/R6,59).

H_{08}: There is no significant 2-way interaction between FruityBliss (sponsor brand) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (sponsored event) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (32 teams/2 teams).

H_{09}: There is no significant 2-way interaction between FruityBliss (sponsor brand) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (sponsored event) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (national/local).

H_{010}: There is no significant 2-way interaction between the physical product of FruityBliss (100% fruit juice/20% fruit juice) and FruityBliss (R19,59/R6,59).

H_{011}: There is no significant 2-way interaction between FruityBliss (100% fruit juice/20% fruit juice) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (32 teams/2 teams).

H_{012}: There is no significant 2-way interaction FruityBliss (R19,59/R6,59) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (32 teams/ 2 teams).

H_{013}: There is no significant 2-way interaction between FruityBliss (100% fruit juice/20% fruit juice) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (national/local).

H_{014}: There is no significant 2-way interaction FruityBliss (R19,59/R6,59) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (national/local).

H$_{015}$: There is no significant 2-way interaction between the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (32 teams/2 teams) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (national/local).

H$_{016}$: There is no significant 3-way interaction between FruityBliss (sponsor brand) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (sponsored event), FruityBliss (100% fruit juice/20% fruit juice) and FruityBliss (R19,59/R6,59).

H$_{017}$: There is no significant 3-way interaction between FruityBliss (sponsor brand) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (sponsored event), FruityBliss (100% fruit juice/20% fruit juice) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (32 teams/2 teams).

H$_{018}$: There is no significant 3-way interaction between FruityBliss (sponsor brand) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (sponsored event), FruityBliss (R19,59/R6,59) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (32 teams/2 teams).

H$_{019}$: There is no significant 3-way interaction between FruityBliss (100% fruit juice/20% fruit juice), FruityBliss (R19,59/R6,59) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (32 teams/2 teams).

H$_{020}$: There is no significant 3-way interaction between FruityBliss (sponsor brand) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (sponsored event), FruityBliss (100% fruit juice/20% fruit juice) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (national/local).

H$_{021}$: There is no significant 3-way interaction between FruityBliss (sponsor brand) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (sponsored event), FruityBliss (R19,59/R6,59) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (national/local).

H_{022}: There is no significant 3-way interaction between FruityBliss (100% fruit juice/20% fruit juice), FruityBliss (R19,59/R6,59) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (national/local).

H_{023}: There is no significant 3-way interaction between FruityBliss (sponsor brand) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (sponsored event), the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (32 teams/2 teams) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (national/local).

H_{024}: There is no significant interaction between FruityBliss (100% fruit juice/20% fruit juice), the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (32 teams/2 teams) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (national/local).

H_{025}: There is no significant interaction between FruityBliss (R19,59/R6,59), the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (32 teams/2 teams) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (national/local).

H_{026}: There is no significant 4-way interaction between FruityBliss (sponsor brand) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (sponsored event), FruityBliss (100% fruit juice/20% fruit juice), FruityBliss (R19,59/R6,59) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (32 teams/2 teams).

H_{027}: There is no significant 4-way interaction between FruityBliss (sponsor brand) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (sponsored event), FruityBliss (100% fruit juice/20% fruit juice), FruityBliss (R19,59/R6,59) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (national/local).

H_{028}: There is no significant 4-way interaction between FruityBliss (sponsor brand) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (sponsored event), FruityBliss (100% fruit juice/20% fruit juice), the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (32 teams/2 teams) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (national/local).

H$_{029}$: There is no significant 4-way interaction between FruityBliss (sponsor brand) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (sponsored event), FruityBliss (R19,59/R6,59), the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (32 teams/2 teams) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (national/local).

H$_{030}$: There is no significant 4-way interaction between FruityBliss (100% fruit juice/20% fruit juice), FruityBliss (R19,59/R6,59), the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (32 teams/2 teams) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (national/local).

H$_{031}$: There is no significant 4-way interaction between FruityBliss (sponsor brand) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (sponsored event), FruityBliss (100% fruit juice/20% fruit juice), FruityBliss (R19,59/R6,59), the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (32 teams/2 teams) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (national/local).

In order to test the stated hypotheses, a number of statistical tests were performed (α=0.05) to arrive at the decision of whether or not to reject the null hypotheses (Diamantopoulos and Schlegelmilch, 2000). A mixed between-within subjects repeated measures ANOVA was applied, because it is appropriate in comparing the means of various groups (Baguley, 2006).

If the null hypothesis was rejected, and it is found that there were significant interactions amongst the variables involved in the study, a post-hoc test was conducted to determine where the interaction occurs. For the purposes of this study, the Fishers Least Significant Difference (LSD) post-hoc test was used. The Fishers LSD test was used to explore all possible pair-wise comparisons of means by using the equivalent of multiple t-tests (Stevens, 1999).

As stated, the main objective of this study was to assess the effects of the brand image attributes (physical product, price, status and size) on the perceptions of a sponsor brand image and a sponsored event brand image. This was done by firstly assessing the influence of individual brand image

attributes (main effects), and secondly by assessing of the influence of multiple brand image attributes (interactions) on the perceptions of the sponsor brand image (FruityBliss) and the sponsored event brand image (ProFriz Frisbee Challenge). To ensure that the findings from the study were trustworthy, the responses obtained from the questionnaire must be reliable and valid.

5.10.3   RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

When conducting a research study, it is necessary to indicate the extent to which the applied research instruments (in this case the questionnaire) are reliable and valid; as well as to indicate that the research design is valid (Struwig and Stread, 2001:130). If reliability and validity are not addressed, the findings might be deemed worthless. The reliability and validity of the research method applied in this study are discussed in the following sections.

- **Reliability**

In marketing research, reliability is assessed to ensure that there is internal consistency, meaning that there is a certain degree of homogeneity amongst scale items being tested by the researcher (Zikmund and Babin, 2007:321). Even though the pilot study showed reliable results, the rating scales in the questionnaire of the actual study was tested again for reliability using Cronbach coefficient alpha values. As stated, a coefficient alpha of 0.7 or greater is considered to report a reliable measurement scale (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). As illustrated in Table 5.3, the Cronbach coefficient alpha values were around 0.7. Only "interest in a healthy lifestyle" scored marginally lower than 0.7, therefore, the results were deemed reliable.

Table 5.3 Reliability of the measurement instrument

Code		Item	Cronbach's Alpha coefficient
Brand image of sponsor brand	B1	The likelihood that FruityBliss fruit juice would be a delicious drink is very high.	**0.796**
	B2	The likely standard of FruityBliss fruit juice is extremely high.	
	B3	FruityBliss fruit juice appears to be of good quality.	
	B4	My image of FruityBliss fruit juice is good.	
	B5	I view the FruityBliss brand name positively.	
Brand image of sponsored event	E1	The ProFriz Frisbee Challenge appears to be an event of superior status.	**0.792**
	E2	The likelihood that the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge would be an event worth watching is very high.	
	E3	My image of the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge is that it is a highly enjoyable event.	
	E4	One could believe that the ProFriz Frisbee challenge has high entertainment value.	
	E5	The likely standard of the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge event is extremely high.	
Health interest	H1	I eat a well balanced diet.	**0.698**
	H2	I eat fresh fruit and vegetables.	
	H3	I exercise regularly.	
	H4	I watch the amount of fat I consume.	
Fruit juice consumption	F1	I like to drink fruit juice.	**0.814**
	F2	I like drinking fruit juice because it quenches my thirst.	
	F3	I enjoy drinking fruit juice because it tastes good.	
Sport interest	S1	I like to watch or listen to sport.	**0.868**
	S2	I usually read the sports page in the daily paper.	
	S3	I thoroughly enjoy conversations about sport.	
	S4	I would rather go to a sporting event than a dance.	

Although internal consistency reliability represents how well the items measuring a particular construct converge in the scale across the sixteen experimental groups, the researcher found it necessary to ensure that each questionnaire item represented the constructs truthfully.

- **Validity**

According to Zikmund and Babin (2007:323), there are three ways of establishing validity, namely content validity, criterion validity and construct validity. For the purposes of achieving validity in this study, internal consistency was ensured by using the construct method of validity, whereby the researcher looked at the results of the study and by personal judgement, acknowledged that the constructs measured in the study appeared valid.

Professionals also refer to external validity, which refers to how much the cause-and-effect relationships identified in the experimental research can be generalised to the whole population (Malhotra, 2004:209). The researcher ensured a substantial degree of external validity by conducting a field experiment instead of a laboratory experiment, where the respondents were interviewed in a natural environment.

As stated, a field experiment is where research is conducted in a realistic situation (Aaker *et al.*, 2001:352) and where one or more independent variables are manipulated by the experimenter under as carefully controlled conditions as the situation will allow (Malhotra, 2004:139). An important decision when deciding on whether to conduct a field experiment is whether the results will be projectable to the real world (Aaker *et al.,* 2001:352). In other words, how much validity will the data hold once collected. Validity of a research design is categorised into external validity and internal validity. 'External validity refers to the applicability of the experimental results to situations external to the actual experimental context' (Aaker *et al.*, 2001:352). In field experiments, responses tend to be natural, and thus external validity is present in field experiments.

Internal validity is where relationships are represented unambiguously, without many environmental factors interfering with the results of the experiment (Zikmund and Babin, 2007). In conducting a field experiment, researchers need to ensure that internal validity is controlled for (see Table 5.4), because

extraneous variables exist which can jeopardise the internal validity of the experiment (Zikmund and Babin, 2007). In summary, the internal validity for this study was controlled for as follows:

- o *History.* A history effect occurs when a change, other than the experimental treatment, occurs during an experiment and affects the dependent variable. The experiment for this study was conducted within as little as possible days and time (i.e. five days between 10:30 and 16:30) so as to prevent the history effect and ultimately enhance the internal validity of the field experiment.

- o *Maturation.* Maturation refers to the changes in the test units themselves that occur with the passing of time (Malhotra and Birks, 2006). This is typically an example of how respondents change their perceptions of brands and events. In order to prevent maturation in this study, the questionnaire took between six and eight minutes to complete, therefore the time the respondents had to change their perceptions towards the brand images of the sponsor brand and sponsored event was limited.

- o *Testing.* The initial measurement or test prepares subjects in a way that affects their response to the actual experimental treatment. Testing is typical of a pre-test post-test research design, where respondents learn (and possibly remember their responses) about the experimental treatment in the pre-test. The experimental design in this study was a factorial design and respondents were not pre-tested. Therefore, testing did not pose a threat to the internal validity of the study.

- o *Instrumentation.* A change in the wording of questions, a change in interviews, or in any other procedures used to measure the dependent variable, causes an instrumentation effect. For the purpose of this study, the same questionnaire, fieldworkers and supervisor were used

for the experiment to ensure validity. The experiment was therefore controlled as much as possible and wording of questions, interviews and specified procedures remained unaltered.

o *Selection.* Improper assignment of test units to treatment conditions causes a selection bias. The sample selected for the purposes of this study was specified to be shoppers who fall within LSM groups 8 to 10 (see section 5.8.1). Furthermore, the focus of this study was not on the profile of the sample's attitude toward sponsorship, but on the brand image transfer in sponsorship. Thus the possibility of the improper assignments of test units was minimised.

o *Mortality.* Mortality is an extraneous variable that is attributable to the loss of test units, while the experiment is in progress. This study was conducted at a certain time, and the same respondents were not required to be tested again. The effect of mortality was therefore controlled for in this experiment.

Table 5.4 An assessment of threats to the current study's internal validity

Internal validity	Measure
History	Short time lapse in that experiment was conducted within 5 days.
Maturation	Short time period in that interviews took between six and eight minutes to complete.
Testing	Respondents were subjected to a questionnaire and poster only once.
Instrumentation	The experimental process was carefully controlled by ensuring that the same questionnaire, fieldworkers and supervisor were used throughout the study.
Selection	Respondents were selected according to a specified profile of shoppers falling within LSM groups 8 to 10.
Mortality	No pre-tests were used, thus the chances of respondents failing to complete the questionnaire were minimal.

5.11 FOLLOW UP

In the final stage of the marketing research process, the marketing decision-makers use the findings as presented in the research report to make important

decisions regarding their organisation (in the case of a practitioner) or regarding the publishing of theoretical contributions (in the case of academicians). It is important that the findings are utilised effectively, as a lot of time and money is usually allocated to marketing research and marketing research can indeed serve as a competitive advantage. This competitive advantage should not be overlooked or be ineffectively utilised.

5.12 CONCLUSION

This chapter focussed on the tasks needed to accomplish the assessment of brand image transfer in sponsorship with reference to the case of FruityBliss and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge. These tasks were described according to the marketing research process. This chapter addressed the definition of the problem, the research design; the research method; the questionnaire design; the sampling design; fieldwork and data collection; the data analysis; the presentation of findings; and the follow-up. The final steps of the research process were to prepare the conclusions from the data analysis and prepare the report in which these conclusions could be discussed. The findings, conclusions and recommendations follow in Chapters 6 and 7.

CHAPTER 6

RESEARCH RESULTS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 5 described how this research study was designed to achieve the primary objective, which was to assess brand image transfer in sponsorship. Respondents' perceptions of the quality of the sponsor brand and sponsored event were assessed with a questionnaire used in various experimental manipulations (see section 5.6). As stated, a full factorial 2 x 2 x 2 x 2 experimental design was used to manipulate the selected brand image attributes of the sponsor brand and sponsored event. After the data from the measurement instrument was collected and cleaned, the researcher was able to commence with the analysis and interpretation of the data through the use of descriptive and inferential statistics. This chapter addresses the research objectives and hypotheses as defined in Chapter 5.

6.2 PROFILE OF THE SAMPLE

A total sample of 416 shoppers was interviewed to assess the quality perceptions of the sponsor brand and the sponsored event. The target population of this study was shoppers from LSM groups 8 to 10 (see section 5.8.1). Of the 416 respondents, the sample consisted of half males and half females (see Figure 6.1). Therefore, gender distribution specifications of "half male/half female" (see section 5.8.4) were met.

Figure 6.1 Distribution of sample according to gender
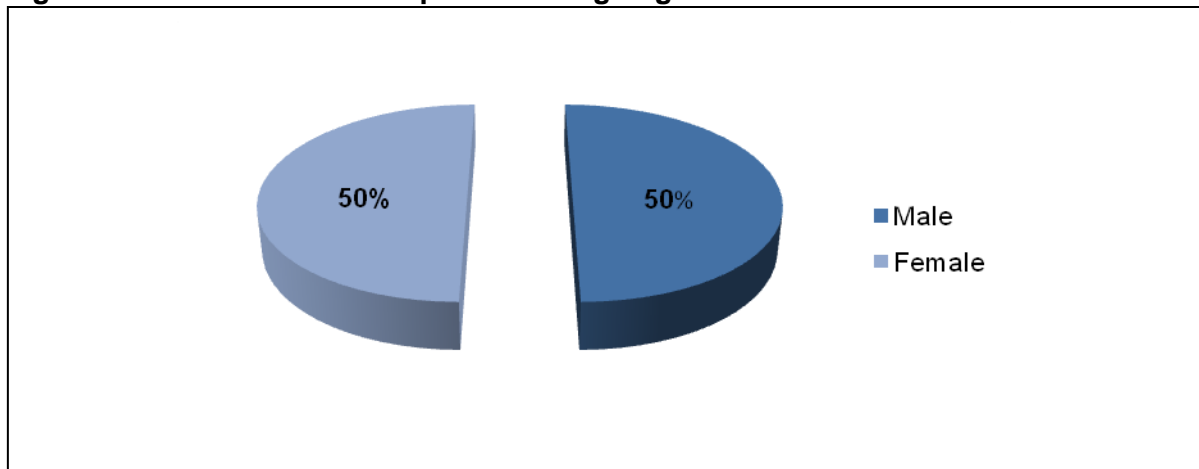
Because the study focussed on shoppers from LSM groups 8 to 10, it was specified that fieldworkers collect data from adults aged 18 and higher. The distribution of the sample according to age is illustrated Figure 6.2.

