

Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science

<http://jam.sagepub.com>

Determinants of Sports Sponsorship Response

Richard Speed and Peter Thompson

Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science 2000; 28; 226

DOI: 10.1177/0092070300282004

The online version of this article can be found at:
<http://jam.sagepub.com/cgi/content/abstract/28/2/226>

Published by:



<http://www.sagepublications.com>

On behalf of:



[Academy of Marketing Science](#)

Additional services and information for *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science* can be found at:

Email Alerts: <http://jam.sagepub.com/cgi/alerts>

Subscriptions: <http://jam.sagepub.com/subscriptions>

Reprints: <http://www.sagepub.com/journalsReprints.nav>

Permissions: <http://www.sagepub.com/journalsPermissions.nav>

Citations <http://jam.sagepub.com/cgi/content/refs/28/2/226>

Determinants of Sports Sponsorship Response

Richard Speed
Peter Thompson

University of Melbourne

Despite the growing role of sponsorship in the marketing activities of firms worldwide, academic research in this area has been limited. Adopting a classical conditioning framework, this research examines the effects of consumers' attitudes about a sports event, their perceptions of sponsor-event fit, and their attitudes about the sponsor on a multidimensional measure of sponsorship response. The results suggest that sponsor-event fit, perceived sincerity of the sponsor, perceived ubiquity of the sponsor, and attitude toward the sponsor are key factors in generating a favorable response from sponsorship. Liking of the event and perceived status of the event have differing significance depending on how response is measured. Sponsor-event fit also has interaction effects with perceived status of the event and personal interest in the event. The implications of these findings for sponsors and event managers are examined, and future research directions are outlined.

Sponsorship has become a vital part of funding for a wide range of sporting, artistic, and social events. The worldwide sponsorship market has grown from an estimated U.S.\$2 billion in 1984 to \$16.6 billion in 1996 (Meenaghan 1998). Major sporting events in particular have become dependent on sponsorship. The 1996 Atlanta Olympics raised \$540 million in sponsorship from companies. The Sydney Organizing Committee for the Olympic Games in 2000 has budgeted for sponsorship income of A\$830 million. To put the size of this sponsorship package in context, total direct investment in sports sponsorship in Australia in 1995 was estimated at about A\$600 million (Shoebridge 1995). However, as Cornwell and Maignan

(1998) noted, it is remarkable that with such growth, so little is known about how sponsorship works and what makes it effective as a marketing activity. In this study, we develop and test a model of the determinants of sponsorship response and so seek to provide insights into how sponsorship works and how managers involved in sponsorship can improve their decision-making.

BACKGROUND

Sponsorship has been defined as "provision of assistance either financial or in kind to an activity by a commercial organization for the purpose of achieving commercial objectives" (Meenaghan 1983). The involvement of a second party, that is, the activity sponsored, distinguishes sponsorship from advertising, and the commercial motivation distinguishes sponsorship from altruism. Despite the distinctiveness of sponsorship as a promotional activity, there is little in the academic marketing literature to guide a company's decisions about what events to sponsor, how to leverage their sponsorship resources, and what response to expect. A recent review (Cornwell and Maignan 1998) has noted that sponsorship research to date has "not adopted any specific theoretical framework that could guide investigations of consumers' reaction to sponsorships" (p. 14) and that there is much debate over research methodology.

The alternative methodologies used are essentially survey and experimental work. Survey work tracks a variable of interest over the course of a sponsorship campaign (e.g., Crimmins and Horn 1996; Stipp and Schiavone 1996—1992 Olympics; Donovan, Holman, Corti, and Jalleh 1997—health promotions; Otker and Hayes 1987—1986 World Cup). Experimental work examines differences in subject response to controlled differences in

sponsorship designs (e.g., D'Astous and Bitz 1995; Hansen and Scotwin 1995; Javalgi, Traylor, Gross, and Lampman 1994). As might be expected, in survey work there are issues of control, and in experimental work there are issues of generalizability and managerial application.

In this article we report a study that seeks to overcome these weaknesses. The study examines the role played by consumers' attitudes toward different attributes of a sponsorship in shaping the consumers' response to that sponsorship. We use classical conditioning as the conceptual framework in this study and examine previous sponsorship research in these terms. We seek to maintain control in the study by using a large number of fictitious sponsorships as stimuli. The number of stimuli reduces the impact of any idiosyncratic effects associated with a particular sponsorship. The fictitious nature of the sponsorships allows exposure and awareness to be controlled. We seek to maintain generalizability and managerial application by measuring rather than manipulating the independent variables.

Our study relates to sponsorships that have as their ultimate objective the influencing of behavior of consumers toward the sponsoring brand, rather than internal or channel-based objectives. In this type of sponsorship, a response is sought through communicating to the target market the association of the sponsoring brand with the event. At the most basic level, the communication seeks to inform the target market that firm A is a sponsor of event X. In such a sponsorship, two stimuli—the event and the sponsor—are presented to the consumer simultaneously. Hence, it is a situation where learning through classical conditioning may occur.

As one of our objectives in this study is to provide guidance for managers, it is worthwhile to briefly examine the type of guidance available in the absence of academic research. There is a consulting industry that advises sponsors on their activities. These consultants recommend techniques to assess sponsorship effectiveness that betray the origins of many of the consultants in publicity and public relations. The most commonly reported method for evaluating the effectiveness of sponsorships is to measure the quantity of exposure the sponsoring brand achieves through media coverage of the event. Exposure is created through mention of the name, appearance of the logo, and so on and is assessed in terms of time or space (Cortez 1992; Kate 1995). This is then converted into a monetary value by calculating the cost of the advertising to achieve equivalent exposure.

We suggest that there are some significant problems with such an approach to sponsorship evaluation. Most significantly, the measurement is post hoc and thus cannot be used directly to evaluate proposals or guide sponsorship decision-making. However, interviews conducted with sponsorship managers in the preliminary stages of this research confirmed anecdotal evidence that managers

commonly use expected exposure for this purpose. Second, the exposure-based model of assessment of sponsorship effectiveness assumes that exposure is a necessary and sufficient condition for sponsorship success (Hermanns, Drees, and Wangen 1986; Treadgold 1997). Third, it assumes that additional exposure will always add to effectiveness.

The link between exposure and behavior in other areas of promotion has been extensively investigated. There is some past research that supports such a model of sponsorship response, the most famous being mere-exposure effects (Zajonc 1980). This research suggests that intervening attitudes, such as liking, interest, and relevance, are not necessary for response to a stimulus. In low-involvement situations, and when the exposure is short, mere-exposure effects have been found to be relevant to advertising (Bornstein 1989). Recent conceptual work on advertising response (Grunert 1996) used cognitive psychology to suggest that the mere-exposure effect can lead to higher evaluation of a product when advertising responses are automatic and unconscious.

