

1-1-1999

The effect of exposure, involvement and sponsorship types on spectator recognition and attitude

Tanya Michelle Benson
University of Nevada, Las Vegas

Follow this and additional works at: <https://digitalscholarship.unlv.edu/rtds>

Repository Citation

Benson, Tanya Michelle, "The effect of exposure, involvement and sponsorship types on spectator recognition and attitude" (1999). *UNLV Retrospective Theses & Dissertations*. 993.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.25669/0b0v-9qtq>

This Thesis is protected by copyright and/or related rights. It has been brought to you by Digital Scholarship@UNLV with permission from the rights-holder(s). You are free to use this Thesis in any way that is permitted by the copyright and related rights legislation that applies to your use. For other uses you need to obtain permission from the rights-holder(s) directly, unless additional rights are indicated by a Creative Commons license in the record and/or on the work itself.

This Thesis has been accepted for inclusion in UNLV Retrospective Theses & Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Digital Scholarship@UNLV. For more information, please contact digitalscholarship@unlv.edu.

INFORMATION TO USERS

This manuscript has been reproduced from the microfilm master. UMI films the text directly from the original or copy submitted. Thus, some thesis and dissertation copies are in typewriter face, while others may be from any type of computer printer.

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted. Broken or indistinct print, colored or poor quality illustrations and photographs, print bleedthrough, substandard margins, and improper alignment can adversely affect reproduction.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send UMI a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if unauthorized copyright material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.

Oversize materials (e.g., maps, drawings, charts) are reproduced by sectioning the original, beginning at the upper left-hand corner and continuing from left to right in equal sections with small overlaps. Each original is also photographed in one exposure and is included in reduced form at the back of the book.

Photographs included in the original manuscript have been reproduced xerographically in this copy. Higher quality 6" x 9" black and white photographic prints are available for any photographs or illustrations appearing in this copy for an additional charge. Contact UMI directly to order.

UMI

A Bell & Howell Information Company
300 North Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor MI 48106-1346 USA
313/761-4700 800/521-0600

THE EFFECT OF EXPOSURE, INVOLVEMENT AND SPONSORSHIP TYPES
ON SPECTATOR RECOGNITION AND ATTITUDE

by

Tanya M. Benson

Bachelor of Arts
University of California Davis
1995

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Science

In

Sport and Leisure Service Management

**Department of Tourism and Convention Administration
University of Nevada, Las Vegas
May 1999**

UMI Number: 1394824

UMI Microform 1394824
Copyright 1999, by UMI Company. All rights reserved.

**This microform edition is protected against unauthorized
copying under Title 17, United States Code.**

UMI
300 North Zeeb Road
Ann Arbor, MI 48103



Thesis Approval
The Graduate College
University of Nevada, Las Vegas

November 23, 1998

The Thesis prepared by

Tanya Benson

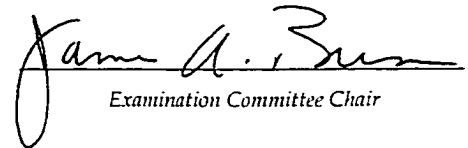
Entitled

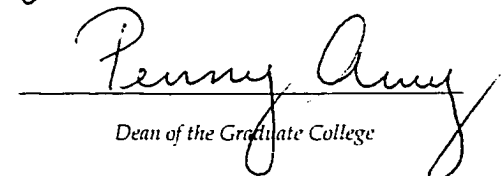
The Effect of Exposure, Involvement and Sponsorship Types

On Spectator Recognition and Attitude

is approved in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

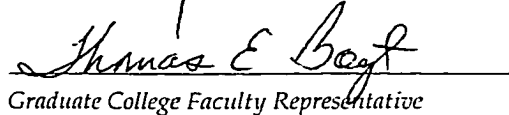
Master of Science in Sport and Leisure Service Management


Examination Committee Chair


Dean of the Graduate College


Examination Committee Member


Examination Committee Member


Graduate College Faculty Representative

ABSTRACT

The Effect of Exposure, Involvement and Sponsorship Types on Spectator Recognition and Attitude

by

Tanya M. Benson

Dr. James Busser, Ph.D., Examination Committee Chair
Professor of Leisure Studies
University of Nevada, Las Vegas