Figure 6.2 Distribution of sample according to age
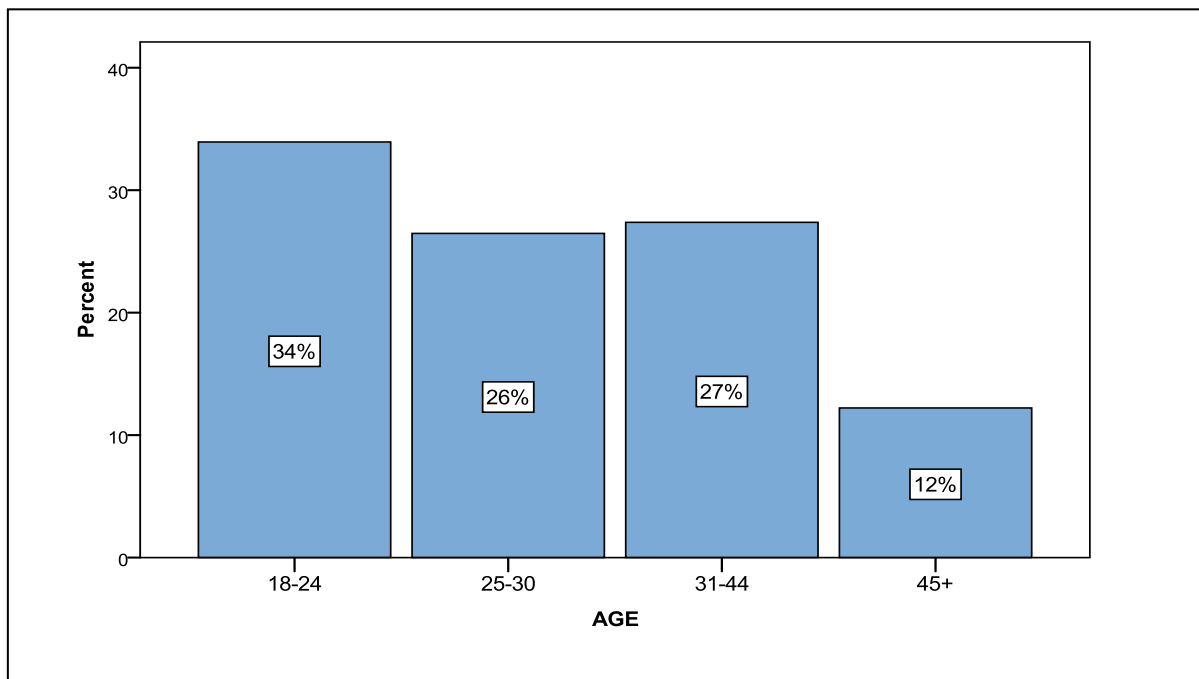
According to SAARF (2010), individuals in LSM groups 8 to 10 are predominantly aged 35 and higher. Respondents in this study consisted of adults aged 18 and higher. A large portion of the respondents were aged between 18

and 24 years (34%), 26% were aged between 25 and 30 years, 27% were aged between 31 and 44 years, and the remainder of the sample (12%) were aged higher than 45 years. The ages of the respondents in this study were therefore suitable.

As depicted in Figure 6.3, the sample consisted mainly of White respondents (66%). According to SAARF (2010), individuals in LSM groups 8 to 10 consist predominantly of Whites. As specified in the sample plan, the study took place in shopping malls considered to be frequented by LSM groups 8 to 10 (see section 5.8.4), and were thus located in mainly White areas. The remainder of the sample included 12% Coloured respondents, 20% Asian respondents and 2% respondents from other population groups.

Figure 6.3 Distribution of sample according to population group
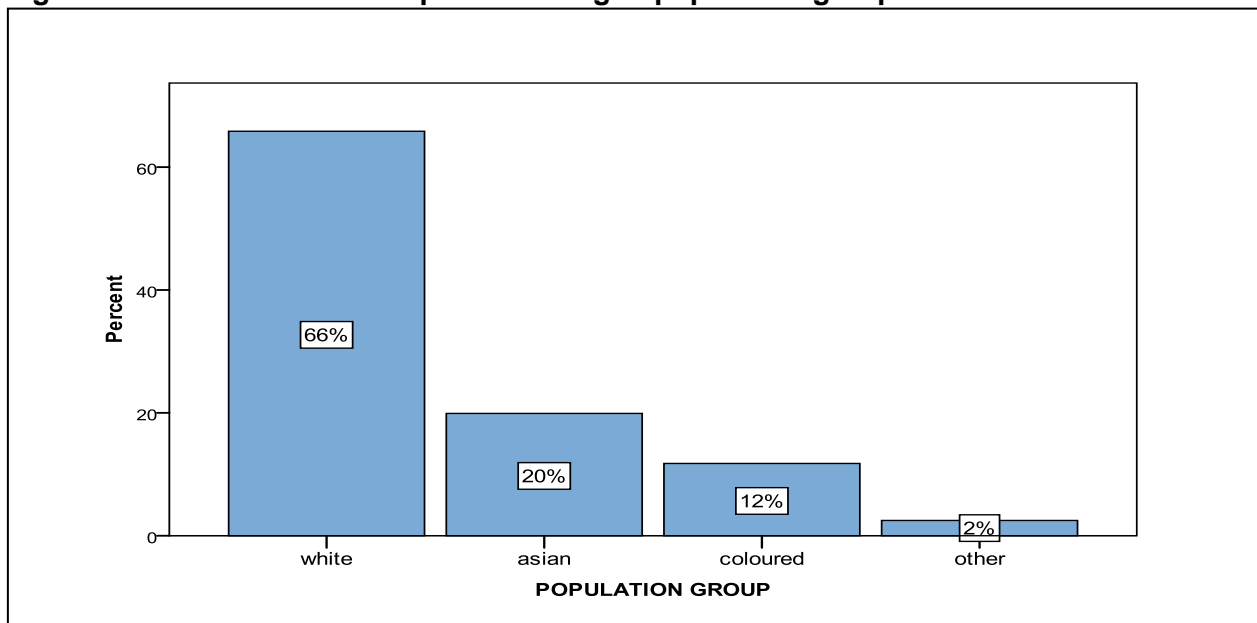
As stated, the malls specified in the sample plan (see section 5.8.4) were located in mainly White areas in Johannesburg. The majority of White individuals living in Johannesburg are English-speaking (Statistics South Africa, 2001). As illustrated in Figure 6.4, 73% of the sample was English, 26% of the sample Afrikaans and

1% of the sample another language. The respondents in this study were therefore predominantly English-speaking.

Figure 6.4 Distribution of sample according to home language
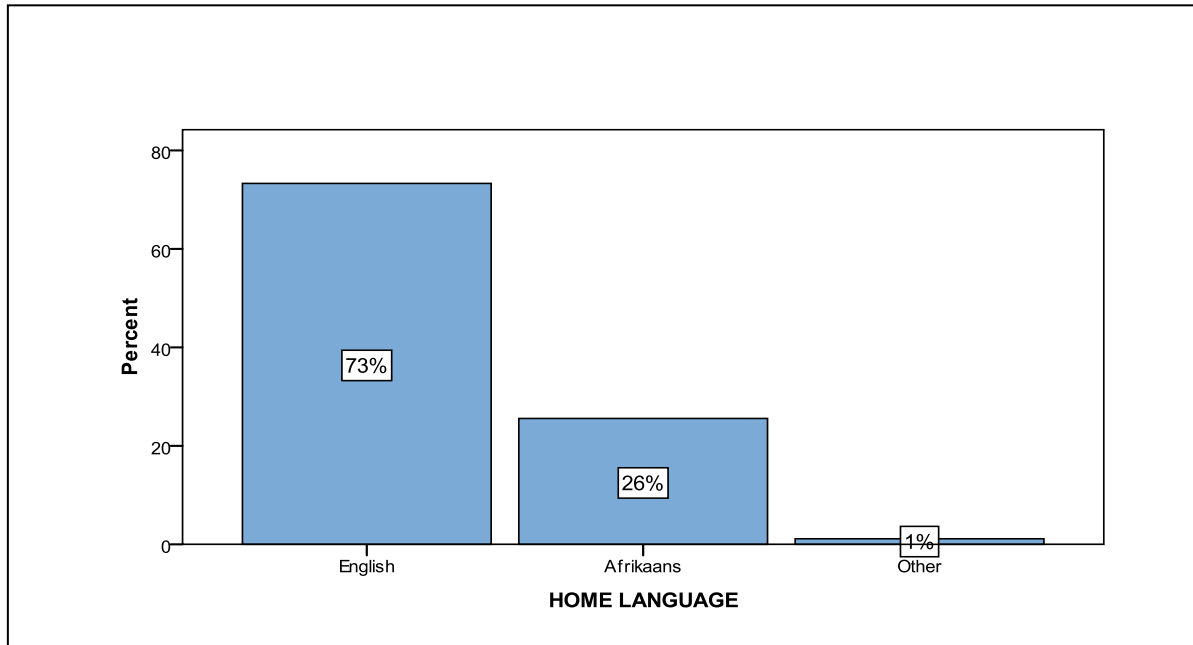
Descriptive questions were asked in the questionnaire about respondents' health interest, fruit juice consumption and interest in sport (see Annexure A). As stated, fieldworkers were instructed to record respondents' level of agreement with statements, where scores above three (i.e. "agree" and "strongly agree") indicated they felt positive about the statements and scores below three (i.e. "disagree" and "strongly disagree") indicated that they felt negative about the statements (see section 5.7).

As illustrated in Table 6.1, the respondents felt mostly positive (with mean scores above three) about healthy lifestyles, consumption of fruit juice, and sport. These results correspond with the characteristics of LSM groups 8 to 10, in that individuals in these groups have a disposable income and access to various hobbies, meaning that they should live healthy lifestyles, be interested in sport, and consume fruit juice. The mean score for perceptions of fruit juice consumption (3.94) was higher than the respective mean scores for perceptions

of healthy lifestyles (3.75) and interest in sport (3.30), indicating that although respondents in this study represented LSM groups 8 to 10 in terms of their perceptions of fruit juice consumption, healthy lifestyle interest and interest in sport, their perceptions of fruit juice consumption were more positive.

Table 6.1 Sample according to health interest, fruit juice knowledge and sport interest

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
HEALTH	1	5	3.75	0.821
FRUIT JUICE	1	5	3.94	0.911
SPORT	1	5	3.30	1.232

In conclusion, descriptive results confirmed that the respondents represented the sample as specified in the sample plan (see section 5.8) and their perceptions on the quality of the sponsor brand and sponsored event would therefore be appropriate for this study. The specified sample was predominantly White and English-speaking. Results showed that 60% of the sample consisted of males and females aged 18-30 and that, on average, the respondents had positive perceptions about healthy living, consumption of fruit juice and sport. The respondents were representative of shoppers in LSM groups 8 to 10, therefore the sample was acceptable.

6.3 QUALITY PERCEPTIONS OF SPONSOR BRAND AND SPONSORED EVENT

The purpose of this study was to assess brand image transfer in sponsorship. This section describes the data collected on the perceptions of the brand images of the sponsor brand (FruityBliss) and the sponsored event (the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge) with reference to the demographic data described above. Fieldworkers were instructed to record respondents' levels of agreement with the statements in the questionnaire where scores above three (i.e. "agree" and "strongly agree") indicated positive perceptions of the brand images of the

sponsor brand and the sponsored event, and scores below three (i.e. "disagree" and "strongly disagree") indicated negative perceptions of the brand images of the sponsor brand and the sponsored event. The data from the questionnaire collected from each of the sixteen experimental manipulations are described in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2 Brand images of FruityBliss and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge

Experimental group	Construct	Min	Max	$\bar{x}$	s
Experimental group 1 (100% fruit juice/R19,59/32 teams/national)	Sponsor brand image	3	5	4.28	0.615
	Sponsored event brand image	2	5	3.72	0.902
Experimental group 2 (100% fruit juice/R6,59/32 teams/national)	Sponsor brand image	2	5	4.05	0.615
	Sponsored event brand image	2	5	3.80	0.902
Experimental group 3 (100% fruit juice/R19,59/2 teams/local)	Sponsor brand image	3	5	4.15	0.556
	Sponsored event brand image	2	5	3.61	0.787
Experimental group 4 (100% fruit juice/R19,59/32 teams/local)	Sponsor brand image	3	5	4.22	0.578
	Sponsored event brand image	2	5	3.51	0.615
Experimental group 5 (100% fruit juice/R6,59/2 teams/national)	Sponsor brand image	3	5	3.91	0.623
	Sponsored event brand image	2	5	3.51	0.841
Experimental group 6 (100% fruit juice/R6,59/2 teams/local)	Sponsor brand image	3	5	4.14	0.590
	Sponsored event brand image	2	5	3.84	0.890
Experimental group 7 (100% fruit juice/R19,59/2 teams/local)	Sponsor brand image	2	5	3.79	0.783
	Sponsored event brand image	2	5	3.53	0.800
Experimental group 8 (20% fruit juice/R19,59/32 teams/national)	Sponsor brand image	2	5	4.15	0.634
	Sponsored event brand image	2	5	3.72	0.725
Experimental group 9 (20% fruit juice/R6,59/32 teams/national)	Sponsor brand image	2	5	3.63	0.760
	Sponsored event brand image	2	5	3.83	0.773
Experiment al group10 (20% fruit juice/R19,59/2 teams/national)	Sponsor brand image	2	5	3.73	0.735
	Sponsored event brand image	2	5	3.51	0.832
Experimental group 11 (20% fruit juice/R19,59/32 teams/local)	Sponsor brand image	3	5	4.02	0.496
	Sponsored event brand image	2	5	3.51	0.740
Experimental group 12 (20% fruit juice/R6,59/2 teams/national)	Sponsor brand image	2	5	3.91	0.714
	Sponsored event brand image	1	5	3.62	0.888
Experimental group 13 (20% fruit juice/R6,59/2 teams/local)	Sponsor brand image	2	5	4.00	0.531
	Sponsored event brand image	1	5	3.65	0.953
Experimental group 14 (20% fruit juice/R19,59/2 teams/local)	Sponsor brand image	2	5	3.55	0.834
	Sponsored event brand image	1	5	3.21	0.998
Experimental group 15 (20% fruit juice/R6,59/32 teams/local)	Sponsor brand image	2	5	3.75	0.714
	Sponsored event brand image	2	5	3.71	0.877
Experimental group16 (100% fruit juice/R6,59/32 teams/local)	Sponsor brand image	2	5	3.90	0.841
	Sponsored event brand image	1	5	3.59	0.966

In general, respondents showed a certain degree of positivity towards the brand image of the sponsor brand (FruityBliss) and a certain degree of positivity towards the brand image of the sponsored event (the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge). Mean scores for the perceptions of the sponsor brand and sponsored event were above three in each experimental group, irrespective of the manipulated levels of quality of the sponsor brand and the sponsored event. Overall, respondents seemed more positive toward the brand image of the sponsor brand than that of the sponsored event. This could possibly allude to the fact that respondents in this study held higher perceptions of fruit juice consumption than sport (see section 6.2). The highest brand image score of the sponsor brand (FruityBliss) averaged at 4.28 (s=0.615) in experimental group 1 (100% fruit juice, R19,59, 32 teams, national). The highest brand image score of the sponsored event (the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge) averaged at 3.84 (s=0.980) in experimental group 6 (100% fruit juice, R6,59, 2 teams, local).