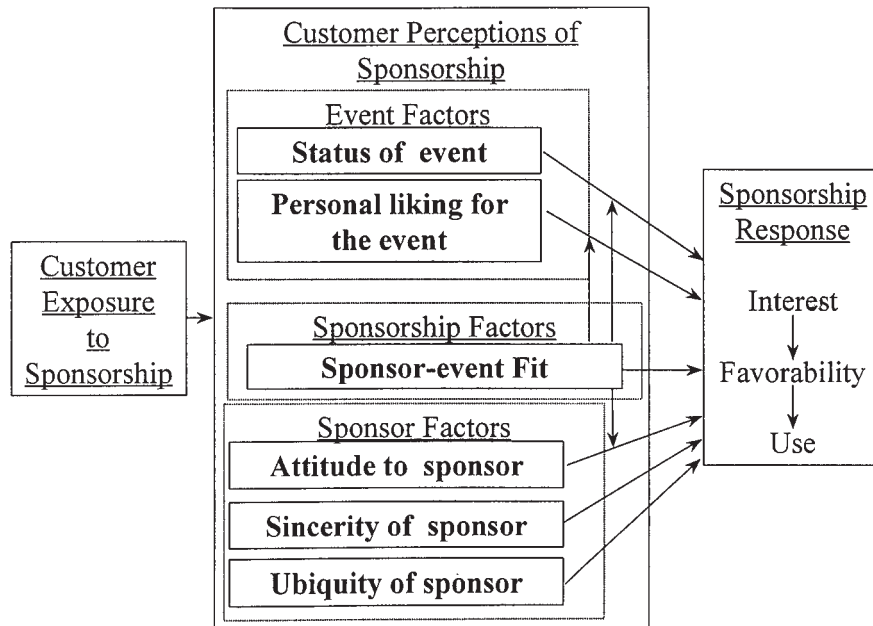
However, there is a substantial body of research that suggests that in most circumstances, exposure is a necessary but not sufficient condition for a response to promotion. This research views advertising response as a strategic and conscious process (Grunert 1996), and thus the consumers' attitude toward different attributes of a promotion play a major role in shaping their response to that promotion.

Contemporary researchers of classical conditioning emphasize the cognitive aspects of the process. Rather than being viewed as the creation of subconscious reflexes, classical conditioning is seen as the use by an information seeker of the relationship between two stimuli to learn about one of these through what is known about the other (Shimp 1991). A series of studies have identified factors that influence the conditions under which such learning occurs.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Classical conditioning research in advertising suggests that the size of the conditioned response will depend on (1) respondents' attitude toward the unconditioned stimulus (the ad or the endorser) (Mitchell and Olsen 1981; Shimp 1981), (2) respondents' prior attitude toward the conditioned stimulus (the brand) (Stuart, Shimp, and Engle 1987), and (3) respondents' perception of congruence between unconditioned and conditioned stimulus (the ad/endorser and the brand) (Mitchell, Kahn, and Knasko 1995; Shimp 1991). Hence, applying this to sponsorship, the response to a sports sponsorship is proposed to be affected by (1) attitudes toward the event, (2) attitudes toward the sponsor, and (3) perception of congruence

FIGURE 1
Conceptual Framework for Current Study



between sponsor and event. The remainder of this section discusses the nature of these constructs in more detail, outlines the research that justifies their inclusion, and proposes hypotheses about their relationship with sponsorship response. The conceptual model is summarized in Figure 1.

Attitudes Toward the Event

There is considerable classical conditioning research examining issues such as attitude toward the ad (Mitchell and Olsen 1981; Shimp 1981) and attitude toward the endorser (Petty, Cacioppo, and Schumann 1983). These studies have highlighted the importance of attitude toward the unconditioned stimulus (in this case the event) in the creation of a favorable response. Within this stream, Burke and Edell (1989) found that warm feelings about an ad positively affected evaluation of the advertised brand. Conversely, negative feelings had a negative impact. Extending this to sponsorship, it can be argued that positive attitudes toward the event will be associated with a positive response toward the sponsor.

Drawing on sponsorship research to date, we propose to model attitude toward the event in terms of two conceptually distinct constructs: personal liking for the event and perceived status of the event.

Personal liking for the event. Personal liking for the event is a construct that taps into the benefits that individual respondents receive directly from the sporting event. Similar constructs have been examined in past research. D'Astous and Bitz (1995) found that respondents who perceived the event to be attractive and interesting believed it would have a stronger impact on the sponsor's image. Crimmins and Horn (1996) suggest that sponsors can benefit from "gratitude" that arises among fans, those with a strong liking for the event. Both of these findings suggest that sponsors can increase the response to their sponsorship if they select events that are well liked by their target market.

Perceived status of the sponsored event. Perceived status of the sponsored event is a construct that taps into benefits that individual respondents receive indirectly from the sporting event and that a respondent may receive without any personal liking for the event. Stipp and Schiavone (1996) suggest that a special, high-status event, such as the Olympics, creates opportunities for sponsors because the audience has a high regard for the event. This is conceptually different from liking. An individual may respond favorably toward the sponsor of an event that he or she does not personally like. Governments frequently bid for major sporting events such as the Olympics, World Student Games, Soccer World Cup, or a Grand Prix, not

because their citizens would like to attend but because of the economic and community benefits that are perceived to flow from the event.

On the basis of these two constructs, we propose the following:

Hypothesis 1: Personal liking for the sponsored event will be positively associated with sports sponsorship response.

Hypothesis 2: Perceived status of the sponsored event will be positively associated with sports sponsorship response.

Attitudes Toward the Sponsor

Classical conditioning research has also examined the impact on response of attitude toward the brand. Stuart et al. (1987) investigated the effect of preexposure of the conditioned stimulus on the level of conditioning achieved. They found that preexposure retarded the development of a conditioned response. In the case of sponsorship, this implies that the level of prior knowledge and strength of opinions a respondent holds about the sponsor will determine the extent to which the sponsorship is able to develop a conditioned response.

Drawing on sponsorship research to date, we propose to model attitude toward the sponsor in terms of three conceptually distinct constructs: overall attitude toward the sponsor, perceived sincerity of the sponsor, and perceived ubiquity of the sponsor.

Attitude toward the sponsor. Experimental and survey-based sponsorship research has highlighted the importance of attitude toward the sponsor in effective sponsorship (Javalgi et al. 1994; Stipp and Schiavone 1996). These researchers suggest that sponsors who have a favorable image receive a more positive response to their sponsorships than those who do not.