The purpose of this research was to examine the effects of sport sponsorships on consumer recognition and attitudes toward the sponsor. This study explored the differences in recognition and attitude among four types of tournament sponsorships (exposition, multi-level, sky box and dummy sponsors). In addition, this study looked at the effects of exposure, involvement and aesthetic qualities on sponsorship recognition. Surveys were administered to spectators at the 1997 Las Vegas Invitational Golf Tournament. Results from this study revealed a significant difference in recognition and attitude among the four different types of sponsorships at the tournament. These differences were attributed to the different aesthetic qualities of each sponsorship type. In addition, this study did not find a significant relationship between involvement and exposure on recognition of the sponsor.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	iii
LIST OF TABLES	vi
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	vii
CHAPTER 1	1
Introduction of the Problem	1
Purpose of the Study	3
CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	4
Introduction	4
History and Development of Sport Sponsorship	5
What Events Want in Sponsors	8
What Corporations Want in Sponsorship	10
Advertising through Sponsorship	14
Differences Between Advertising and Sponsorship	15
Factors Involved in Consumer Recognition and Recall	16
Recognition and Recall of Sponsorship	22
Literature Review Summary	28
CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY	31
Setting	31
Subjects	31
Instrument	32
Procedures	35
Pilot Test Results	35
Analysis	35
Limitations of the Study	36
CHAPTER 4 RESULTS	37
Demographic Results	37
Sponsor Recognition Results	39
Sponsor Attitude Results	42
Involvement Results	45
Exposure Results	47
Aesthetic Qualities Results	48
CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION	52
Implications for Sponsoring Companies	55
Implications for Event Managers	56
Recommendations for Future Research	57

APPENDIX A (SURVEY INSTRUMENT)	58
REFERENCES	60
VITA	63

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1	Recognition Data for All 30 Sponsors	40
Table 2	Recognition Data by Sponsorship Type	41
Table 3	ANOVA for Recognition Differences	41
Table 4	Tukey's Test for Recognition Differences	42
Table 5	Attitude Data for All 30 Companies	43
Table 6	Attitude Data by Sponsorship Type	44
Table 7	ANOVA for Attitude Differences	45
Table 8	Tukey's Test for Attitude Differences	45
Table 9	ANOVA for Sponsorship Types and Involvement	46
Table 10	ANOVA for Golf/Non Golf Sponsors and Involvement	47
Table 11	ANOVA for Exposure by Sponsor	47

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This project has utilized the time, support, expertise and contributions of many. First of all, I'd like to thank my examination committee. Specifically, I owe my heartfelt appreciation to Dr. James Busser, my Examination Committee Chair. Dr. Busser has devoted countless hours to assisting me conceptualize, prepare, write and edit this paper. I can not say enough about his genuine concern for and interest in his students. He has made my experience at UNLV one I'll treasure.

To Dr. Curruthers, Dr. Roehl and Dr. Boyt, thank you for providing me with valuable insight and advice that has been wonderful. I'd like to thank my committee as a whole for their patience, leadership and flexibility. You've been terrific.

I would also like to extend a sincere thank you to the staff of the Las Vegas Founders' Club. Most importantly, I'd like to thank, Charlie Baron, who has taken me under his wing and taught me so much about the world of golf and sport management. He has been a terrific influence and certainly, my benefactor. I'd also like to thank my friends at work, Bob Cole, Chris Byrd, Ted Wiens, Jr., Jason Weckel, Michael Carey, Michele Morphy, Lyle and Linda Farmen, Mike Norwalk, Julie Roskelley, Rick Smith, Michael Dunn, Marie Baxley and Judy Gonzalez. They have been a tremendous help and support and I could always count on them for humorous remarks, jokes and pranks.

My support and inspiration has come from my family. Mom, Dad, Roger, Armeda, Mendy, Chad and Kara, thanks for pushing me to finish this project and always being there to listen to my complaints and frustrations. I love you all very much.

Finally, I'd like to thank my friends, who have been wonderful throughout these past few years. Denise and Preston, you are my best friends and you've both been fantastic. I love you with all my heart. Kristi, Lisa, Bob, Mike, Teri, Keith, Andy, Tiffany and Tracey, thanks so much for all the fun times.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Introduction of the Problem

Companies are spending billions of their marketing and advertising dollars on sponsorship. McDaniel (1995) stated that in 1993, 4,500 companies spent approximately \$3.7 billion to acquire official sponsorship rights, 66 percent of which went to sporting events. In 1997, North American companies spent over \$5.9 billion on sponsorship (IEG, 1997). With corporations spending this amount of their corporate marketing and promotional dollars on sporting events, the effectiveness of these sponsorships needs to be analyzed. In addition, since there are many sponsorship options for corporations, it is important to understand the difference among the many objectives of sponsorship and assess their effectiveness. In doing so, these corporations hope to responsibly choose the sponsorship avenue that best suits their needs and caters to their target market.