Although Table 6.2 showed mathematical differences between the means of the experiments conducted in this study, *statistical* differences between the means of the various experimental groups are discussed in the next section.

6.4 BRAND IMAGE TRANSFER

A mixed between-within subjects repeated measures ANOVA was conducted to compare scores on the perceptions of the sponsor brand image and the sponsored event brand image, in order to ultimately assess brand image transfer in sponsorship. The different effects of each manipulation are depicted in Table 6.3 stipulating the F-statistic and p-value for each effect indicating significant effects where $p < 0.05$. Significant effects are discussed in turn.

Table 6.3 Main effects and interaction effects

	Num. DF	F	p
Main effects			
Brand images (sponsor brand/sponsored event)	1	65.670	**0.000**
Physical product (100%fruit juice/20% fruit juice)	1	3.166	0.076
Price (R6,59.R19,59)	1	0.778	0.378
Status (amateur/professional)	1	2.176	0.141
Size (local/national)	1	0.555	0.457
Two-way interaction effects			
Brand images*Physical product	1	7.158	**0.008**
Brand images*Price	1	12.062	**0.001**
Physical product*Price	1	1.517	0.219
Brand images*Status	1	0.066	0.797
Physical product*Status	1	0.008	0.927
Price*Status	1	7.746	**0.006**
Brand images*Size	1	0.024	0.877
Physical product*Size	1	0.001	0.976
Price*Size	1	4.341	**0.038**
Status*Size	1	0.947	0.331
Three-way interaction effects			
Brand images*Physical product*Price	1	1.167	0.281
Brand images*Physical product*Status	1	0.239	0.625
Brand images*Price*Status	1	4.895	**0.028**
Physical product*Price*Status	1	1.407	0.236
Brand images*Physical product*Size	1	0.482	0.488
Brand images*Price*Size	1	0.011	0.918
Physical product*Price*Size	1	0.237	0.627
Brand images*Status*Size	1	2.796	0.095
Physical product*Status*Size	1	0.102	0.750
Price*Status*Size	1	3.112	0.078
Four-way interaction effects			
Brand images*Physical product*Price*Status	1	0.239	0.625
Brand images*Physical product*Price*Size	1	0.482	0.488
Brand images*Physical product*Status*Size	1	0.000	1.000
Brand images*Price*Status*Size	1	0.414	0.520
Physical product*Price*Status*Size	1	0.317	0.574
Five-way interaction effects			
Brand images*Physical product*Price*Status*Size	1	1.525	0.218

6.4.1 Main effects

As depicted in Table 6.3, there were five main effects as per the experimental design of the study. As stated, a main effect is described by the difference between groups on the dependent variables in the analysis (see section 5.10.2). The main effects are the differences between the means of the levels of the variables ignoring all the other (or pooling all the other) variables. The hypotheses for each main effect in this study were as follows:

H_{01}: There is no significant main effect between the brand image score of FruityBliss (sponsor brand) and the brand image score of the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (sponsored event) (i.e. means are equal).

H_{02}: There is no significant main effect between the brand image score of FruityBliss (100% pure fruit juice) and brand image score of FruityBliss (20% fruit juice). I.e. The means are equal.

H_{03}: There is no significant main effect between the brand image score of FruityBliss (R19,59) and the brand image score of FruityBliss (R6,59) (i.e. means are equal).

H_{04}: There is no significant main effect between the brand image score of the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (32 teams) and the brand image score of the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (2 teams) (i.e. means are equal).

H_{05}: There is no significant main effect between the brand image score of the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (national) and the brand image score of the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (local) (i.e. means are equal).

By conducting a mixed between-within subjects repeated measures ANOVA, a significant main effect was found between the perceived brand image score of the sponsor brand (FruityBliss) and the perceived brand image score of the sponsored event (the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge). H_{01} was thus rejected

(F(1.400) = 65.670; p<0.05). As illustrated in Figure 6.5, the perceived sponsor brand image score was higher than the perceived sponsored event brand image score.

Figure 6.5 Perceived brand image of sponsor brand * perceived brand image of sponsored event
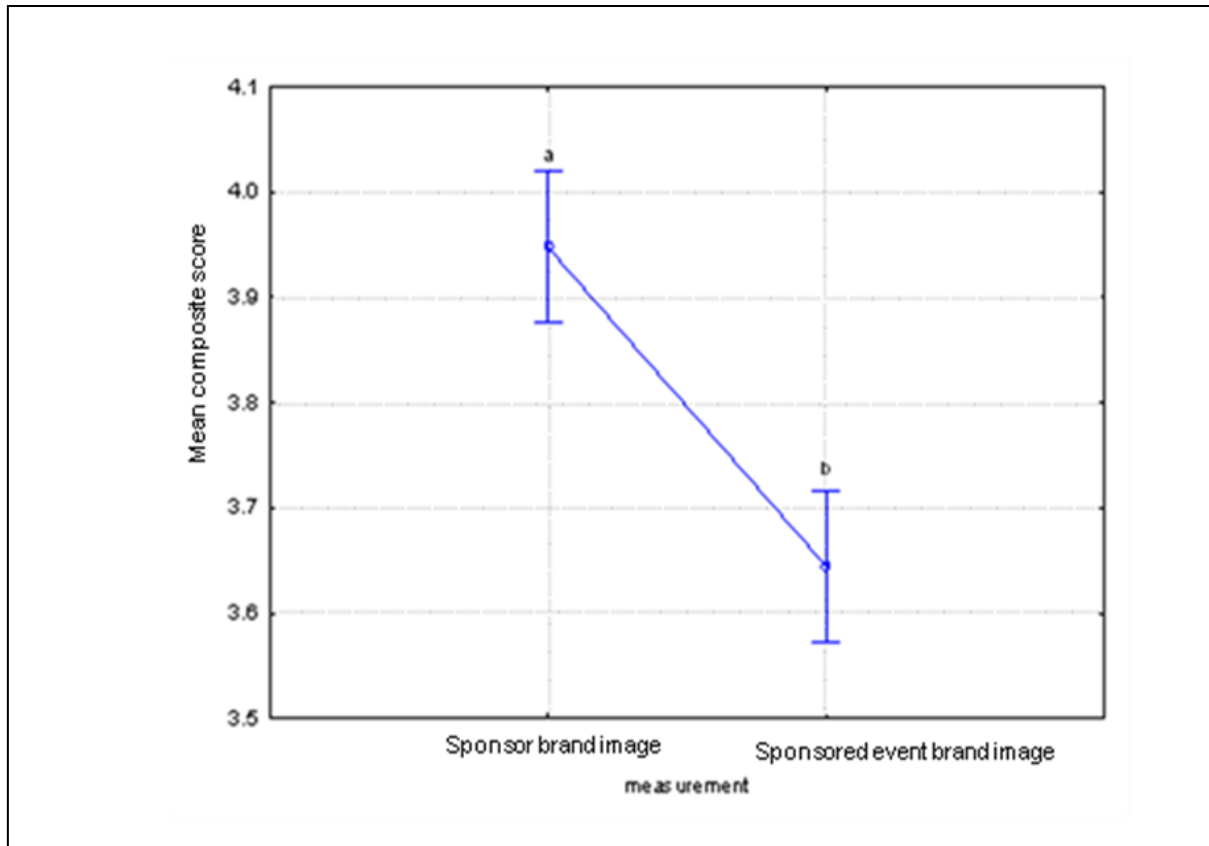
The mean score for the brand image of the sponsor brand ($\bar{x}$=3.95) was significantly higher than the mean score for the brand image of the sponsored event ($\bar{x}$=3.65). *It was therefore concluded that the perceptions of the overall quality of the sponsor brand were significantly higher than the perceptions of the overall quality of the sponsored event across the sixteen experimental groups. It was concluded that the sponsor brand (fruit juice) held more positive perceptions than the sponsored event (sport). The reason*

could possibly be ascribed to the results that the respondents held more favourable perceptions toward fruit juice consumption than healthy lifestyle and sport (see section 6.2).

6.4.2 TWO-WAY INTERACTION EFFECTS

As presented in Table 6.3, there were 10 two-way interactions within the full factorial (2 x 2 x 2 x 2) design. Two-way interaction effects test if the differences between the levels of one variable are dependent on the level of another variable. The hypotheses for each two-way interaction were as follows:

H_{06}:   There is no significant 2-way interaction between the brand image score of FruityBliss (sponsor brand) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (sponsored event) and the brand image score of the physical product of FruityBliss (100% fruit juice/20% fruit juice) (i.e. means are equal).

H_{07}:   There is no significant 2-way interaction between the brand image score of FruityBliss (sponsor brand) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (sponsored event) and the brand image score of the price of FruityBliss (R19,59/R6,59) (i.e. means are equal).

H_{08}:   There is no significant 2-way interaction between the brand image score of the physical product of FruityBliss (100% fruit juice/20% fruit juice) and the brand image score of the price of FruityBliss (R19,59/R6,59) (i.e. means are equal).

H_{09}:   There is no significant 2-way interaction between the brand image score of FruityBliss (sponsor brand) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (sponsored event) and the brand image score of the

status of the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (32 teams/2 teams) (i.e. means are equal).

H_{010}: There is no significant 2-way interaction between the brand image score of the physical product of FruityBliss (100% fruit juice/20% fruit juice) and the brand image score of the status of the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (32 teams/2 teams) (i.e. means are equal).

H_{011}: There is no significant 2-way interaction between the brand image score of the price of FruityBliss (R19,59/R6,59) and the brand image score of the status of the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (32 teams/ 2 teams) (i.e. means are equal).

H_{012}: There is no significant 2-way interaction between the brand image score of FruityBliss (sponsor brand) and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (sponsored event) and the brand image score of the size of the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (national/local) (i.e. means are equal).

H_{013}: There is no significant 2-way interaction between the brand image score of the physical product of FruityBliss (100% fruit juice/20% fruit juice) and the brand image score of the size of the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (national/local) (i.e. means are equal).

H_{014}: There is no significant 2-way interaction between the brand image score of the price of FruityBliss (R19,59/R6,59) and the brand image score of the size of the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (national/local) (i.e. means are equal).

H_{015}: There is no significant 2-way interaction between the brand image score of the status of the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (32 teams/2 teams) and the brand image score of the size of the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge (national/local) (i.e. means are equal).

As depicted in Table 6.3, a mixed between-within subjects repeated measures ANOVA revealed that four significant two-way interactions occurred between the perceived brand image score of the sponsor brand (FruityBliss) and the perceived brand image score of the sponsored event (the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge). Each significant two-way interaction is discussed below.

6.4.2.1 Brand image scores of sponsor brand and sponsored event * physical product of sponsor brand (20% fruit juice/100% fruit juice)

As depicted in Table 6.3, there was a significant two-way interaction effect between the brand image scores of the sponsor brand and the sponsored event and the physical product of the sponsor brand (20% fruit juice/100% fruit juice). Thus, H_{06} was rejected ($F(1.400) = 7.1584$; $p<0,05$). As illustrated in Figure 6.6, the brand image scores of the sponsor brand were significantly higher than the brand image scores of the sponsored event when the physical product quality was manipulated. The increase in the respective perceived brand images of the sponsor brand and the sponsored event was more pronounced for 100% fruit juice.

Figure 6.6   Perceived brand images of the sponsor brand and the sponsored event (physical product manipulation)
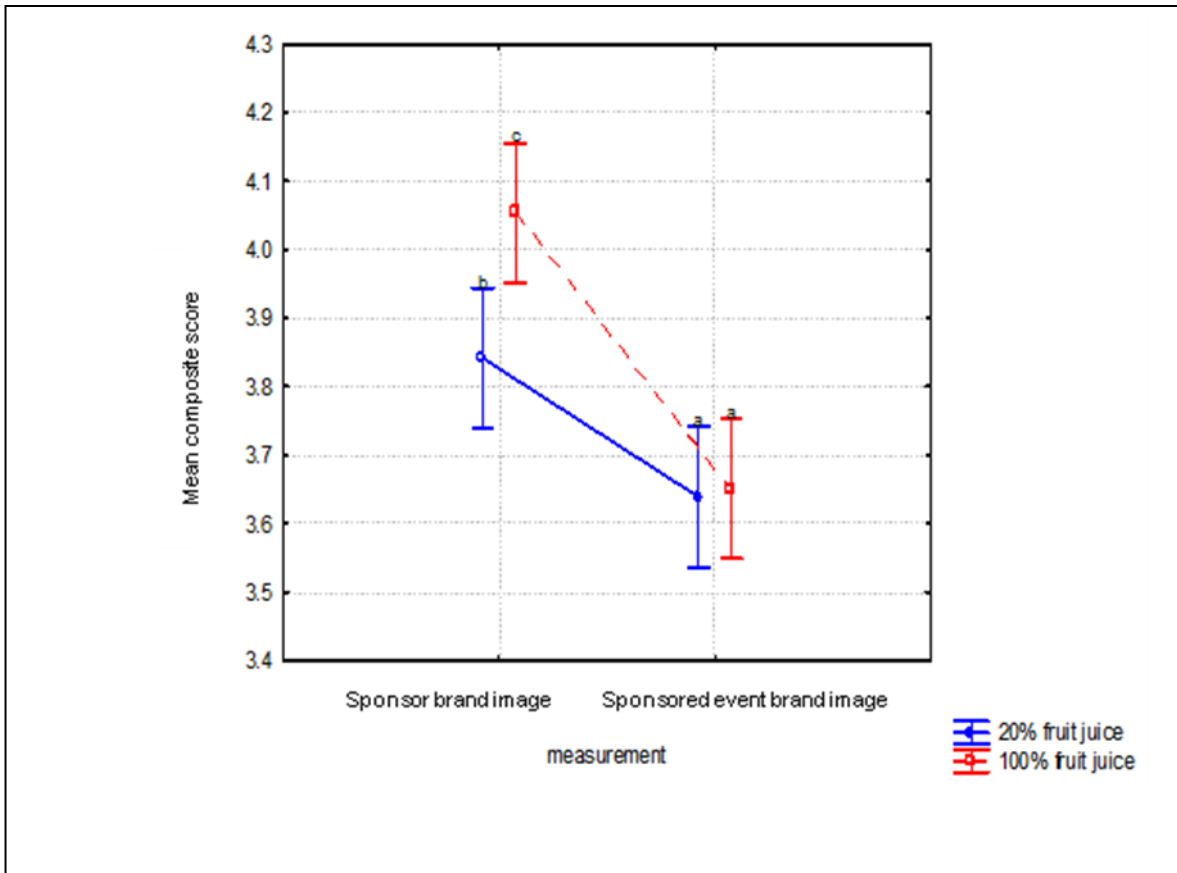
The Fisher LSD post-hoc test revealed some significant differences in the two-way interactions. In the first instance, there was a significant difference between 20% fruit juice on the brand image score of the sponsor brand and 100% fruit juice on the brand image score of the sponsor brand ($p < 0.05$). The brand image score for the sponsor brand with 100% fruit juice ($\bar{x}=4.054$) was significantly higher than the brand image score for the sponsor brand with 20% fruit juice ($\bar{x}=3.841$). Therefore, the higher the quality of the physical product, the higher the brand image perceptions of the sponsor brand. As depicted in Table 6.4, *a manipulation of the quality (physical product) of the sponsor brand had a positive effect on the perceived brand image of the sponsor brand, in that the higher the quality of the sponsor brand, the higher*

the perceived brand image of the sponsor brand. In this case, no difference was found between the respective brand images of the sponsor brand and the sponsored event, thus the above result did not hold for the sponsored event brand image, and brand image transfer did not occur between the sponsor brand and the sponsored event. Thus, the above result was not applicable to this study.