Sincerity of the sponsor. Prior sponsorship research has suggested that sponsors who are perceived to be sincere in their sponsorship and motivated by philanthropy will achieve superior responses to their sponsorship compared with sponsors who are seen as purely motivated by commercial considerations (Armstrong 1987; D'Astous and Bitz 1995). Research examining the impact of sponsoring the 1992 Olympics focused on the pro-social aspects of the sponsorship (Stipp and Schiavone 1996) and found a significant impact. This research found that the stronger the respondent's perception that the sponsorship was pro-social, the more favorable the impact on the sponsor's image.

Ubiquity of the sponsor. During focus groups conducted as part of our exploratory research for this study, respondents suggested their response would not be as strong toward sponsorship by firms they perceived to be engaging

in a large number of sponsorships simultaneously. Respondents explained their reaction in terms of some firms "sponsoring everything," and since they expected these firms to be sponsors, their response was minimal. Conversely, some other firms were associated strongly with only one or two events and seemed to benefit in terms of recall and reaction.

We theorize that this response arises because a large number of sponsorships suggest that the organization has multiple, and possibly competing, commitments. Hence, it is perceived as less committed to each one and therefore has lower credibility as a sponsor. To capture this aspect of respondents' attitude toward the sponsor in the conceptual framework, we propose a third construct relating to the sponsor. This construct taps into perceptions of the frequency and selectivity of a firm's sponsorship activity. We have termed this construct *perceived ubiquity of the sponsor*.

Hypothesis 3: Attitude toward the sponsor will be positively associated with the level of sports sponsorship response.

Hypothesis 4: Perceived sincerity of the sponsor is positively associated with the level of sports sponsorship response.

Hypothesis 5: Perceived ubiquity of the sponsor is negatively associated with the level of sports sponsorship response.

Perception of Congruence Between Sponsor and Event

Sponsor-event fit. Perception of congruence or "fit" between the conditioned and unconditioned stimuli has been shown to have a direct impact on conditioned response. Recent work on olfactory cues (Mitchell et al. 1995) suggests that ambient scents judged to be congruent with the retail setting (i.e., floral scent in a flower shop) can have a positive effect on choice processes. Incongruent scents can have a negative impact. Source effects' research has also emphasized the importance of source similarity as a dimension of attractiveness (Kamins 1990; Ohanian 1991). McCracken's (1989) meaning transfer model also stresses the need for consistency between the meanings associated with the source and the desired meaning for the product. Sponsorship researchers have also highlighted the importance of the link or the "fit" between the sponsor and the sponsored event (Crimmins and Horn 1996; Otker and Hayes 1987; Stipp and Schiavone 1996).

There are numerous bases on which fit can be established (e.g., functional characteristics, symbolic characteristics). However, in the interests of parsimony, we do not propose to investigate the different bases of fit; rather, we model perception of fit between sponsor and event in terms of a single construct. To avoid linking this construct

to any particular dimension of fit, we conceptualize it as fit in a general sense. This construct taps into the respondent's attitude toward the pairing of event and sponsor, and the degree to which the pairing is perceived as well matched or a good fit, without any restriction on the basis used to establish fit. Accordingly, we hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 6: The level of fit between the sponsoring company and the sponsored event is positively associated with level of sports sponsorship response.

Interaction effects. Classical conditioning research suggests that fit not only has a direct effect but that it moderates the level of conditioning achieved. Conditioning is enhanced if participants perceive that the conditioned and unconditioned stimuli in some way belong together (Allen and Janiszewski 1989). Thus, fit is a moderator of the impact of attitude toward the ad and preexisting attitude toward the brand. This therefore suggests a possible extension of sponsorship research. In the case of sponsorship, increasing the fit between sponsor and event will increase the response to the sponsorship arising from personal liking, perceived status, and attitude toward the sponsor.

Hypothesis 7: The higher the level of fit between the sponsoring company and the sponsored event, the stronger the positive association between

Hypothesis 7a: personal liking for the event and sponsorship response.

Hypothesis 7b: perceived status of the event and sponsorship response.

Hypothesis 7c: attitudes about the company and sponsorship response.

METHODOLOGY

Exploratory Research

The relative paucity of research in sponsorship from a marketing viewpoint also meant that this research involved theory generation as well as theory testing (Bacharach 1989; Glazer and Strauss 1967). Hence, in addition to the literature review, three exploratory research steps were undertaken to inform the theory generation process, to assist in the identification of constructs of interest, and to aid the development and purification of measures. The methodology for this exploratory research is summarized here.¹

To gain insights into the phenomena under consideration, we conducted semistructured personal interviews with a judgment sample of managers responsible for sponsorship decision-making within a group of Australian companies. The companies were all active sponsors at the naming rights level and were selected to ensure diversity. Managers from 10 companies participated in the process.

Interviews lasted a minimum of 45 minutes. The results of the interviews were used to better understand current managerial practice, to inform the conceptual development, and to provide additional inputs for the first pool of potential scale items.

The literature survey and the interviews generated an initial conceptual framework, and a first pool of scale items was generated independently by the authors. These items were then pretested using a sample of 132 post-graduate management students. The pretest questionnaire measured five of the six constructs proposed as independent variables in the conceptual framework and was administered in a manner virtually identical to the process in the main study described below. The ubiquity construct was added to the framework at a latter stage. As the result of the pretest, measures were modified and poorly performing items were eliminated.

To check the completeness of the conceptual framework and to inform the process of measure modification, focus groups were recruited on the basis of age, gender, and interest in sports. As part of the focus group exercise, participants were presented with cards bearing the names of companies and events. They were asked to identify the best and worst sponsorship pairs and were asked to articulate their reasoning. The ubiquity construct was added to the framework after the focus group work, and measures for this and other constructs were revised.

Independent Measures

Sponsor-event fit was measured on a five-item, 7-point Likert-type scale. Respondents were asked to indicate the level of agreement with each statement. To avoid implying any particular basis for fit, the items referred to abstract notions of fit such as similarity, a logical connection, and making sense. The items used in all the scales for the independent variables are listed in Table 1.

Personal liking for the event was measured on a four-item, 7-point Likert-type scale. The items were framed as statements about the respondents' attitude toward the event and degree of liking, and respondents were asked to indicate the level of agreement with each statement.

To measure *attitude toward the sponsor*, the popular "attitude toward the advertiser" semantic differential scale was used (see Bruner and Hensel 1992 scale 312). Four items were used, with 7-point scales. Respondents were asked the following: "Thinking about (company name), please evaluate this company by selecting the point on each scale that best represents your attitude to the company."