Corporations are interested in assessing the degree to which sponsorships help them obtain their marketing objectives. In particular, many corporations want to assess the impact of their marketing dollars on consumer recognition and attitude toward the sponsor. The recognition of a particular sponsor is impacted by the consumers' attitude toward the brand and their memory of that particular product. Studies involving the Olympics (Crimmins, 1996; Ishikawa, Stotlar & Walker, 1996), football (Shilbury & Berriman, 1996), and basketball (Stotlar and Johnson, 1989; Turco, 1996) have found that spectators do, in fact, recognize sponsors at sporting events. However, research on the effectiveness of golf sponsorship is limited.

Golf is a unique sponsorship avenue for corporations due to the expansive outdoor environment and acreage required to play eighteen holes. Unlike basketball and football, where the sponsorship

signage is often visible and part of the action on the court or field, golf sponsorship signage is spread out and less likely to be part of the golf action. By studying the spectator recognition of sponsors at a golf tournament, it may help event organizers gain a better understanding of optimal signage location and placement.

In studying sponsorship effectiveness at a golf tournament or other sporting event, it is important to look at why the sponsor was recognized. The research on advertising effectiveness can help explain why spectators recognize certain sponsors over others. Specifically, a detailed study and evaluation of consumer involvement with the sponsors, exposure to the sponsors, and the aesthetic qualities of the sponsors' message will assist in understanding the effectiveness of sponsorship.

Advertising research has examined consumer involvement's impact on recognition and recall scores (Ray and Webb, 1986). Involvement can be defined as a spectators' previous experience with the advertisement, mood toward the advertisement and/or knowledge of the subject conveyed. Studying involvement of the spectator with the sponsors' message can assist in understanding why certain sponsors are more likely to be recognized than others.

In addition to involvement, the spectators' exposure to the advertisement can affect the degree of recognition. Exposure can be measured by the number of times the subject has the opportunity to view the advertisement and by the number of ads depicting that corporation's message. Exposure to an advertisement has been found to affect a consumer's recognition of ads (Cannon & Riordan, 1994; Nedungadi, Mitchell, & Berger, 1993; Murray & Jenkins, 1992). A study on the effect of exposure on sponsorship recognition would be helpful to both event managers and corporations interested in sponsorship signage options.

The third component of advertising effectiveness is the aesthetic qualities of the ad. Size, location, color, clutter and positioning and other physical characteristics of the message have impacted the consumer response to the ad and thus their recognition of the corporation. Herr and Fazio (1993), Simon and Arndt (1980), Kent (1993) and Webb (1979) have all found that different characteristics of an advertising message affect consumer's recognition rates. Like involvement and exposure, studying the effects of the aesthetic qualities of a sponsor's message is important.

Although there is ample research on the effect of involvement, exposure and the aesthetic qualities of advertising on recognition and recall of advertising, an application of this work to sponsorships has not been conducted. In addition, it would be helpful to examine the differences in sponsor recognition by types of sponsor. In studying the impact of these factors on recognition and attitude toward the sponsor, event planners might be able to improve their sponsorship options to better suit the needs of the corporation. Studying the different characteristics of each particular type of sponsorship may reveal that one particular type of sponsorship is more effective than another. These results could be particularly advantageous to a corporation investing marketing dollars into sponsorship.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to examine the effect of sponsorships on spectators at a golf tournament. This study will examine the impact of spectator exposure, involvement, and the aesthetic qualities of the sponsor's message on the attitude of the spectators toward the sponsor and the spectators' ability to recognize sponsors.

The following research questions will be addressed in the study.

1. Is there a difference in recognition rates based on the aesthetic qualities of the sponsor's message?
2. Is there a difference in attitude toward the sponsor based on the aesthetic qualities of the sponsor's message?
3. Is there a relationship between the subject's involvement with golf and their response to the aesthetic qualities of the sponsor's message?
4. Is there a relationship between involvement with golf and the recognition of golf related sponsors?
5. Is there a relationship between exposure to the sponsor's message and the recognition of one particular type of sponsorship?