In the second instance, there was a significant difference between 20% fruit juice on the brand image score of the sponsor brand and 20% fruit juice on the brand image score of the sponsored event ($p<0.05$). The brand image score for the sponsor brand image with 20% fruit juice ($\bar{x}$=3.841) was significantly higher than the brand image score for the sponsored event with 20% fruit juice ($\bar{x}$=3.638). As depicted in Table 6.4, *a manipulation of the quality (physical product) of the sponsor brand had a negative effect on the perceived brand image of the sponsored event, in that the lower the quality of the sponsor brand, the lower the perceived brand image of the sponsored event. Therefore, it was deduced that brand image is positively transferred from a sponsor brand to a sponsored event.*

In the third instance, there was a significant difference between 20% fruit juice on the brand image score of the sponsor brand and 100% fruit juice on the brand image score of the sponsored event ($p<0.05$). The brand image score for the sponsor brand image with 20% fruit juice ($\bar{x}$=3.841) was significantly higher than the brand image score for the sponsored event with 100% fruit juice ($\bar{x}$=3.651). As depicted in Table 6.4, *a manipulation of the quality (physical product) of the sponsor brand had a positive effect on the perceived brand image of the sponsored event, in that the higher the quality of the sponsor brand, the higher the perceived brand image of the sponsored*

event. Therefore, it was deduced that brand image is positively transferred from a sponsor brand to a sponsored event.

In the fourth instance, there was a significant difference between 100% fruit juice on the brand image score of the sponsor brand and 20% fruit juice on the brand image of the sponsored event ($p < 0.05$). The brand image score for the sponsor brand with 100% fruit juice ($\bar{x} = 4.054$) was significantly higher than the brand image score for the sponsored event with 20% fruit juice ($\bar{x} = 3.638$). As depicted in Table 6.4, *a manipulation of the quality (physical product) of the sponsor brand had a negative effect on the perceived brand image of the sponsored event, in that the lower the quality of the sponsor brand, the lower the perceived brand image of the sponsored event. Therefore, it was deduced that brand image is positively transferred from a sponsor brand to a sponsored event.*

Finally, there was a significant difference between 100% fruit juice on the brand image score of the sponsor brand and 100% fruit juice on the brand image of the sponsored event ($p < 0.05$). The brand image score for the sponsor brand with 100% fruit juice ($\bar{x} = 4.054$) was significantly higher than the brand image score for the sponsored event with 100% fruit juice ($\bar{x} = 3.651$). As depicted in Table 6.4, *a manipulation of the quality (physical product) of the sponsor brand had a positive effect on the perceived brand image of the sponsored event, in that the higher the quality of the sponsor brand, the higher the perceived brand image of the sponsored event. Therefore, it was deduced that brand image is positively transferred from a sponsor brand to a sponsored event.*

**Table 6.4 Effects of sponsor brand manipulations of quality (product)**

Cause (Manipulation of product quality)	Mean difference	P-value	Effect (Transfer)	
Brand @ 20% fruit juice/Brand @ 100% fruit juice	-0.213	0.004	___	
Brand @ 20% fruit juice/Event @ 20% fruit juice	0.203	0.000	✓	+
Brand @ 20% fruit juice/Event @ 100% fruit juice	0.190	0.010	✓	+
Brand @ 100% fruit juice/Event @ 20% fruit juice	0.415	0.000	✓	+
Brand @ 100% fruit juice/Event @ 100% fruit juice	0.403	0.000	✓	+

From the above results, it was concluded that brand image transfer does occur from the sponsor brand to the sponsored event, in that a manipulation of the quality (physical product) of the sponsor brand causes a positive brand image transfer to the sponsored event. The higher the quality of the sponsor brand, the higher the perceived brand image of the sponsored event. The lower the quality of the sponsor brand, the lower the perceived brand image of the sponsored event.

6.4.2.2 Brand image scores of sponsor brand and sponsored event * price of sponsor brand (R6,59/R19,59)

As depicted in Table 6.3, there was a significant two-way interaction effect between the perceived brand image scores of the sponsor brand and the perceived brand image scores of the sponsored event, and the price of the sponsor brand. Thus, H_{07} was rejected (F(1.400) = 12.062; p<0.05). As illustrated in Figure 6.7, the brand image scores of the sponsor brand were significantly higher than the brand image scores of the sponsored event, when the price of the sponsor brand was manipulated. The increase in the brand image of the sponsor brand was more pronounced for the product priced at R19,59, whilst the increase in the brand image of the sponsored event was more pronounced for the product priced at R6,59.

Figure 6.7 Brand image scores of sponsor brand and sponsored event (price manipulation)
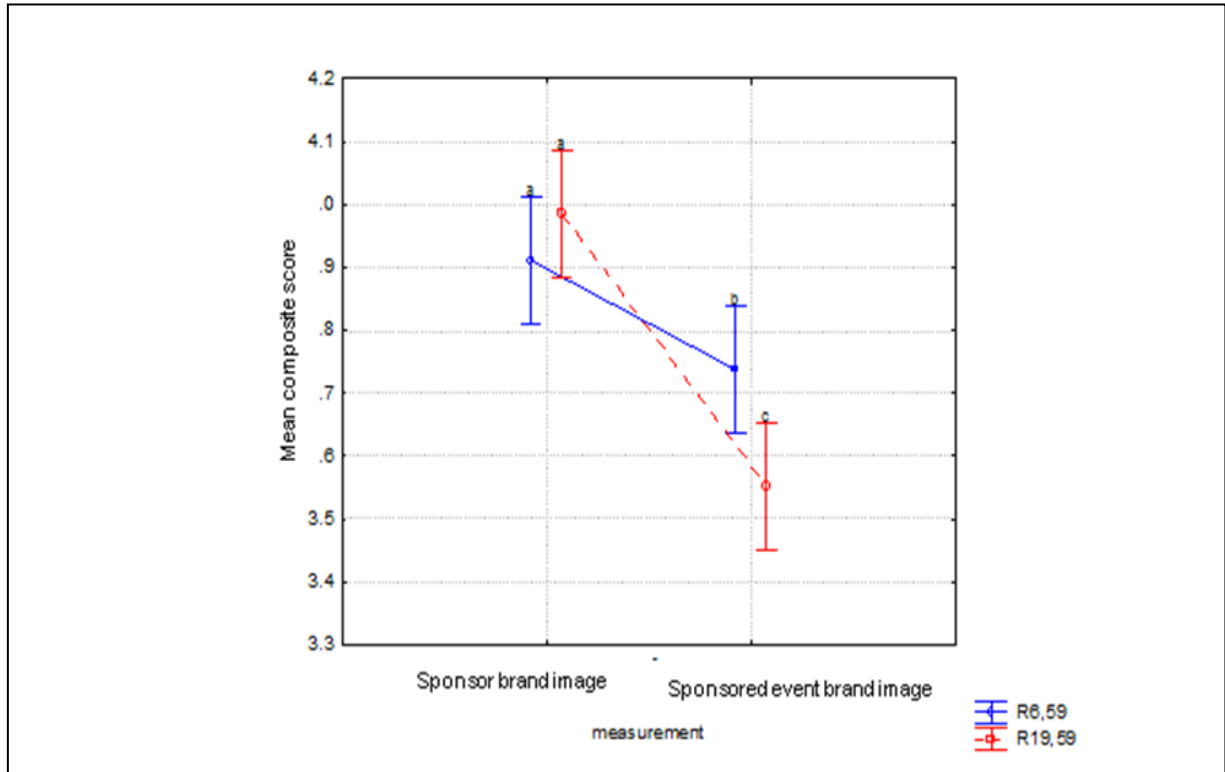
The Fisher LSD post-hoc test revealed some significant differences in the two-way interactions. In the first instance, there was a significant difference between R6,59 on the brand image score of the sponsor brand and R6,59 on the brand image score of the sponsored event ($p<0.05$). The brand image score for the sponsor brand image with R6,59 ($\bar{x}$=3.911) was significantly higher than the brand image score for the sponsored event with R6,59 ($\bar{x}$=3.738). As depicted in Table 6.5, *a manipulation of the quality (price) of the sponsor brand had a positive effect on the perceived brand image of the sponsored event, in that the lower the quality of the sponsor brand, the higher the perceived brand image of the sponsored event. Therefore, it was deduced that brand image is positively transferred from a sponsor brand to a sponsored event.*

In the second instance, there was a significant difference between R6,59 on the brand image score of the sponsor brand and R19,59 on the brand image of the sponsored event ($p<0.05$). The brand image score for the sponsor brand with R6,59 ($\bar{x}$=3.911) was significantly higher than the brand image score for the sponsored event with R19,59 ($\bar{x}$=3.552). As depicted in Table 6.5, *a manipulation of the quality (price) of the sponsor brand had a negative effect on the perceived brand image of the sponsored event, in that the higher the quality of the sponsor brand, the lower the perceived brand image of the sponsored event. Therefore, it was deduced that brand image is positively transferred from a sponsor brand to a sponsored event.*

In the third instance, there was a significant difference between R19,59 on the brand image score of the sponsor brand and R6,59 on the brand image of the sponsored event ($p<0.05$). The brand image score for the sponsor brand with R19,59 ($\bar{x}$=3.985) was significantly higher than the brand image score for the sponsored event with R6,59 ($\bar{x}$=3.738). As depicted in Table 6.5, *a manipulation of the quality (price) of the sponsor brand had a positive effect on the perceived brand image of the sponsored event, in that the lower the quality of the sponsor brand, the higher the perceived brand image of the sponsored event. Therefore, it was deduced that brand image is positively transferred from a sponsor brand to a sponsored event.*

In the fourth instance, there was a significant difference between R19,59 on the brand image score of the sponsor brand and R19,59 on the brand image of the sponsored event ($p<0.05$). The brand image score for the sponsor brand with R19,59 ($\bar{x}$=3.985) was significantly higher than the brand image score for the sponsored event with R19,59 ($\bar{x}$=3.552). As depicted in Table 6.5, *a manipulation of the quality (price) of the sponsor brand had a negative effect on the perceived brand image of the sponsored event, in that the*

higher the quality of the sponsor brand, the lower the perceived brand image of the sponsored event. Therefore, it was deduced that brand image is positively transferred from a sponsor brand to a sponsored event.

Finally, there was a significant difference between R6,59 on the brand image score of the sponsored event and R19,59 on the brand image score of the sponsored event ($p < 0.05$). The brand image score for the sponsored event with R6,59 ($\bar{x}$=3.738) was higher than the brand image score for the sponsored event with R19,59 ($\bar{x}$=3.552). As depicted in Table 6.5, *a manipulation of the quality (price) of the sponsor brand had a positive effect on the perceived brand image of the sponsor brand, in that the lower the quality of the sponsor brand, the higher the perceived brand image of the sponsored event and the higher the quality of the sponsor brand, the lower the perceived brand image of the sponsored event. Therefore, it was deduced that brand image is positively transferred from a sponsor brand to a sponsored event.*

Table 6.5 Effects of sponsor brand manipulations of quality (price)

| Cause (Manipulation of product quality)	Mean difference	P-value	Effect (Transfer)	
Brand @ R6,59/Event @ R6,59	0.173	0.001	✓	**+**
Brand @ R6,59/Event @ R19,59	0.359	0.000	✓	**+**
Brand @ R19,59/Event @ R6,59	0.247	0.001	✓	**+**
Brand @ R19,59/Event @ R19,59	0.433	0.000	✓	**+**
Event @ R6,59/Event @ R19,59	0.186	0.012	✓	**+**

From the above results, it was concluded that brand image transfer does occur from the sponsor brand to the sponsored event, in that the higher the quality (price) of the sponsor brand, the lower the perceived brand image of the sponsored event. The lower the quality (price) of the sponsor brand, the

higher the perceived brand image of the sponsored event. The above results also showed that an event sponsored by a sponsor brand with a lower price holds higher brand image perceptions than if sponsored by a higher-priced brand. The following two-way interactions explain this brand image transfer.

6.4.2.3   Price of sponsor brand * status of sponsored event

As depicted in Table 6.3, there was a significant two-way interaction effect between the perceived brand image scores of the price of the sponsor brand and the perceived brand image scores of the status of the sponsored event. Thus, H_{011} was rejected ($F_{(1.400)} = 7.746$; $p < 0.05$). As illustrated in Figure 6.8, the brand image scores of a sponsor brand priced at R6,59 with a sponsored event hosting 2 teams were significantly higher than the brand image scores of the sponsor brand priced at R19,59 with a sponsored event hosting 2 teams. The brand image scores of the sponsor brand priced at R6,59 with a sponsored event hosting 32 teams were significantly lower than the brand image scores of the sponsor brand priced at R19,59 with a sponsored event hosting 32 teams. The increase in the brand image of the lower-quality sponsor brand was more pronounced for the sponsored event manipulated as amateur (2 teams), while the increase in the brand image of the higher-quality sponsor brand was more pronounced for the sponsored event manipulated as professional (32 teams).