Ubiquity of the sponsor was measured on a five-item, 7-point Likert-type scale. The items were framed as statements about the sponsorship activities undertaken by the sponsor and their degree of focus. Two items were reverse

TABLE 1
Independent Measures—Factor Analysis

	Exploratory Analysis—Pattern Matrix						CFA ^a
	1	2	3	4	5	6	Standardized Loading ^{*a}
Sponsor-event fit ($\alpha = .95$)							
There is a logical connection between the event and the sponsor.	.87	.00	.03	.00	.02	-.01	.85
The image of the event and the image of the sponsor are similar.	.92	-.03	.03	-.01	-.02	.03	.90
The sponsor and the event fit together well.	.96	.02	-.02	.01	-.03	.00	.94
The company and the event stand for similar things.	.88	-.03	.01	-.05	.06	.00	.87
It makes sense to me that this company sponsors this event.	.89	.05	-.04	.06	-.01	-.03	.86
Personal liking for the event ($\alpha = .96$)							
I am a strong supporter of this event.	.02	.93	.01	-.02	.00	.01	.91
I would want to attend this event.	.02	.94	.01	.01	-.02	-.01	.91
I enjoy following coverage of this event.	-.01	.93	.01	.00	.01	.03	.92
This event is important to me.	.00	.92	-.01	.00	.00	.03	.93
Attitude toward the sponsor ($\alpha = .97$)							
Attitude to the company: good—bad.	.01	.00	.92	.04	.01	.01	.91
Attitude to the company: like—dislike.	.00	-.01	.96	-.02	.02	.01	.95
Attitude to the company: pleasant—unpleasant.	-.02	.00	.96	.01	-.01	.00	.95
Attitude to the company: favorable—unfavorable.	.01	.02	.97	-.01	-.01	-.02	.96
Perceived ubiquity ($\alpha = .85$)							
This company sponsors many different sports.	-.04	.01	.00	.89	.05	-.02	.86
This company's sponsorship is clearly focused on certain sports (-).	Eliminated						
This company is very selective in what sports events it sponsors (-).	Eliminated						
It is very common to see this company sponsoring sports events.	-.02	.06	-.01	.93	-.04	-.08	.88
I expect this company to sponsor major events.	.07	-.09	.03	.79	.01	.12	.68
Perceived sincerity ($\alpha = .88$)							
The sport would benefit from this sponsorship at the grassroots level.	Eliminated						
The main reason the sponsor would be involved in the event is because the sponsor believes the event deserves support.	.03	.05	.03	.01	.87	-.05	.85
This sponsor would be likely to have the best interests of the sport at heart.	-.02	-.02	-.01	.01	.95	.03	.93
This sponsor would probably support the event even if it had a much lower profile.	.01	-.03	-.01	-.01	.87	.01	.77
Status of the event ($\alpha = .70$)							
This event has international significance.	Eliminated						
This is a significant sporting event.	-.03	.27	-.01	.02	.02	.67	.81
This event is important to where I live.	.01	-.06	.00	-.01	-.02	.95	.70

a. CFA = confirmatory factor analysis.

*All loadings from the CFA are statistically significant at $p < .001$.

coded to avoid bias. Respondents were asked to indicate the level of agreement with each statement.

Sincerity of the sponsor was measured on a four-item, 7-point Likert-type scale. The items were framed as statements about the sponsor's motivation (altruism versus commercial) and likely behavior, and respondents were asked to indicate the level of agreement with each statement.

Perceived status of the sponsored event was measured on a three-item, 7-point Likert-type scale. The items were framed as statements about the importance and significance of the event locally and internationally, and respondents were asked to indicate the level of agreement with each statement.

Dependent Measures

The construct *sponsorship response* was operationalized as the respondents' attitudes and intentions at three different levels of the hierarchy of effects, giving three alternative dependent variables. Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they believe sponsorship of a particular event by a particular sponsor will affect their attention to the sponsor and its other promotions (INTEREST), their favorability toward the sponsor (FAVOR), and their willingness to consider the sponsor's product (USE). Each of these factors was treated separately, and although all factors are hypothesized to affect each dependent variable in the same way, one benefit of

TABLE 2
Dependent Measures—Factor Analysis

	<i>Exploratory Analysis— Pattern Matrix</i>			<i>CFA^a Standardized Loading*</i>
	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	
Favorability ($\alpha = .95$)				
This sponsorship makes me feel more favorable toward the sponsor.	.97	.03	.05	.92
This sponsorship would improve my perception of the sponsor.	.94	.05	.01	.95
This sponsorship would make me like the sponsor more.	.85	-.02	-.14	.92
Interest ($\alpha = .91$)				
This sponsorship would make me more likely to notice the sponsor's name on other occasions.	-.07	.95	-.01	.84
This sponsorship would make me more likely to pay attention to the sponsor's advertising.	.06	.79	-.12	.91
This sponsorship would make me more likely to remember the sponsor's promotion.	.09	.89	.05	.88
Use ($\alpha = .94$)				
This sponsorship would make me more likely to use the sponsor's product.	.16	-.07	-.87	.90
This sponsorship would make me more likely to consider this company's products the next time I buy.	-.03	.13	-.88	.93
I would be more likely to buy from the sponsor as a result of this sponsorship.	-.04	.01	-.98	.92

a. CFA = confirmatory factor analysis.

*All loadings from the CFA are statistically significant at $p < .001$.

this design is that differences in the impact of factors between dependent variables can be identified. Each attitude and behavioral intention was captured on a three-item, 7-point Likert-type scale. The items were framed as statements about the respondents' behavioral intentions, and respondents were asked to indicate the level of agreement with each statement. The items for these scales are listed in Table 2.

Data Collection

Two hundred and thirty-seven students participated in the research. To ensure that respondents had sufficient information to make judgments about a proposed sponsorship, responses were considered valid only if the respondent could accurately define the sponsor's business and had resided in Australia for at least 2 years. A total of 195 respondents provided one or more valid responses.

The sample consisted of undergraduate and postgraduate students with an age range from 18 to older than 50. The gender balance was about 48 percent female and 52 percent male. Some 92 percent of the sample were Australian citizens or permanent residents with a median period of residence in Australia of 22 years.

The data were collected through a questionnaire administered in a classroom setting. Participants received the following written instructions:

This research is concerned with your attitude to potential sports sponsorships. The questionnaire asks you about your opinions of certain events, your opinion about companies that might sponsor these events, and what you think of such a sponsorship arrangement. We are interested in your attitudes,

and there are no right or wrong answers to these questions.

Each participant was asked to consider two possible sponsors of two possible events and thus provide evaluations of four possible sponsor-event pairs. Since the unit of analysis is the sponsorship, if the observations can be treated as independent, this method generates a set of observations up to four times larger than the sample size. Thus, from 195 respondents, valid and complete data were available on a total of 720 sponsor-event pairs in the data set.

The events and possible sponsors were each drawn from pools of six. Thirty-six possible combinations existed, and the pairings were randomized. Data on two pairings were eliminated because they represented existing sponsor-event pairings. The products and services offered by these companies were all familiar to the student sample and were appropriate for purchase by this group.

To test for any ordering effects, two questionnaire designs were used. In the first design, questions about attitude toward the sponsor and attitude toward the event (personal liking, event status) were given before questions about attitude toward the sponsorship; the second design reversed this, asking about sponsorship first.

Examination of Construct Validity

The dependent and independent measures were subjected to a series of validity checks. First, the multi-item scales were evaluated on the basis of exploratory factor analysis. Items with high cross loadings or poor item-to-total correlations were deleted. The remaining items were then subjected to confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using the EQS program. Following the recommendation of

Sharma, Durvasula, and Dillon (1989), all models were estimated using the elliptically reweighted least squares (ERLS) procedure.

To assess convergent validity, we estimated a measurement model in which every item was restricted to load on its hypothesized factor and the underlying factors were allowed to correlate (Gerbing and Anderson 1988). Positive and significant loadings are taken as evidence of convergent validity (Bagozzi and Yi 1988). To assess discriminant validity, the model was reestimated several times with interfactor covariance restricted, pairwise (one pair at a time) to unity. Fit statistics for each new model were compared with the hypothesized model, and a chi-square difference statistic with 1 degree of freedom was computed. A significant deterioration in model fit is taken as evidence of discriminant validity.

In the exploratory analysis of the items for the independent constructs, the a priori expectation was a six-factor solution. Overall, the items loaded as expected, although four items were eliminated because of poor cross loadings. However, the sixth factor extracted, status of the event, had an eigenvalue of 0.694 and combined with personal liking for the event when the solution was restricted to five factors. The six-factor solution was preferred because the scree plot indicated that the sixth factor contained significant common variance (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black 1992), and also because of the conceptual distinction between personal liking and event status. The pattern matrix is shown in Table 1 along with loadings estimated from the CFA shown in the last column.

The estimated factor loadings indicate that the items all loaded as expected, with positive and significant parameter estimates, providing evidence of convergent validity. Chi-square difference tests for each alternative model all showed significant deterioration in model fit (the smallest increase in χ^2 observed was 57.5, which corresponds to $p < .001$), suggesting that all measures are distinct and thus have discriminant validity. Coefficient alphas for the resulting measures are given in Table 1.

In the exploratory analysis of the items for the dependent constructs, the a priori expectation was a three-factor solution. Only the first factor had an eigenvalue greater than 1, but when a three-factor solution was requested, the nine items loaded onto separate factors as expected with low cross loadings. The pattern matrix is presented in Table 2 along with loadings estimated from the CFA shown in the last column.

The estimated factor loadings indicate that the items all loaded as expected, with positive and significant parameter estimates, providing evidence of convergent validity. Chi-square difference tests for each alternative model all showed significant deterioration in model fit (the smallest increase in χ^2 observed was 484.2, which corresponds to $p < .001$), suggesting that all measures are distinct and thus

have discriminant validity. Coefficient alphas for the resulting measures are given in Table 2.

In summary, all key criteria for construct validity were satisfied for both independent and dependent variables. The correlation matrix for the resulting measures is shown in Table 3.

Design Variation

A significant difference (at $p < .01$) in mean scores between the two designs outlined above was found for two attitude measures, and the difference approached significance for the third ($p = .07$). No differences were found for the dependent measures. Attitude toward the sponsor was more favorable when respondents were asked about this before the questions about sponsorship attitudes (4.73 v. 4.45). Personal liking and perceived event status were greater when respondents were asked about this after the questions about sponsorship attitudes (event status, 4.71 v. 5.24; personal liking, 3.73 v. 3.99).

The differences between designs were analyzed by company (for attitude toward the sponsor) and by event (for personal liking and perceived status). Seventeen out of 18 difference tests showed the same direction as the overall tests, suggesting that the differences are not confined to a particular set of stimuli. To estimate the impact of these variations on the results, the sample was split on the basis of design and the sections were analyzed independently.² The split half analysis suggested that the findings are robust across the two designs, and so the full data set was used to maximize test power.

RESULTS

Table 4 presents the results of the regression analyses that were conducted. To test the hypotheses relating to moderation of effects, Lance's (1988) residual centering method was used. The resulting terms are labeled Fit*Personal Liking (res) (interaction between fit and personal liking for the event), Fit*Status (res) (interaction between fit and perceived status of the event), and Fit*Attitude to Sponsor (res) (interaction between fit and attitudes about the company) (see Tables 3 and 4). This method provides a means of controlling for collinearity and avoids confounding the main effects in moderated regressions. For all coefficients the variance inflation factor remained below 2, compared with the commonly recommended cutoff value of 10 (Hair et al. 1992), suggesting that collinearity was not a problem.

Across all three dependent variables, attitude toward the sponsor, perceived sincerity, and sponsor-event fit were significant predictors. This evidence supports Hypotheses 3, 4, and 6.

TABLE 3
Correlation Matrix

		<i>Interest</i>	<i>Favor</i>	<i>Use</i>	<i>Sponsor- Event Fit</i>	<i>Personal Liking</i>	<i>Attitude Toward Sponsor</i>	<i>Perceived Ubiquity</i>	<i>Perceived Sincerity</i>	<i>Event Status</i>	<i>Fit* Personal Liking (res)</i>	<i>Fit* Status (res)</i>	<i>Fit* Attitude to Sponsor (res)</i>
Favor	<i>r</i>	.69											
	<i>p</i>	.00											
	<i>n</i>	735											
Use	<i>r</i>	.72	.75										
	<i>p</i>	.00	.00										
	<i>n</i>	735	735										
Sponsor-event fit	<i>r</i>	.43	.48	.47									
	<i>p</i>	.00	.00	.00									
	<i>n</i>	735	735	735									
Personal liking	<i>r</i>	.19	.18	.17	.15								
	<i>p</i>	.00	.00	.00	.00								
	<i>n</i>	733	733	733	733								
Attitude toward sponsor	<i>r</i>	.21	.31	.29	.26	.10							
	<i>p</i>	.00	.00	.00	.00	.01							
	<i>n</i>	723	723	723	723	725							
Perceived ubiquity	<i>r</i>	.06	.11	.08	.16	-.05	.33						
	<i>p</i>	.09	.00	.04	.00	.17	.00						
	<i>n</i>	728	728	728	728	730	726						
Perceived sincerity	<i>r</i>	.35	.37	.40	.40	-.02	.27	.21					
	<i>p</i>	.00	.00	.00	.00	.52	.00	.00					
	<i>n</i>	735	735	735	735	733	723	728					
Event status	<i>r</i>	.21	.14	.07	.06	.65	.07	.05	-.11				
	<i>p</i>	.00	.00	.05	.08	.00	.05	.21	.00				
	<i>n</i>	732	732	732	732	734	724	729	732				
Fit*Personal Liking (res)	<i>r</i>	.01	.04	.06	.00	.00	.05	-.02	-.02	-.03			
	<i>p</i>	.86	.30	.09	1.00	1.00	.16	.59	.67	.46			
	<i>n</i>	733	733	733	733	733	722	727	733	731			
Fit*Status (res)	<i>r</i>	-.07	-.02	-.05	.00	-.01	.03	-.06	-.10	.00	.63		
	<i>p</i>	.07	.60	.20	1.00	.74	.48	.09	.01	1.00	.00		
	<i>n</i>	732	732	732	732	731	721	726	732	732	731		
Fit*Attitude to Sponsor (res)	<i>r</i>	.01	-.02	.02	.00	.05	.00	-.02	-.05	.05	.16	.14	
	<i>p</i>	.73	.57	.66	1.00	.16	1.00	.57	.21	.20	.00	.00	
	<i>n</i>	723	723	723	723	722	723	723	723	721	722	721	
<i>M</i>		3.80	3.47	3.00	3.15	3.85	4.60	4.35	2.58	4.96	.00	.00	.00
<i>SD</i>		1.43	1.43	1.42	1.49	1.94	1.28	1.42	1.33	1.61	2.85	2.38	2.01