Figure 6.8 Brand image scores of the sponsor brand and the sponsored event (price and event status manipulation)
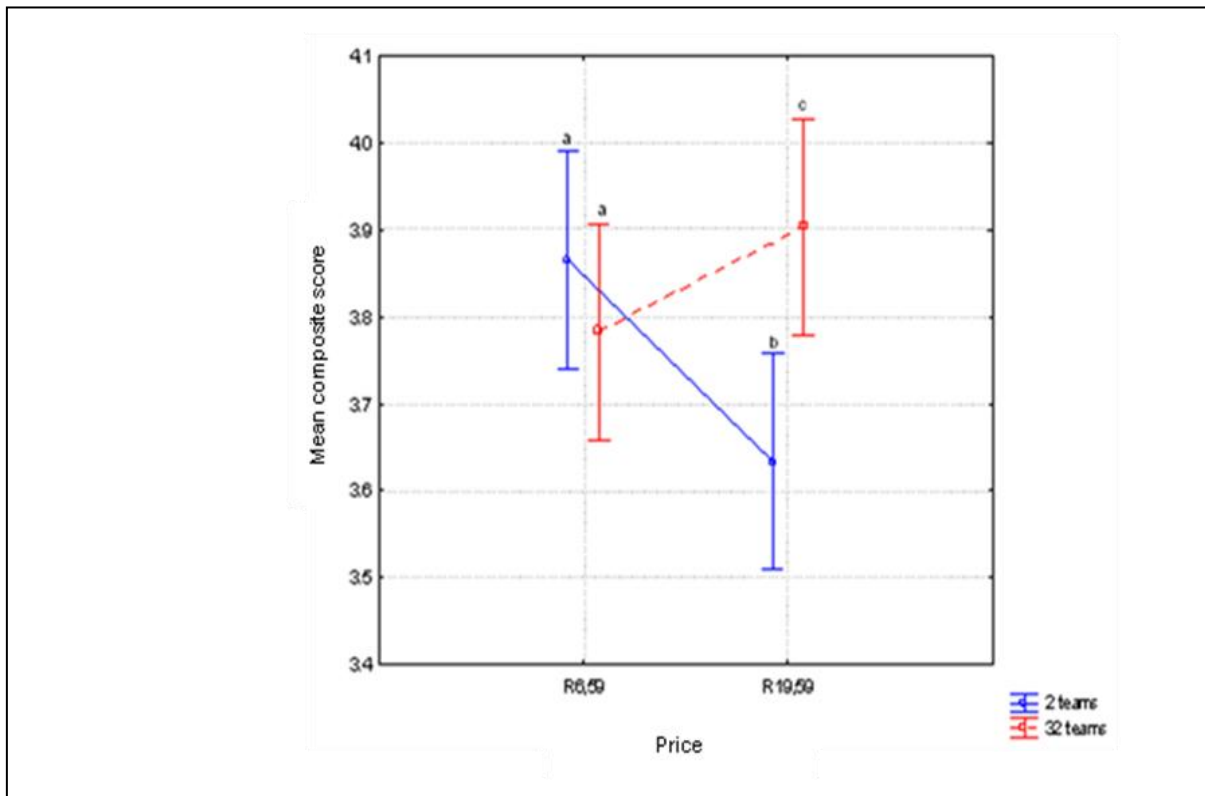
The Fisher LSD post-hoc test revealed some significant differences in the two-way interactions. In the first instance, there was a significant difference between the perceived brand image score of the sponsored event hosting 2 teams with (R6,59) and the perceived brand image score of the sponsored event hosting 2 teams with (R19,59) ($p<0.05$). The brand image score of the sponsored event hosting 2 teams with a low-priced sponsor brand ($\bar{x}=3.865$)

was significantly higher than the brand image score of the sponsored event hosting 2 teams with a high-price sponsor brand ($\bar{x}=3.364$). As depicted in

Table 6.6*, the perceived brand image of the lower-quality (price) sponsor brand was significantly higher when the quality (status) of the sponsored event was low (i.e. amateur event). The lower the quality (status) of the sponsored event, the higher the perceived brand image of a lower-quality (price) sponsor brand. Therefore, it was deduced that brand image is*

positively transferred from a lower-quality sponsored event to a lower-quality sponsor brand.

In the second instance, there was a significant difference between the perceived brand image score of the sponsored event hosting 2 teams with (R19,59) and the perceived brand image score of the sponsored event hosting 32 teams with a high-priced sponsor brand (R19,59) (p<0.05). The brand image score of the sponsored event hosting 2 teams with a high-priced sponsor brand ($\bar{x}$=3.634) was significantly lower than the brand image score

of the sponsored event hosting 32 teams with a high-priced sponsor brand ($\bar{x}$=3.903). As depicted in Table 6.6, *the perceived brand image of the higher-*

quality (price) sponsor brand was significantly higher when the quality of the sponsored event was higher (i.e. professional event). The lower the quality (status) of the sponsored event, the lower the perceived brand image of a higher-quality (price) sponsor brand. Therefore, it was deduced that brand image is negatively transferred from an amateur sponsored event to a higher-priced sponsor brand.

Table 6.6 Effects of sponsored event manipulations of quality (status)

Cause (Manipulation of product quality)	Mean difference	P-value	Effect (Transfer)	
Brand @ R6,59 and event @ 2 teams/Brand @ R19,59 and event @ 2 teams	0.232	0.010	✓	**+**
Brand @ R19,59 and event @ 2 teams/Brand @ R19,59 and event @ 32 teams	-0.270	0.003	✓	**-**

From the results above, it was concluded that the perceived quality of the sponsored event was positively transferred to the perceived quality of the sponsor brand when status of the sponsored event was manipulated to match the price of the sponsor brand. I.e. When there was congruency between the quality (price) of the sponsor brand and the quality (status) of the sponsored event. The higher the quality (status) of the sponsored event, the higher the

perceived brand image of a higher-quality (price) sponsor brand. The lower the quality (status) of the sponsored event, the higher the perceived brand image of a lower-quality (price) sponsor brand. Therefore it was deduced that brand image transfer does occur from a sponsored event to a sponsor brand when the quality of the respective parties are congruent.

6.4.2.4   Price of sponsor brand * Size of sponsored event

As depicted in Table 6.3, there was a significant two-way interaction effect between the brand image perceptions of the price of the sponsor brand and the brand image perceptions of the size of the sponsored event. Thus, H_{014} was rejected ($F(1.400) = 4.3410$; $p<0.05$). As illustrated in Figure 6.9, the brand image score of the sponsor brand priced at R6,59 with a sponsored event of local size was significantly higher than the brand image score of the sponsor brand priced at R6,59 with a sponsored event of national size. The brand image score of the sponsor brand priced at R19,59 with a sponsored event of a national size was significantly higher than the brand image score of the sponsor brand priced at R19,59 with a sponsored event of local size. The increase in the brand image of the lower-quality sponsor brand was more pronounced for the sponsored event manipulated as small (local), while the increase in the brand image of the higher-quality sponsor brand was more pronounced for the sponsored event manipulated as large (national).

Figure 6.9 Brand image scores of sponsor brand and sponsored event (price and event size manipulations)
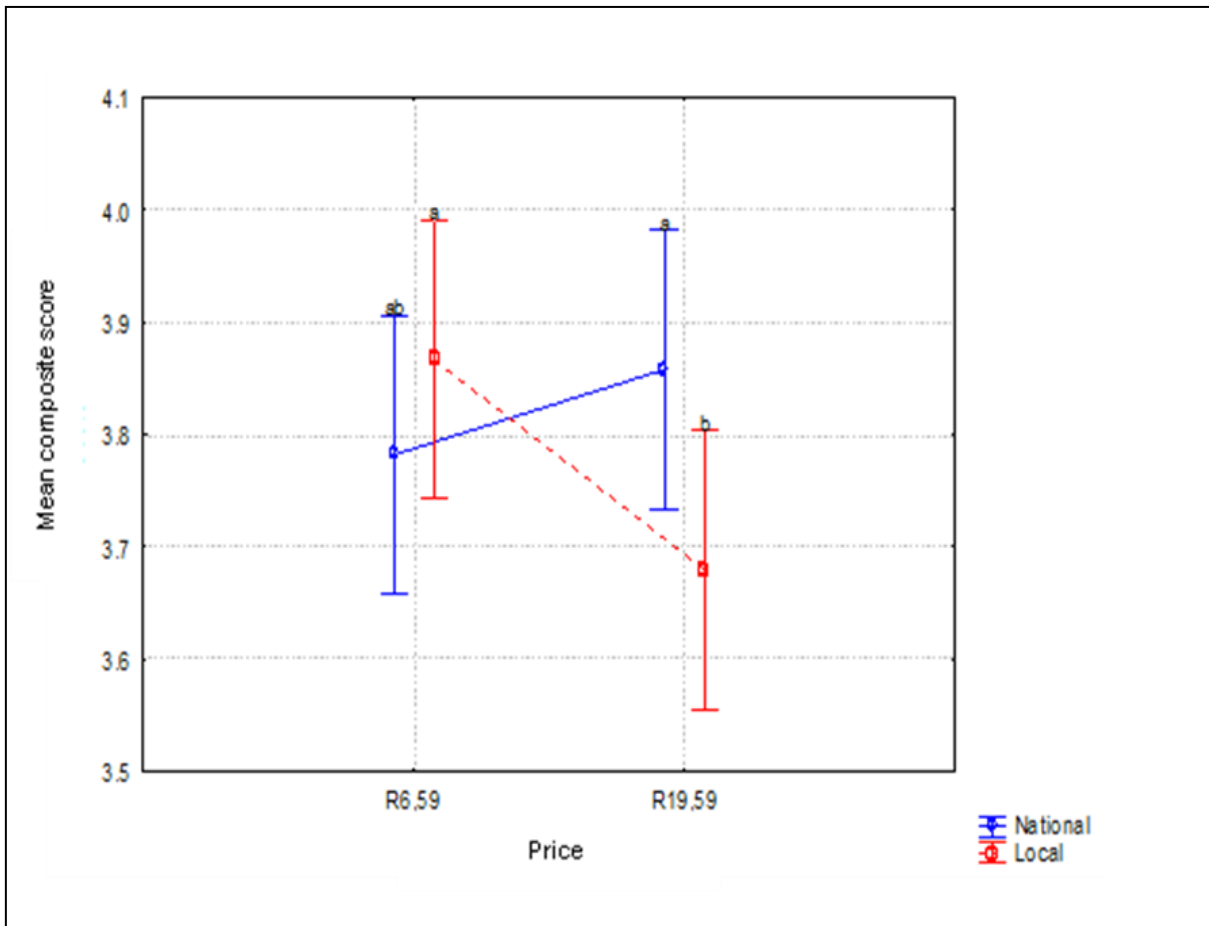
The Fisher LSD post-hoc test revealed some significant differences in the two-way interactions. In the first instance, there was a significant difference between the brand image score of a sponsored event of local size sponsored by a low-priced brand (R6,59) and the brand image score of a sponsored event of local size sponsored by a high-priced brand (R19,59) (p<0.05). The brand image score of a small sponsored event with a low-priced sponsor brand ($\bar{x}$=6.866) was significantly higher than the brand image score of a small sponsored event with a high-priced sponsor brand ($\bar{x}$=3.679). As depicted in Table 6.7, *the perceived brand image of the lower-quality (price) sponsor brand was significantly higher when the quality (size) of the*

sponsored event was lower (i.e. local event). The lower the quality (size) of the sponsored event, the higher the perceived brand image of a low-quality (price) sponsor brand. Therefore, it was deduced that brand image is positively transferred from a lower-quality sponsored event to a lower-quality sponsor brand.

In the second instance, there was a significant difference between the brand image score of a sponsored event of national size sponsored by a high-priced brand (R19,59) and the brand image score of a sponsored event of local size sponsored by a high-priced brand (R19,59) (p<0.05). The brand image perceptions of a large event with a high-priced sponsor brand ($\bar{x}$=3.858) were significantly higher than the brand image perceptions of a small sponsored event with a high-priced sponsor brand with ($\bar{x}$=3.679). As depicted in Table 6.7*, the perceived brand image of the higher-quality (price) sponsor brand was significantly higher when the quality (size) of the sponsored event was higher (i.e national event). The higher the quality (size) of the sponsored event, the higher the perceived brand image of a higher-quality (price) sponsor brand. Therefore, it was deduced that brand image is positively transferred from a higher-quality sponsored event to a higher-quality sponsor brand.*

Table 6.7 Effects of sponsored event manipulations of quality (size)

Cause (Manipulation of product quality)	Mean difference	P-value	Effect (Transfer)	
Brand @ R6,59 and event @ local/Brand @ R19,59 and event @ local	0.188	0.037	✓	**+**
Brand @ R19,59 and event @ national/Brand @ R19,59 and event @ local	0.179	0.046	✓	**+**

From the results above, it was concluded that the perceived quality of the sponsored event was positively transferred to the perceived quality of the sponsor brand when size of the sponsored event was manipulated to match

the price of the sponsor brand. I.e. When there was congruency between the quality (price) of the sponsor brand and the quality (size) of the sponsored event. Therefore is was deduced that brand image transfer does occur from a sponsored event to a sponsor brand when the quality of the respective parties are congruent.

6.4.3 THREE-WAY INTERACTION EFFECTS

As presented in Table 6.3, there were ten three-way interaction effects within the full factorial 2 x 2 x 2 x 2 design. Three-way interaction effects test if the differences between the levels of one variable are dependent on the level of another variable with another variable. The hypotheses for each three-way interaction were presented in Chapter 5 (H_{016}-H_{025}).

By conducting a mixed between-within subjects repeated measures ANOVA, a significant three-way interaction effect was found between the perceived brand image scores of the sponsor brand and sponsored event, perceived brand image scores of the price of the sponsor brand, and perceived brand image scores of the status of the sponsored event. H_{018} was thus rejected (F (1.400) = 4.8949; $p < 0.05$). Figure 6.10 illustrates the significant three-way interaction.