NOTE: Fit*Personal Liking (res) = interaction between fit and personal liking for the event; Fit*Status (res) = interaction between fit and perceived status of the event; and Fit*Attitude to Sponsor (res) = interaction between fit and attitudes about the company.

TABLE 4
Regression Results

	<i>Interest</i>			<i>Favor</i>			<i>Use</i>		
	β	T	Significance	β	T	Significance	β	T	Significance
<i>Adjusted R</i> ²									
F									
<i>Significance F</i>									
<i>Variable</i>	β	T	Significance	β	T	Significance	β	T	Significance
Attitude toward sponsor	.08	2.16	.03	.16	4.78	.00	.15	4.30	.00
Sponsor-event fit	.30	8.28	.00	.33	9.41	.00	.32	9.24	.00
Personal liking	.00	-.06	.96	.05	1.28	.20	.10	2.37	.02
Perceived ubiquity	-.07	-1.97	.05	-.04	-1.20	.23	-.07	-2.14	.03
Event status	.22	5.10	.00	.10	2.35	.02	.00	.04	.97
Perceived sincerity	.24	6.51	.00	.22	6.19	.00	.25	7.08	.00
Fit*Personal Liking (res)	.08	1.93	.05	.08	2.07	.04	.14	3.40	.00
Fit*Status (res)	-.11	-2.68	.01	-.08	-1.94	.05	-.13	-3.31	.00
Fit*Attitude to Sponsor (res)	.01	.40	.69	-.02	-.66	.51	.02	.65	.51

NOTE: Fit*Personal Liking (res) = interaction between fit and personal liking for the event; Fit*Status (res) = interaction between fit and perceived status of the event; and Fit*Attitude to Sponsor (res) = interaction between fit and attitudes about the company.

Personal liking was not significant in predicting interest, had the expected sign but was not significant for favor, and was significant in predicting use. Event status had an opposite pattern, being significant in predicting interest and favor, but not significant in predicting use. These results partially support Hypotheses 1 and 2 (Hypothesis 1 for use and Hypothesis 2 for interest and favor).

Perceived ubiquity showed the expected sign in all cases and was significant for interest and use. Hypothesis 5 is therefore partially supported.

Across all three dependent variables, the interaction between fit and personal liking is positive and significant. This suggests that the response to sponsorship from those who have a strong personal liking will be greater than predicted by the main effects model if there is also a good sponsor-event fit. Hypothesis 7a is therefore supported.

The interaction between fit and event status has a negative coefficient across all three dependent variables, the reverse of what was hypothesized. The coefficient is significant for all dependent variables. This suggests that the response to sponsorship of a major event will be less than predicted by the main-effects model if there is also a good sponsor-event fit. Hypothesis 7b is therefore rejected (alternative explanations for these findings are discussed below).

The interaction between fit and attitude toward the sponsor shows no significance on any variable, and Hypothesis 7c is therefore rejected.

DISCUSSION

This study applied a conceptual framework developed from classical conditioning research to predict response to

sponsorship. The study was not designed to establish whether classical conditioning occurs in sponsorship. Classical conditioning provided this study with a consistent conceptual framework through which the inclusion of constructs could be justified and the relationship between them explored, something that has been lacking in prior sponsorship research (Cornwell and Maignan 1998). Prior sponsorship research had examined constructs included herein, but often in isolation. Hence, a key contribution of our study is the identification and measurement of conceptually distinct constructs that contribute to a consistent model of determinants of sponsorship response.

Following research on conditioning of attitudes, the hypotheses suggest that the response to a sponsorship will be affected by the attitudes consumers hold toward the sponsor, toward the event, and by their perception of sponsor-event fit. Prior research on the impact of sponsorships generated nine specific hypotheses within these three general relationships. Of these nine hypotheses, seven received at least partial support, including all those relating to main effects. Of those rejected, one test established significance in the direction opposite to what was expected. Overall, the findings support the viability of such a framework in the area of sponsorship.

Our finding that response is stronger when consumers perceive there is a fit between sponsor and event is consistent with both prior research of sponsorship (Crimmins and Horn 1996) and more general work on conditioning of attitudes (Shimp 1991; Till and Busler 1998). Sponsorship appears to be another area of marketing, along with source effects, store atmospherics, brand extension, and brand alliances, where the consumer's ability to see an association between marketing assets enhances the effectiveness of these assets.

We found that personal liking for the event is associated with a positive response at higher levels of the hierarchy of effects, whereas perceived event status is associated with a positive response at lower levels of the hierarchy. Prior sponsorship research has not drawn on research in areas such as source effects where there is a long tradition of examining attitude to the source in a multidimensional manner (Kahle and Homer 1985). Our findings suggest that these two constructs are unique and have different effects on sponsorship response. There is clearly value in treating them separately in future research.

We also found variations in the association between constructs relating to attitude toward the sponsor and sponsorship response. The positive association found between perceived sincerity and response to sponsorship suggests that consumers do not perceive sponsorship to be just another form of commercial activity but are sensitive to the potential philanthropic dimension that a sponsorship may have. This finding supports prior findings in sponsorship work (D'Astous and Bitz 1995; Stipp and Schiavone 1996). General attitude toward the sponsor was also positively associated with response to sponsorship. This finding is consistent with the conditioning research that highlights the value of a favorable predisposition toward the brand (Stuart et al. 1987) and prior sponsorship work (Stipp and Schiavone 1996). We add to sponsorship research by identifying the negative relationship between perceived ubiquity and response. Taken together, the findings suggest that a sponsor who is perceived to be sincere and is well liked by the sponsorship audience can extract superior benefits from sponsorship. However, if sponsors add to their sponsorship portfolio to exploit this advantage, they run the risk of reducing the response to all sponsorships in the portfolio if the addition leads to an increase in the perceived level of ubiquity. Portfolio effects in sponsorship have yet to be investigated, and our findings provide an impetus for further research in this regard.

Our investigation of interaction effects is also an addition to the sponsorship literature and draws on conditioning research (Allen and Janiszewski 1989). We found a positive interaction between fit and personal liking. This suggests that consumers who have a strong personal liking for an event will respond more (less) positively than average consumers when the sponsor is able to (unable to) show he or she fits the event.

The interaction finding between fit and event status is the reverse of what was hypothesized. These findings appear paradoxical. However, reference to the correlation matrix provides some help in interpreting this finding. The interaction term is negatively correlated with sincerity, suggesting that a sponsorship where there is a high level of fit with a high-status event is seen as an insincere sponsorship. Such a sponsorship may be interpreted as being

commercially motivated, rather than altruistic, and consequently the response to the sponsor is muted. This interpretation of the results supports the idea that some incongruence is perceived as interesting and positive (D'Astous and Bitz 1995; Meyers-Levy and Tybout 1989). We suggest that in sponsorship, a degree of incongruence may act as a signal of philanthropic intentions.

IMPLICATIONS FOR MANAGERS

These findings imply that both sponsorship and event managers need to have a good understanding of the attitudes held by their audience to maximize the value of the sponsorship. This is particularly relevant to two key elements of the sponsorship process: (1) the sponsorship selection decision and (2) the development of the sponsorship-leveraging strategy. In the sponsorship selection decision, managers must choose between alternative events as vehicles for sponsorship. Our research offers a set of factors and reports measures that managers can use to inform their selection decision. In sponsorship leveraging, management undertakes additional promotion to increase the response to sponsorship. Promotion that communicates sponsor-event fit or sponsor sincerity is likely to increase the response to sponsorship. The owners of the sponsored property can increase the opportunities the sponsor has to demonstrate fit or sincerity, and hence add value to their sponsorship.

Sincerity may be at risk if leveraging or publicity highlights the commercial objectives of the sponsor. For instance, leveraging a sponsorship by running an associated sales promotion or competition may highlight the link between the sponsorship and commercial goals, reducing perceptions of sincerity. Aggressively protecting contractual rights as a sponsor against ambush marketers draws attention to the commercial goals of the sponsorship. Event managers can help protect sponsors from such perceptions by policing ambush marketing themselves (Meenaghan 1996).

Finally, the strongest managerial implication from this research is that it is not enough to consider exposure alone when selecting and evaluating sponsorships. For sponsorship managers, this means that there is more work to be done in sponsorship evaluation than counting column inches. Working with consumers through market research to identify opportunities to demonstrate fit and sincerity becomes a key part of sponsorship management. For event managers, this means that understanding the attitudes held about their event by their audience and by those in the population who see their event as important is crucial in selecting which sponsors to approach and in adding value for those sponsors.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Although this research has stressed the limitations of focusing on exposure in the sponsorship decision process, we recognize that exposure is a necessary precondition for awareness of a sponsorship association to exist. In this study, the level of exposure was held constant (i.e., all respondents were subjected to a single exposure through the survey instrument). Hence, it is not possible to comment on what factors in a sponsorship design lead to higher or lower levels of awareness of a sponsorship association or to identify the role of exposure in sponsorship response. A more elaborate research design would enable such issues to be investigated.

A second limitation of the study is the choice of stimuli. The stimuli used in this study were real major events and real companies that currently engage in sponsorships. Because these stimuli are real, respondents possess information about them that is not controlled for in our study, including information that arises from previous sponsorship associations. The large pool of stimuli used minimizes the impact of such idiosyncratic information on our results. However, we are not able to draw any conclusions using data at a less aggregated level about effects that may be particular to an industry or sport. Using a set of fictional companies and events as stimuli would enable the impact of industry, product, and sports factors on sponsorship response to be examined. Extension of this work using alternative stimuli (using arts events, using lower profile events and companies, or a different national setting) would also provide insights into the generalizability of these findings. Similarly, replication using a nonstudent sample would provide useful information as to external validity.

Future research possibilities in sponsorship are numerous. This study has focused on intention to use favorability and interest toward the sponsor as the dependent variables. The wide range of alternative sponsorship objectives identified by researchers indicates that there is potential to examine sponsorship response on other variables of interest. For instance, we have not considered the effect that sponsorship may have on brand beliefs. Sponsorship may be used to communicate symbolic brand associations as part of a process to change the personality of a brand (Aaker 1997). Alternatively sponsorship may be used to communicate functional brand associations to indicate superior performance. Neither do we know how sponsorship activity affects corporate level variables, such as corporate social responsibility. Finally, there is considerable scope to examine the effectiveness of alternative strategies for leveraging sponsorships.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors are grateful to Heath McDonald for his assistance in data gathering and to Robert E. Widing II, Debi Prasad Mishra, the three anonymous *JAMS* reviewers, and the editor for their insightful comments.

NOTES

1. Full details of the methods used in the exploratory research are available from the authors.
2. The results of this analysis are available from the authors.

REFERENCES

- Aaker, Jennifer L. 1997. "Dimensions of Brand Personality." *Journal of Marketing Research* 34:347-356.
- Allen, Chris T. and Chris A. Janiszewski. 1989. "Assessing the Role of Contingency Awareness in Attitudinal Conditioning With Implications for Advertising Research." *Journal of Marketing Research* 26:30-43.
- Armstrong, Clive. 1987. "Sports Sponsorship: A Case-Study Approach to Measuring Its Effectiveness." *European Research* 16 (2): 97-103.
- Bacharach, Samuel B. 1989. "Organizational Theories: Some Criteria for Evaluation." *Academy of Management Review* 14 (4): 496-516.
- Bagozzi, Richard P. and Youjae Yi. 1988. "On the Evaluation of Structural Equation Models." *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science* 16:74-79.
- Bornstein, R. F. 1989. "Exposure and Affect: Overview and Meta-Analysis of Research." *Psychological Bulletin* 106 (2): 265-289.
- Bruner, Gordon C. and Paul J. Hensel. 1992. *Marketing Scales Handbook*. Chicago: American Marketing Association.
- Burke, Marian Chapman and Julie A. Edell. 1989. "The Impact of Feelings on Ad-Based Affect and Cognition." *Journal of Marketing Research* 26:69-83.
- Cornwell, T. Bettina and Isabelle Maignan. 1998. "An International Review of Sponsorship Research." *Journal of Advertising* 27 (1): 1-22.
- Cortez, John P. 1992. "Julius Keeps the Score for Sports Promotion." *Advertising Age* 63 (22): 10.
- Crimmins, James and Martin Horn. 1996. "Sponsorship: From Managerial Ego Trip to Marketing Success." *Journal of Advertising Research* 36 (4): 11-21.
- D'Astous, Alain and Pierre Bitz. 1995. "Consumer Evaluations of Sponsorship Programmes." *European Journal of Marketing* 29 (12): 6-22.
- Donovan, Rob J., C. D'arcy J. Holman, Billie Corti, and Geoffrey Jalleh. 1997. "Evaluating Sponsorship Effectiveness: An Epidemiological Approach to Analysing Survey Data." *Australasian Journal of Marketing Research* 5 (2): 9-23.
- Gerbing, D. W., and J. C. Anderson. 1988. "An Updated Paradigm for Scale Development Incorporating Unidimensionality and Its Assessment." *Journal of Marketing Research* 25:186-192.
- Glazer, B. and A. Strauss 1967. *The Discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies for Qualitative Research*. London: Weidenfeld and Nicholson.
- Grunert, Klaus G. 1996. "Automatic and Strategic Processes in Advertising Effects." *Journal of Marketing* 60 (4): 88-101.
- Hair, Joseph F., Rolph E. Anderson, Ronald L. Tatham, and William C. Black. 1992. *Multivariate Data Analysis*. New York: Macmillan.
- Hansen, Flemming and Lene Scotwin. 1995. "An Experimental Enquiry Into Sponsoring: What Effects Can Be Measured?" *Marketing and Research Today* 23 (3): 173-181.
- Hermanns, Arnold, Norbert Drees, and Edgar Wangen. 1986. "Zur Wahrnehmung von Werbebotschaften auf Rennfahrzeugen" (On the Rec-