Figure 6.10 Brand image scores of the sponsor brand and sponsored event (price and status manipulations)
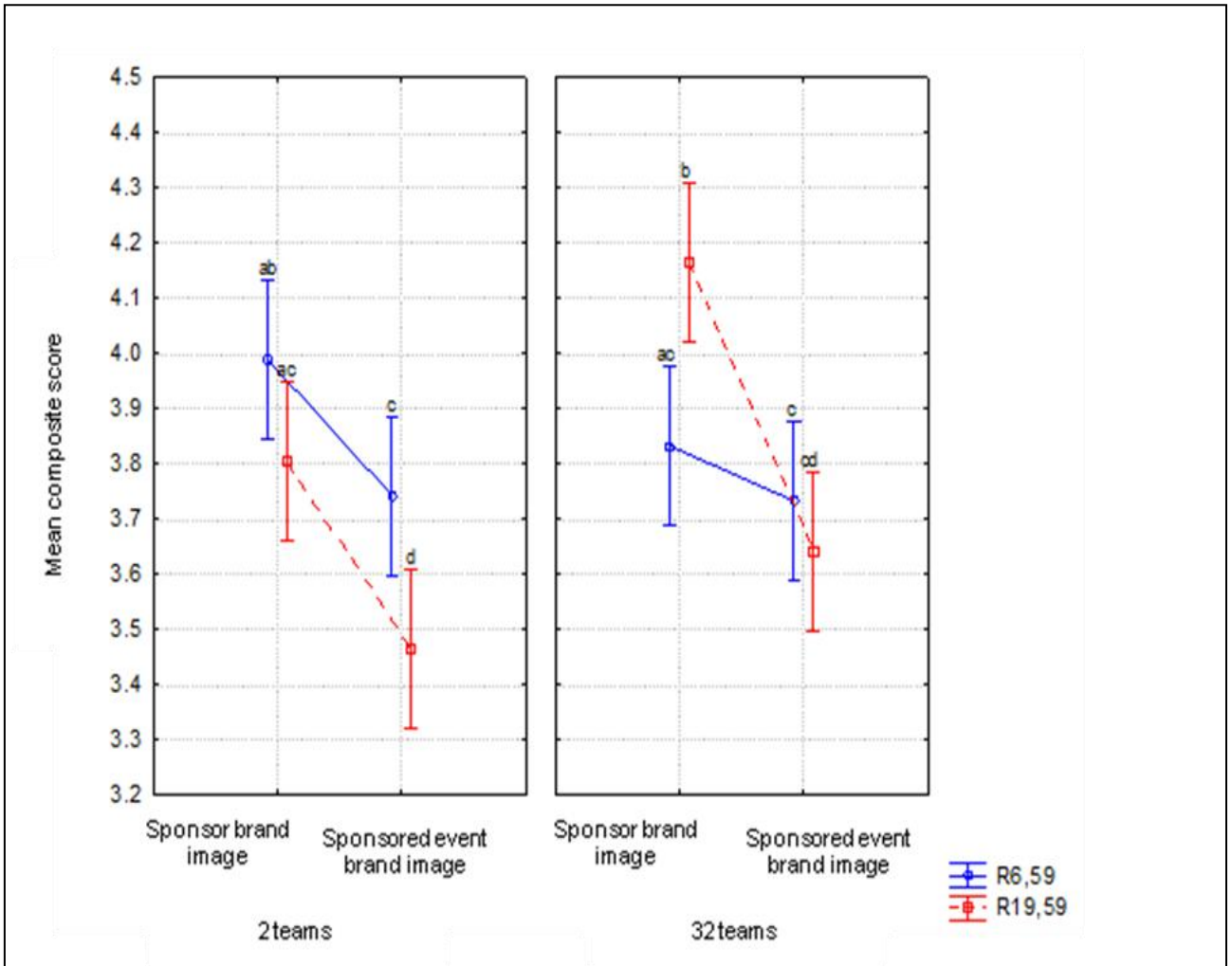
The Fisher LSD post-hoc test revealed some significant differences in the two-way interactions (as depicted in Table 6.8).

Table 6.8 Effects of sponsor brand and sponsored event manipulations of quality (price and status) on brand image

Cause (Manipulation of product quality)	Mean difference	P-value	Effect (Transfer)	
Brand image: R6,59 and 2 teams/Event image: R6,59 and 2 teams	0.246	0.001	✓	**+**
Brand image: R6,59 and 2 teams/Event image: R6,59 and 32 teams	0.256	0.014	✓	**+**
Brand image: R6,59 and 2 teams/Event image: R19,59 and 2 teams	0.525	0.000	✓	**+**
Brand image: R6,59 and 2 teams/Event image: R19,59 and 32 teams	0.348	0.001	✓	**+**
Brand image: R6,59 and 32 teams/Brand image: R19,59 and 32 teams	-0.333	0.001	✓	**-**
Brand image: R6,59 and 32 teams/Event image: R19,59 and 2 teams	0.369	0.000	✓	**+**
Brand image: R19,59 and 2 teams/Brand image: R19,59 and 32 teams	-0.362	0.000	✓	**-**
Brand image: R19,59 and 2 teams/Event image: R19,59 and 2 teams	0.340	0.000	✓	**+**
Brand image: R19,59 and 32 teams/Event image: R6,59 and 2 teams	0.423	0.000	✓	**+**
Brand image: R19,59 and 32 teams/Event image: R6,59 and 32 teams	0.433	0.000	✓	**+**
Brand image: R19,59 and 32 teams/Event image: R19,59 and 2 teams	0.702	0.000	✓	**+**
Brand image: R19,59 and 32 teams/Event image: R19,59 and 32 teams	0.525	0.000	✓	**+**
Event image: R19,59 and 2 teams/Event image: R19,59 and 32 teams	0.279	0.008	✓	**+**
Event image: R19,59 and 2 teams/Event image: R19,59 and 32 teams	0.271	0.010	✓	**+**

It was concluded that the sponsor brand image scores of a lower-quality (price) sponsor brand were significantly lower than those of a higher-quality (price) sponsor brand sponsoring a higher-quality (professional) event. It was also concluded that the sponsored event brand image scores of a lower-quality (amateur) event were significantly lower than those of a higher-quality (professional) event when being sponsored by a higher-quality (price) brand. It was thus deduced that brand image is positively transferred from a sponsor

brand to a sponsored event, and vice versa, when there is a congruency between price and event status.

6.4.4 OTHER INTERACTION EFFECTS

As presented in Table 6.3, there were 5 four-way interactions and 1 five-way interaction within the full factorial 2 x 2 x 2 x 2 design. The hypotheses for each four-way and five-way interaction were presented in Chapter 5 (H_{026}-H_{031}). None of the four-way and five-way interactions were found to reflect a significant interaction. *Therefore, H_026-31 were not rejected and it was concluded that there was no brand image transfer from the sponsor brand to the sponsored event and vice versa when the combined quality of the physical product, product price and status of event were manipulated, and when the combined quality of the physical product, status and size were manipulated.*

6.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter was dedicated to analysing the data collected for the purpose of this study and presenting the results of the findings. Firstly, it was determined that the realised sample was appropriate and reflected the intended target population of shoppers falling within LSM groups 8 to 10. Secondly, it was established that brand image was transferred from the sponsor brand (FruityBliss) to the sponsored event (ProFriz Frisbee Challenge). Lastly, it was found that brand image was transferred from the sponsored event (ProFriz Frisbee Challenge) to the sponsor brand (FruityBliss).

The primary objective of this study was to assess brand image transfer in sponsorship. From the results presented in this chapter, the researcher was able to conclude that brand image transfer does occur between sponsor brands and sponsored events in selected interactions. The following chapter presents the

final chapter for this research report and concludes this study by suggesting recommendations, discussing limitations and future research, and reconciling the study findings with the objectives of the study.

Chapter 7

Conclusions and Recommendations

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This study was designed to assess brand image transfer in sponsorship, and consequently, FruityBliss and the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge were created as fictitious brands to assess the selected brand image attributes of a sponsor brand and a sponsored event (see section 5.6). The brands were designed specifically for the full 2 x 2 x 2 x 2 factorial experiment used in this study. A mixed between-within subjects repeated measures ANOVA was applied to meet the research objectives.

The purpose of this chapter is to reiterate each outcome of each objective as presented in Chapter 6. Thereafter, recommendations will be made pertaining to the empirical results. The chapter concludes with the limitations and future research regarding the sponsorship of sport events; as well as the final reconciliation of the objectives of the study.

7.2 CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY

This section reiterates the findings of the research results as stated in Chapter 6. Each finding is relevant to achieving the primary objective of the study, which is to assess brand image transfer in sponsorship.

7.2.1 REALISED SAMPLE

Results showed that the sample in this study was predominantly White and English-speaking, and that the respondents interviewed were young male and female adults, aged mostly between 18 and 24 who fell within LSM groups 8 to 10. It was also deduced that respondents held more favourable perceptions toward fruit juice consumption than sport and health (see section 6.2). Overall, results showed that respondents held positive perceptions of the sponsor brand and the sponsored event, although, they seemed more positive toward the brand image of the sponsor brand than that of the sponsored event.

7.2.2 MAIN EFFECT

Results illustrated that the brand image of the sponsor brand had a greater mean score than the brand image of the sponsored event across the 16 experimental groups. In other words, the perceived brand image of the sponsor brand (FruityBliss) was higher than the perceived brand image of the sponsored event (the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge). It was concluded that the sponsor brand (fruit juice) held more positive perceptions than the sponsored event (sport), possibly because the respondents held more favourable perceptions toward fruit juice consumption than sport and health.

7.2.3 TWO-WAY INTERACTION EFFECTS

Firstly, it was concluded that brand image transfer does occur from the sponsor brand to the sponsored event, in that a manipulation of the quality (physical product) of the sponsor brand causes a positive brand image transfer to the sponsored event. The higher the quality of the physical product of the sponsor brand, the higher the perceived brand image of the sponsored event. The lower the quality of the physical product of the sponsor brand, the lower the perceived brand image of the sponsored event.

Secondly, the results showed that brand image transfer does occur from the sponsor brand to the sponsored event, in that the higher the quality (price) of the sponsor brand, the lower the perceived brand image of the sponsored event. The lower the quality (price) of the sponsor brand, the higher the perceived brand image of the sponsored event. The results also showed that an event sponsored by a sponsor brand with a lower price holds higher brand image perceptions than if sponsored by a higher-priced brand.

Thirdly, it was concluded that the perceived quality of the sponsored event was positively transferred to the perceived quality of the sponsor brand when status of the sponsored event was manipulated to match the price of the sponsor brand. The higher the quality (status) of the sponsored event, the higher the perceived brand image of a higher-quality (price) sponsor brand. The lower the quality (status) of the sponsored event, the higher the perceived brand image of a lower-priced sponsor brand. Therefore it was deduced that brand image transfer does occur from a sponsored event to a sponsor brand.

Finally, it was concluded that the perceived quality of the sponsored event was positively transferred to the perceived quality of the sponsor brand when size of the sponsored event was manipulated to match the price of the sponsor brand. The bigger the size of the sponsored event, the higher the perceived brand image of a higher-priced sponsor brand. The smaller the size of the sponsored event, the higher the perceived brand image of a lower-priced sponsor brand. Therefore it was deduced that brand image transfer does occur from a sponsored event to a sponsor brand.

7.2.4 THREE-WAY INTERACTION EFFECT

It was concluded that the sponsor brand image scores of a lower-quality (price) sponsor brand were significantly lower than those of a higher-quality

(price) sponsor brand sponsoring a higher-quality event. It was also concluded that the sponsored event brand image scores of a lower-quality (status) event were significantly lower than those of a higher-quality event when being sponsored by a higher-quality (price) brand. It was thus deduced brand image is positively transferred from a sponsor brand to a sponsored event, and vice versa, when there is congruency between the quality of the sponsor brand (price) and the quality of the sponsored event (status).

7.3 IMPLICATIONS FOR SPONSOR BRANDS AND SPONSORED EVENTS

Literature revealed that sponsorship can be used by marketing managers to create and enhance brand image through managing brand and event image attributes (Chapters 1, 2, 3 and 4). In this study, four brand and event image attributes were selected to assess brand image transfer in sponsorship (physical product, price, event size and event status). It was proposed that sponsorship facilitates brand image transfer from a sponsor brand to a sponsored event and from a sponsored event to a sponsor brand (see section 1.5). The proposed theory (as illustrated in Figure 1.3) was confirmed by manipulating the quality perceptions of a sponsor brand and sponsored event. Results showed that brand image transfer occurs from a sponsor brand to a sponsored event, in that manipulations of the quality (physical product and price) of the sponsor brand caused significant positive effects in the brand image perceptions of the sponsored event. Similarly, it was found that brand image transfer occurs from a sponsored event to a sponsor brand, in that manipulations of the quality (status and size) of the sponsored event caused significant positive effects in the brand image perceptions of the sponsor brand.

As illustrated in Figure 7.1, a manipulation (increase) in the quality (physical product) of a sponsor brand causes the quality perceptions of a large,

professional sponsored event to increase, and ultimately, the perceived sponsored event brand image is enhanced. In this case, brand image is transferred from the sponsor brand to the sponsored event when their perceived quality is congruent.

Figure 7.1   Brand image transfer from sponsor brand to sponsored event (manipulating physical product)
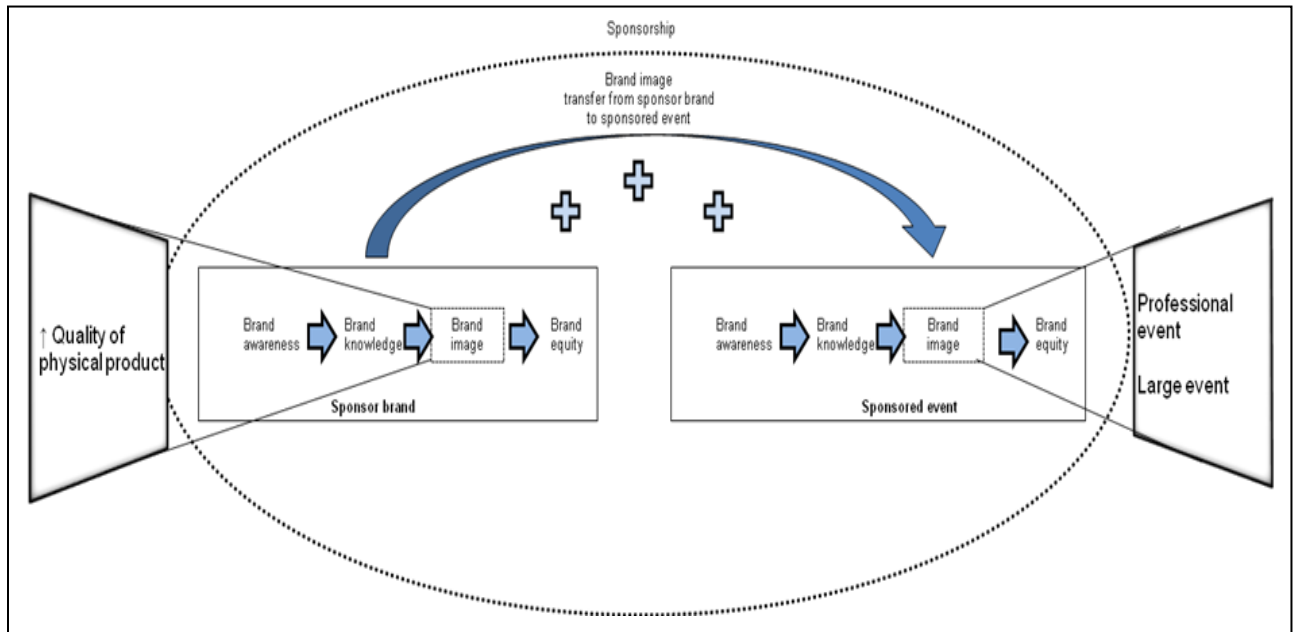
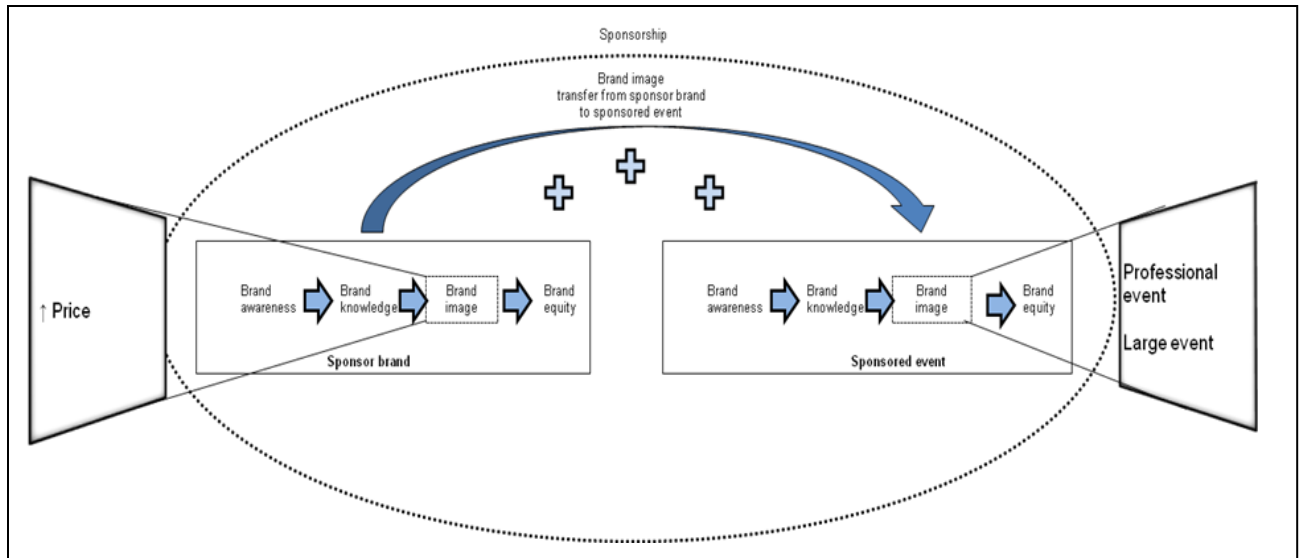As illustrated in Figure 7.2, a manipulation (increase) in the quality (price) of the sponsor brand causes the quality perceptions of a large, professional sponsored event to increase, and ultimately, the perceived sponsored event brand image is enhanced. In this case, brand image is transferred from the sponsor brand to the sponsored event when their perceived quality is congruent.