- ognition of Advertising Messages on Racing Vehicles). *Marketing: Zeitschrift für Forschung und Praxis* 8 (2): 123-129.
- Javalgi, Rajshekhar G., Mark B. Traylor, Andrew C. Gross, and Edward Lampman. 1994. "Awareness of Sponsorship and Corporate Image: An Empirical Investigation." *Journal of Advertising* 23 (4): 47-58.
- Kahle, Lynn R. and Pamela M. Homer. 1985. "Physical Attractiveness of the Celebrity Endorser: A Social Adaption Perspective." *Journal of Consumer Research* 11:954-961.
- Kamins, Michael. 1990. "An Investigation Into the Match-up Hypothesis of Celebrity Advertising." *Journal of Advertising* 19 (1): 4-13.
- Kate, Nancy Ten. 1995. "And Now, a Word From Our Sponsor." *Marketing Tools*, June, pp. 46-52.
- Lance, Charles E. 1988. "Residual Centering, Exploratory and Confirmatory Moderator Analysis, and Decomposition in Path Models Containing Interactions." *Applied Psychological Measurement* 12 (2): 163-175.
- McCracken, Grant. 1989. "Who Is the Celebrity Endorser? Cultural Foundations of the Endorsement Process." *Journal of Consumer Research* 16 (December): 310-321.
- Meenaghan, Tony. 1983. "Commercial Sponsorship." *European Journal of Marketing* 17 (7): 5-73.
- . 1996. "Ambush Marketing—A Threat to Corporate Sponsorship." *Sloan Management Review* 38 (1): 103-113.
- . 1998. "Current Developments and Future Directions in Sponsorship." *International Journal of Advertising* 17 (1): 328.
- Meyers-Levy, Joan and Alice M. Tybout. 1989. "Schema Contiguity as a Basis for Product Evaluation." *Journal of Consumer Research* 16 (1): 39-55.
- Mitchell, Andrew A. and Jerry C. Olsen. 1981. "Are Product Attribute Beliefs the Only Mediator of Advertising Effects on Brand Attitude?" *Journal of Marketing Research* 28:318-332.
- Mitchell, Deborah J., Barbara E. Kahn, and Susan C. Knasko. 1995. "There's Something in the Air: Effects of Congruent or Incongruent Ambient Odor on Consumer Decision Making." *Journal of Consumer Research* 22 (2): 229-238.
- Ohanian, Roobina. 1991. "The Impact of Celebrity Spokespersons' Image on Consumers' Intentions to Purchase." *Journal of Advertising Research* 31 (February-March): 46-54.
- Otker, Ton and Peter Hayes. 1987. "Judging the Efficiency of Sponsorship." *European Research* 15 (4): 53-58.
- Petty, Richard E., John T. Cacioppo, and David Schumann. 1983. "Central and Peripheral Routes to Advertising Effectiveness: The Moderating Role of Involvement." *Journal of Consumer Research* 10 (September): 135-146.
- Sharma, S., S. Durvasula, and William Dillon. 1989. "Some Results on the Behavior of Alternate Covariance Structure Estimation Procedures in the Presence of Non-Normal Data." *Journal of Marketing Research* 26:214-221.
- Shimp, Terence A. 1981. "Attitude Toward the Ad as a Mediator of Consumer Brand Choice." *Journal of Advertising* 10 (2): 9-15.
- . 1991. "Neo-Pavlovian Conditioning and Its Implications for Consumer Theory and Research." In *Handbook of Consumer Behaviour*. Eds. Thomas S. Robertson and Harold H. Kassarian. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, 162-187.
- Shoebridge, Neil. 1995. "Selling Sponsorships an Olympian Task." *Business Review Weekly* 17 (22): 76-79.
- Stipp, Horst and Nicholas P. Schiavone. 1996. "Modeling the Impact of Olympic Sponsorship on Corporate Image." *Journal of Advertising Research* 36 (4): 22-28.
- Stuart, Elnora W., Terence A. Shimp, and Randall W. Engle. 1987. "Classical Conditioning of Consumer Attitudes: Four Experiments in an Advertising Context." *Journal of Consumer Research* 14 (December): 334-349.
- Till, Brian D. and Michael Busler. 1998. "Matching Products With Endorsers: Attractiveness Versus Expertise." *Journal of Consumer Marketing* 15 (6): 576-586.
- Treadgold, Tim. 1997. "A Master Stroke for Heineken and Sanwa." *Business Review Weekly* 19 (3): 36.
- Zajonc, Robert B. 1980. "Feeling and Thinking: Preferences Need No Inferences." *American Psychologist* 35 (2): 151-175.

ABOUT THE AUTHORS

Richard Speed is an associate professor of marketing in the Melbourne Business School at the University of Melbourne, Melbourne, Australia. He received his Ph.D. from the Loughborough University of Technology, United Kingdom. In addition to sponsorship, he researches and publishes on decision-making for marketing strategy and the use and management of brands.

Peter Thompson is principal of Et² Sponsorship Strategy and a visiting research fellow of the Melbourne Business School at the University of Melbourne, Melbourne, Australia. He holds a B.D.Sc. and an MBA from the University of Melbourne. His research interests in sponsorship build on his professional experience of sports marketing, personality management, and sports broadcasting.