Figure 7.2 Brand image transfer from sponsor brand to sponsored event (manipulating price)

As illustrated in Figure 7.3, a manipulation (increase) of the quality (status) of a sponsored event causes the quality perceptions of a high-quality, high-priced sponsor brand to increase, and ultimately, the perceived sponsor brand image is enhanced. In this case, brand image is transferred from the sponsored event to the sponsor brand when their perceived quality is congruent.

Figure 7.3 Brand image transfer from sponsored event to sponsor brand (manipulating status of event)

As illustrated in Figure 7.4, a manipulation (increase) of the quality (size) of a sponsored event causes the quality perceptions of a higher-quality, higher-priced sponsor brand to increase, and ultimately, the perceived sponsor brand image is enhanced. In this case, brand image is transferred from the sponsored event to the sponsor brand when their perceived quality is congruent.

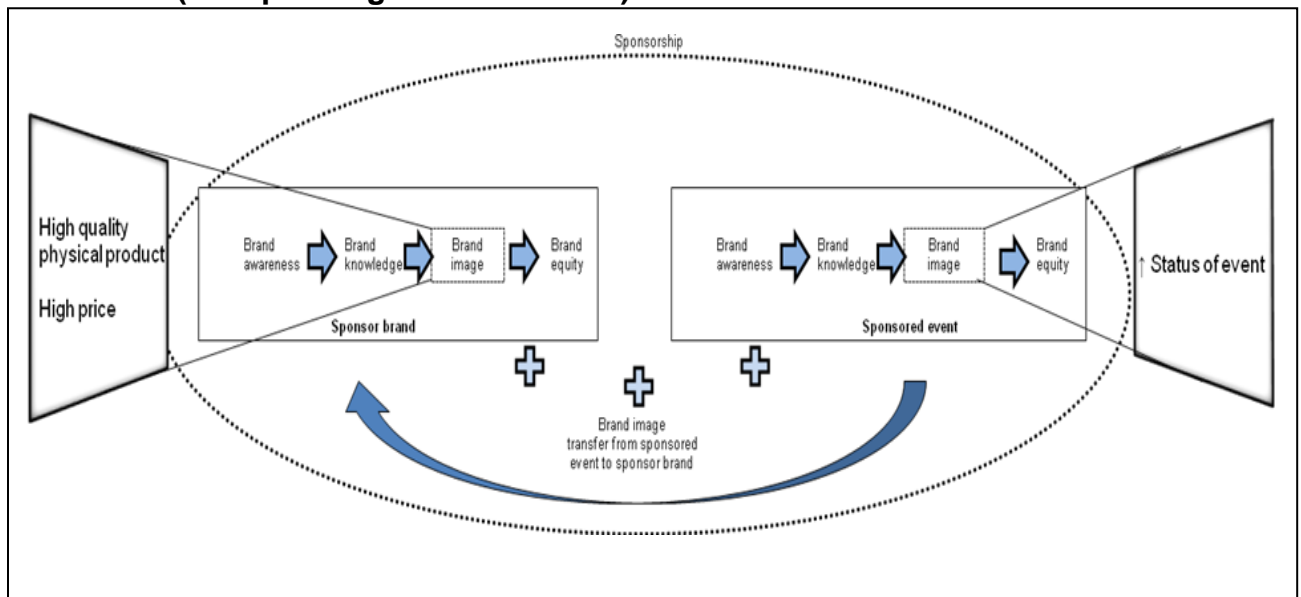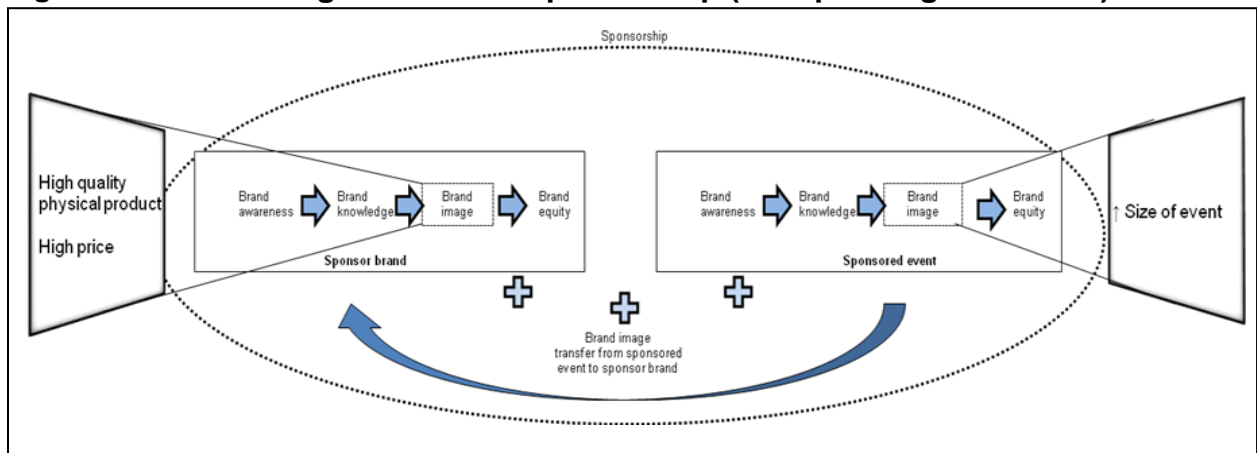**Figure 7.4 Brand image transfer in sponsorship (manipulating event size)**
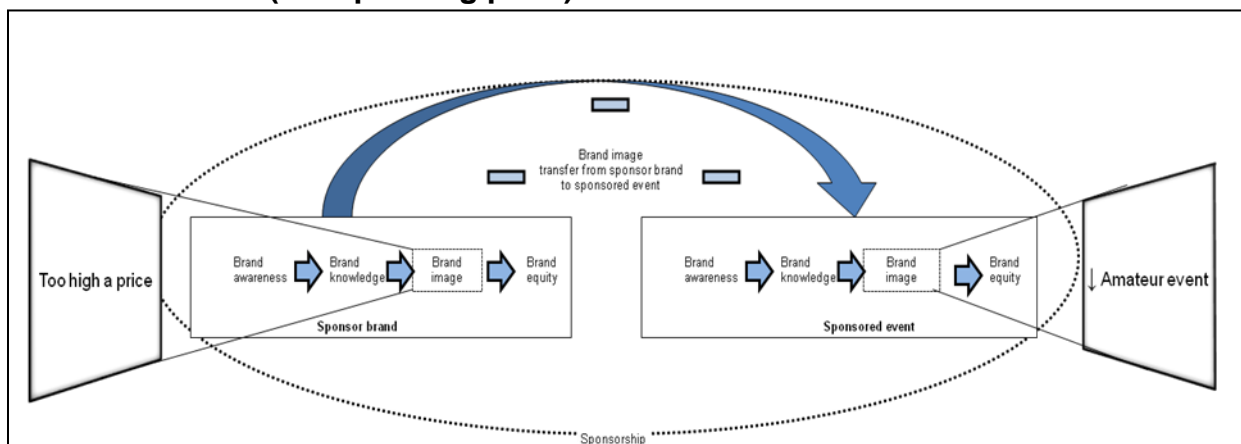

Finally, as illustrated in Figure 7.5, a manipulation (increase) of the quality (price) of a sponsor brand causes the quality perceptions of an amateur sponsored event to decrease, and ultimately, the perceived sponsored event image is negatively affected.

Figure 7.5 Negative brand image transfer from sponsor brand to sponsored event (manipulating price)

Brand image transfer in sponsorship has various implications for marketing managers of sponsor brands and marketing managers of sponsored events respectively. The following sections present suggestions for marketing managers who consider sponsorship as a brand-building marketing communication strategy.

7.3.1 RECOMMENDATIONS TO MARKETING MANAGERS OF SPONSOR BRANDS

Firstly, it is suggested that marketing managers should take note of their target market or intended audience when selecting an event to sponsor, so that they can select an event which is perceived favourably by the intended audience. For instance, there is no use in a fruit juice brand sponsoring a sporting event aimed at individuals in LSM groups 3 to 7 who possibly cannot afford to buy 100% fruit juice and therefore have no intention of buying 100% fruit juice. It is more profitable for a fruit juice brand to sponsor an event which attracts individuals from higher LSM groups and who are likely to purchase fruit juice.

Secondly, it is suggested that marketing managers of high-priced, high-quality brands select events of high status and high size to sponsor. When a high-quality, high-priced brand sponsors a large, professional event, the perceptions of the sponsor brand image will be enhanced. In other words, the brand image of the sponsored event will be transferred to the brand image of the sponsor brand, and because there is congruency between the perceptions of quality of the respective parties, the brand image of the sponsored event will transfer to the sponsor brand, and ultimately enhance the sponsor brand image.

Alternatively, it is suggested that marketing managers of low-priced, low-quality brands select events of low status and low size to sponsor. The congruency between the perceptions of quality of the respective parties will cause the brand image of the sponsored event to transfer to the sponsor brand, and ultimately

enhance the sponsor brand. It is also suggested that if brand image is transferred from a sponsored event to a sponsor brand, marketing managers of lower quality brands can gain from sponsoring events of higher quality.

7.3.2 RECOMMENDATIONS TO MARKETING MANAGERS OF SPONSORED EVENTS

It is suggested that marketing managers of large, professional events agree to sponsorship contracts with higher-quality, higher-priced brands. When a large, professional event is sponsored by a higher-quality, higher-priced brand, the perceptions of the sponsored event brand image will be enhanced. In other words, the brand image of the sponsor brand will be positively transferred to the brand image of the sponsored event, and because there is congruency between the perceptions of quality of the respective parties, the brand image of the sponsored event will be enhanced.

Alternatively, it is suggested that marketing managers of small, amateur events agree to sponsorship agreements with lower-quality, lower-priced brands. The congruency between the perceptions of quality of the respective parties will cause the brand image of the sponsor brand to transfer to the sponsored event, and ultimately, the brand image of the sponsored event will be enhanced.

It is also suggested that if it is true that the brand image of a sponsor brand can transfer to a sponsored event, then marketing managers of lower-quality events can gain by being sponsored by a brand that has a more favourable brand image than that of the sponsored event. However, marketing managers of lower-quality events should be cautious of being associated with a brand that is priced too high. If the price of the sponsor brand is too high, the brand image transfer will have a negative impact on the brand image of the sponsored event, and ultimately will weaken the sponsored event brand image.

7.4 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR BUSINESS MANAGEMENT

The most prevalent business management functions identified in organisations include purchasing, production, human resources, public relations, finance, information and marketing (Bosch *et al.*, 2006). Marketing is defined as the philosophy by which all activities in organisations are based around the needs and wants of consumers (Grönroos, 1989:52). One activity relevant to the purposes of this study is managing the marketing mix and more specifically, managing the promotions (marketing communication) aspect of the marketing mix so as to meet consumers' needs.

As stated in section 1.2, a marketing communication programme implements marketing communication activities to raise consumers' awareness of brands, establish consumers' knowledge of brands, and ultimately enhance brand images in consumers' minds. One form of marketing communication which has had an influence on brand knowledge transfer in previous cases is sponsorship. The results in this study confirmed that sponsorship may be used to create and enhance the awareness of a brand, facilitate brand knowledge transfer, as well as to create and enhance the image of a brand or event (Grohs, Wagner and Vsetecka, 2004; Moreau, *et al.*, 2001) and ultimately build brand equity (see Figure 7.6).

Figure 7.6 Brand awareness, brand knowledge and brand image
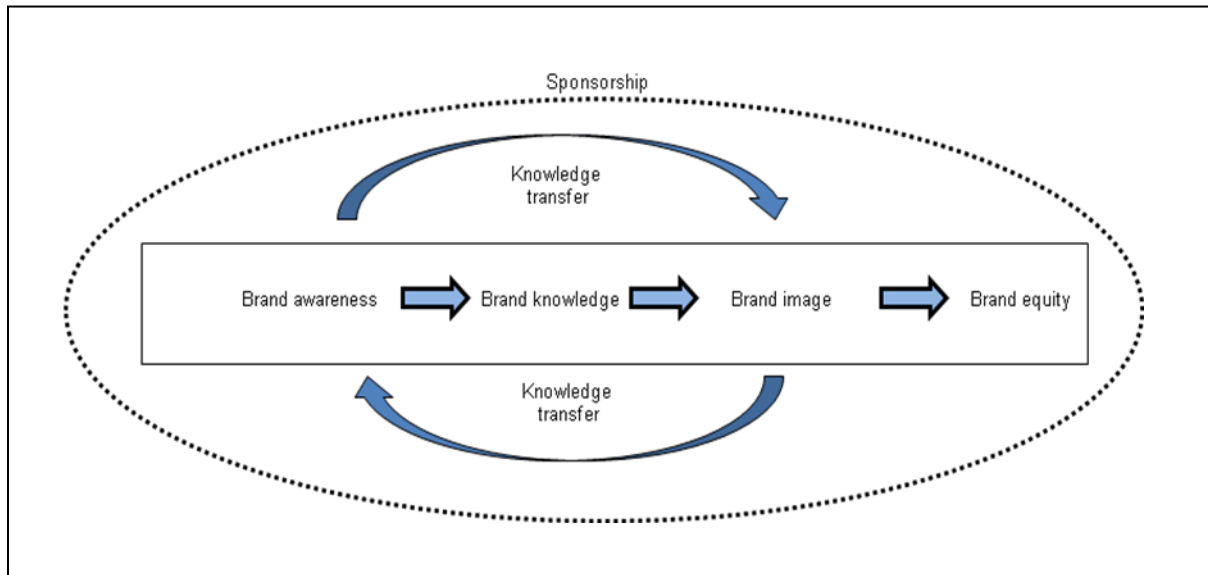
Source: Adapted from Keller (1993)

Results of this study showed that the brand image of a sponsor brand, as well as the brand image of a sponsored event is influenced by sponsorship. In other words, knowledge about brand image is transferred within a sponsorship situation and influences the brand images of sponsor brands and sponsored events. Therefore it is recommended that marketing managers utilise sponsorship as a marketing communication strategy to transfer knowledge about brands to consumers, thereby enhancing the brand image of their brands and ultimately achieving higher brand equity. It is through this knowledge transfer that organisations are able to communicate their consumer-satisfying capabilities.

7.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Some limitations concerning this study should be noted. Firstly, the context of this study was confined to a fruit juice sponsor brand and a Frisbee sponsored event. Results showed that respondents held positive perceptions towards both the sponsor brand and the sponsored event (see section 6.3). The product and event category chosen may be viewed as a limitation since

shoppers might have different (or even negative) perceptions of different categories of sponsor brands or sponsored events. The effects of brand image transfer between sponsor brands and sponsored events could be different if different sponsor brand types and/or sponsored event types had been studied.

Also, only brand image attributes were assessed in light of the brand image of the sponsor brand and that of the sponsored event. Brand image is comprised of other aspects, including brand image attitudes and benefits. Brand image transfer was assessed by only assessing brand image attributes. The effects of brand image transfer between sponsor brands and sponsored events could be different if brand image attitudes and/or brand image benefits had been studied.

7.6 AREAS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

When reflecting on the conceptual framework applied in this study, a few areas may be noted for further research.

Firstly, the study could be repeated on a different type of sponsorship. Sport sponsorship was selected in this study due to its large potential to add value to organisations (see Chapter 4). Future research could be dedicated to assessing brand image transfer in other types of sponsorship such as art sponsorship, social-cause sponsorship and event sponsorship.

Secondly, it is suggested that this study be repeated using different brand and event image attributes. Only two attributes, namely physical product and price were manipulated to assess the brand image of a sponsor brand; and only two attributes, namely event status and event size were manipulated to assess the brand image of a sponsored event, because they were relatively easy to manipulate (see Chapter 5), however, it is suggested that in future research, other brand image attributes are assessed, such as packaging, product usage,

and product use for sponsor brands, and event type, event venue, event history and the promotional appearance of the event.

Finally, research on brand image transfer in sponsorship could be conducted on the service industry. Service brands could be applied to this study as sponsors of events, in place of the product sponsor brand (FruityBliss). Suggestions include looking at insurance companies, medical aid companies, car rental companies and communication technology services as sponsor brands.

7.7 RECONCILIATION OF THE OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The primary objective of this study, as set out in Chapter 1, was to assess brand image transfer in sponsorship. The secondary objectives were stated as follows:

- Assess the brand image transfer from a sponsor brand to a sponsored event.

- Assess the brand image transfer from a sponsored event to a sponsor brand.

By applying a full factorial (2 x 2 x 2 x 2) experimental design, it was concluded that brand image is transferred from a sponsor brand to a sponsored event and vice versa. Ultimately, brand image transfer does occur in sponsorship. It is thus concluded that the secondary objectives and consequently, the primary objective of this study were achieved.

7.8 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to assess brand image transfer in sponsorship. Results of the study showed that brand image transfer does occur between sponsor brands and sponsored events, specifically when the price and the quality of the physical product of a sponsor brand matches the event status and the event size of a sponsored event. When the price of the sponsor brand was

set too high, it was found that the brand image of an amateur event would decrease significantly. Therefore, it was concluded that it is essential for congruency to be present between the brand image of a sponsor brand and the brand image of a sponsored event in order for effective brand image transfer to occur.

From the results, one could conclude that sponsorship is an effective marketing communication strategy whereby knowledge of brand images can be transferred between parties and ultimately, brand equity can be enhanced.

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Annexure A

Questionnaire

<table>
<tr><td colspan="3" align="center">FRUITYBLISS PROFRIZ CHALLENGE</td><td>Q#</td><td>A</td><td></td></tr>
</table>

NAME:………………………………………………	TEL: (H) (AREA CODE): ( )……………………………………..………
ADDRESS:…………………………........................	TEL: (W) (AREA CODE): ( )………………………………………..
………………………………………………………………	DATE:……………..INTERVIEWER:……………………………………
…………………………………..…CODE………………	BACKCHECK: Telephone 1 Personal 2

SAY: Good day. My name is……………...Today we are talking to people about the FruityBliss ProFriz Frisbee Challenge. May I ask you a few questions? **IF YES, CONTINUE**.

SAY: Looking at this poster, please indicate to what extent you agree OR disagree with each of the statements; where 5 means you strongly agree and 1 means you strongly disagree. **Please circle the respondent's answer.**

SAY: Let's suppose you drink fruit juice:		Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
B1	The likelihood that FruityBliss fruit juice would be a delicious drink is very high.	5	4	3	2	1
B2	The likely standard of FruityBliss fruit juice is extremely high.	5	4	3	2	1
B3	FruityBliss fruit juice appears to be of good quality.	5	4	3	2	1
B4	My image of FruityBliss fruit juice is good.	5	4	3	2	1
B5	I view the FruityBliss brand name positively.	5	4	3	2	1

SAY: Let's suppose you enjoy sport:		Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
E1	The ProFriz Frisbee Challenge appears to be an event of superior status.	5	4	3	2	1
E2	The likelihood that the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge would be an event worth watching is very high.	5	4	3	2	1
E3	My image of the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge is that it is a highly enjoyable event.	5	4	3	2	1
E4	One could believe that the ProFriz Frisbee challenge has high entertainment value.	5	4	3	2	1
E5	The likely standard of the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge event is extremely high.	5	4	3	2	1

SAY: Please answer a few questions about yourself. Please indicate to what extent you agree OR disagree with each of the statements; where 5 means you strongly agree and 1 means you strongly disagree. **Please circle the respondent's answer.**

		Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
H1	I eat a well balanced diet.	5	4	3	2	1
H2	I eat fresh fruit and vegetables.	5	4	3	2	1
H3	I exercise regularly.	5	4	3	2	1
H4	I watch the amount of fat I consume.	5	4	3	2	1
F1	I like to drink fruit juice.	5	4	3	2	1
F2	I like drinking fruit juice because it quenches my thirst.	5	4	3	2	1
F3	I enjoy drinking fruit juice because it tastes good.	5	4	3	2	1
S1	I like to watch or listen to sport.	5	4	3	2	1
S2	I usually read the sports page in the daily paper.	5	4	3	2	1
S3	I thoroughly enjoy conversations about sport.	5	4	3	2	1
S4	I would rather go to a sporting event than a dance.	5	4	3	2	1

GENDER		**AGE**		**POP. GROUP**		**HOME LANGUAGE**	
Male	1	18-24	1	Black	1	English	1
Female	2	25-30	2	White	2	Afrikaans	2
		31-44	3	Coloured	3	Nguni (Zulu)	3
		45+	4	Asian	4	Sotho	4
				Other	5	Other (…………………)5	

SAY: MAY I PLEASE ASK YOU SOME ADDITIONAL QUESTIONS?				
A. What type of work do you do? (**If child, scholar or student ask**: what work does the main breadwinner from your household do?)	………			
B. What type of work does your spouse/partner do?	……...			

C. Which of these do you have in the household where you live? **READ OUT EACH.**		**YES**	**NO**	
	Microwave	1	0	
	Fridge/freezer	1	0	
	Tumble dryer	1	0	
	Computer/PC at home	1	0	
	DSTV or MNET	1	0	
ADD UP THE YES COLUMN (ALL THE 1'S)	Hot running water	1	0	
	Home telephone	1	0	
	Car	1	0	
	Credit facility/accounts (credit card/ clothing accounts)	1	0	
	Automatic dishwasher	1	0	
	LSM NUMBER			

D. Which of these best describes your highest level of education? **Once code only**.		
	Illiterate	1
	Literate but no formal/school education	2
	Primary/Junior incomplete	3
	Primary/Junior complete	4
	Secondary/Senior/High school incomplete	5
	Secondary/Senior/High school complete	6
	College/university incomplete	7
	College/university complete	8
	Post graduate studies incomplete	9
	Post graduate studies complete	10

E. Are you…	A child, scholar or student living at home	**CLOSE INTERVIEW**	1
	Renting your flat/house/cottage	**CONTINUE**	2
	Owner of your home	**CONTINUE**	3

F. Is the **total monthly household income** more or less than R10 000 **per month**? (i.e. everyone who is working or has money coming in)	R10 000 or more	**ASK QUESTION G ONLY**	1
	Less than R10 000	**ASK QUESTION H ONLY**	2
	Don't know		3

G. Is it more or less than R20 000 per month?	R20 000 or more	1
	Less than R20 000	2
	Don't know	3

H. Is it more or less than R5000 per month?	R5000 or more	1
	Less than R5000	2
	Don't know	3

THANK THE RESPONDENT FOR THEIR TIME AND CLOSE INTERVIEW

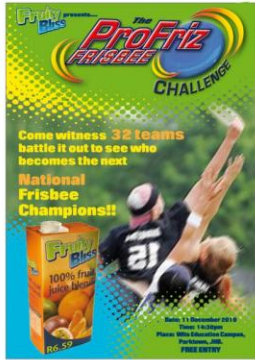I hereby declare that this is a true interview and I was briefed fully on this interview by Margaret.

SIGNED:……………………………………………………………………………………… INTERVIEWER CODE:

Annexure B

Experimental groups
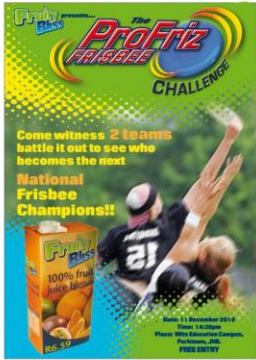(Sixteen A3-sized posters)

Poster 1: Experiment 1

Poster 2: Experiment 2

Poster 3: Experiment 3

Poster 4: Experiment 4

Poster 5: Experiment 5

Poster 6: Experiment 6

Poster 7: Experiment 7

Poster 8: Experiment 8

Poster 9: Experiment 9

Poster 10: Experiment 10

Poster 11: Experiment 11

Poster 12: Experiment 12

Poster 13: Experiment 13

Poster 14: Experiment 14

Poster 15: Experiment 15

Poster 16: Experiment 16

Annexure C

Scale development

	AUTHOR + ARTICLE	RATIONALISATION	ORIGINAL ITEM(S)	ADAPTED ITEM(S): FRUITYBLISS (B)	ADAPTED ITEM(S): PROFRIZ FISBEE CHALLENGE (E)
SPONSOR BRAND AND SPONSORED EVENT	**Bruner (#348)** **Grenwal, Monroe and Krishnan 1998** **Sweeney Soutar and Johnson 1999** **Teas and Agarwal 2000** Likert	*Reliability* Construct reliabilities 0.79 and 0.77 Composite reliability 0.91 Alphas: 0.94, 0.96, 0.93 *Validity* Unidimensional Convergent validity Discriminant validity	**The *insert product* appears to be of good quality** The *insert product* appears to be durable The *insert product* appears to be reliable The *insert product* appears to be dependable **My image of the *insert product* is good** **I view the *insert product* brand name positively** The workmanship of this product would be good	**FruityBliss fruit juice appears to be of good quality** Not used Not used Not used **My image of FruityBliss fruit juice is good** **I view the FruityBliss brand name positively** Not used	**The ProFriz Frisbee Challenge appears to be of good quality** Not used Not used Not used **My image of the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge is good** **I view the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge event positively** Not used
			α = 0.94	**α = 0.799**	**α = 0.692**
	Bruner (#351) **Yoo, Donthu and Lee 2000** Six, 5-point Likert	*Reliability* Composite reliability 0.93 *Validity* Convergent and discriminant validity Consumers general sense of quality of specific brand	***Insert product* is of high quality** **The likely quality of *insert product* is extremely high** **The likelihood that *insert product* would be functional is very high** ***Insert product* must be of very good quality** *Insert product* appears to be of very poor quality (r)	**FruityBliss fruit juice is of high quality** **The likely quality of FruityBliss fruit juice is extremely high** **The likelihood that FruityBliss fruit juice would be beneficial to my health is very high** **FruityBliss fruit juice must be of very good quality** Not used	**The ProFriz frisbee Challenge is of high quality** **The likely quality of the ProFriz frisbee Challenge is extremely high** **The likelihood that the ProFriz Frisbee Challenge would be an event worth watching is very high** **The ProFriz Frisbee Challenge must be an event of very good quality** Not used
			α = 0.93	**α = 0.833**	**α = 0.655**

		AUTHOR + ARTICLE	RATIONALISATION	ORIGINAL ITEM(S)	ADAPTED ITEM(S):
DEMOGRAPHICS	**RESPONDENTS' HEALTH INTEREST (H)**	Health behaviours (preventive) Moorman and Matulich (1993); Jayanati and Burns (1998) Response scale anchored by never, sometimes and always	Reliability Alpha: 0.81 Validity Convergent and discriminant validities reported	How often do you undertake the following activities? 1. eat a well-balanced diet 2. see you dentist for regular check ups 3. Eat fresh fruit and vegetables 4. Reduce amount of salt in your diet 5. Watch for salt content in diet 6. Exercise regularly 7. Watch the amount of fat you consume 8. Take precautions against sexually transmitted diseases	**4 item, 5 point Likert scale (agree/disagree)** I eat a well-balanced diet I eat fresh fruit and vegetables I exercise regularly I watch the amount of fat I consume
	RESPONDENTS' FRUIT JUICE INTEREST (F)	Attitude toward drink consumption Beatty and Kahle (1988); Fishbein and Ajzen (1975). Likert scale	*Reliability* Alphas: 0.74 and 0.79 Test-retest reliability: 0.56 *Validity* None reported	I like to enjoy soft drinks Drinking a soft drink to keep me alert is _____ (bad-good) I like drinking a soft drink because it helps me to relax I like drinking a soft drink because it quenches my thirst Drinking a soft drink is not healthy for me I enjoy drinking soft drinks because they taste good	**4 item, 5 point Likert scale (agree/disagree)** I like to drink fruit juice I like drinking fruit juice because it quenches my thirst I enjoy drinking fruit juice because it tastes good
	RESPONDENTS' SPORT INTEREST (S)	Sports enthusiasm Wells and Tigert (1971) 4 item, 6 point Likert scale	*Reliability* Alpha = 0.78 *Validity* Factor analysis revealed that factors loaded together	I like to watch or listen to baseball or football games I usually read the sports page in the daily paper I thoroughly enjoy conversations about sports I would rather go to a sporting event than a dance	**4 item, 5 point Likert scale (agree/disagree)** I like to watch or listen to sport I usually read the sports page in the daily paper I thoroughly enjoy conversations about sport I would rather go to a sporting event than a dance

Annexure D

Flashcard

SHOW CARD

Please tell me how much to you agree or disagree with the following statements.

	5	**Agree strongly**
	4	**Agree somewhat**
	3	**Neutral**
	2	**Disagree somewhat**
	1	**Disagree strongly**