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

Sport marketing has changed drastically in the past 15 to 20 years. Today, managers of sports teams rely on creative marketing and promotional strategies to provide their teams and sporting organizations with resources to successfully manage their franchise. In the past, professional teams depended on revenue from ticket sales while intercollegiate and high school teams relied on tax dollars from local and state governments to fund their sporting teams. Tax money allocated to public schools' athletic departments, however, has decreased and many different sporting events and teams are competing for those vital ticket and concession dollars in professional sports. This change in the industry has led many sport managers to integrate sport marketing tactics in order to make a profit or support their teams survival.

Sports marketing forces managers of sporting organizations to use their marketing and financing skills to insure that all needed resources are acquired and allocated in such a way to yield the maximum social and economic benefits (Howard & Crompton, 1995). In doing so, sport managers have embraced a variety of revenue strategies. Revenue strategies can include the solicitation of sponsorships, merchandise sales, ticket sales, concession sales, parking fees, membership promotions, advertising sales in promotional materials (e.g., game programs, ticket brochures), and television and radio contracts. Each of these marketing strategies assists a manager with the promotion of their sport organization. Thus, the implementation of various promotional strategies can help an organization increase revenue.

Sponsorships have made the greatest impact in the sport marketing industry in recent years. Gardner and Shuman (1987) found that 44 percent of companies surveyed in the United States sponsored

sporting events. In addition, Marshall and Cook (1992) found that 42 percent of companies surveyed in the United Kingdom are actively involved in sport sponsorship. Of those companies active in sport sponsorship, 52 percent spent more than five percent of their company's promotional and marketing budgets on sponsorship. Therefore, the growth of sponsorship is seen not only in the United States, but in Europe as well.

As part of sponsorships, corporations put their name or logo on sporting events to create an affiliation between the corporation and that particular sport. Companies want fans to associate their product with an athlete or sport in hopes that fans will increase their purchasing behavior. The financial impact of corporate sport sponsorship has had a strong influence on the sporting industry. In fact, sponsorships have become the financial lifeboat of many sporting events and teams.

History and Development of Sport Sponsorship

In 1989, there were approximately 2,000 companies involved in sport sponsorship (Marshall & Cook, 1992). Corporations spend approximately \$70 million on college sport sponsorships alone (Gray, 1996) and the projected future growth rate of sponsorships has been assessed at 20 percent per year (Lough, 1996). This widespread financial investment in sponsorships has not always been the case. In the past, corporations entered into a sport sponsorship contract with the intent of providing corporate goodwill or enhancing their company's image (Morris, 1996). Many companies invested money in sporting events only because an executive in the corporation had a fondness toward that particular sport.

Although the growth of sponsorships has recently ignited the widespread awareness of sponsorships, sport sponsorship is not entirely a new idea. Marshall and Cook (1992) cite that the first association between football and a commercial organization was in 1898, when Nottingham Forest endorsed Bovril on posters following their championship win that year. Later in the 1950's, President Dwight D. Eisenhower asked Mutual of Omaha and Union Oil to sponsor the first presidential physical fitness program (Cornwell, 1995). The biggest boost in sport sponsorship came in 1964 with the Television Act. The Television Act prohibited tobacco companies from advertising on television. Thus, tobacco companies turned to sporting event sponsorship to promote their product (Marshall & Cook,

1992). The idea of sponsorship as a promotional tool for companies that desire to increase their market share is not new. However, the wide spread growth and development of sport sponsorship has surpassed most predictions.

Although the ban of tobacco advertisements from television is most credited with the growth of sponsorship, Howard and Crompton (1995) cite other external factors that led to sponsorship's growth. The increase in the number of television channels and radio stations meant that advertisers were competing for the consumers' attention and made it difficult for any particular advertisement to make an impact on the consumer. The clutter on television and radio also prompted companies to investigate sponsorship as another viable option for their advertising dollars. Furthermore, the increasing cost of television advertising and the acceptability of the commercialization of sport by organizing bodies has led to the dramatic growth of sponsorship.

Sport sponsorships constitute the largest percentage of sponsorships in North America. The projected 1998 North American sponsorship spending by type of property reveals that 67 percent of sponsorship spending will be targeted toward sporting events (IEG, 1997). In contrast, musical tours and attractions receive only 10 percent of sponsorship support, followed by festivals and fairs (9%), cause marketing (8%) and the arts (6%) of total sponsorship spending. Sponsorships have been dubbed the "fourth arm" of marketing (Ukman, 1996), alongside advertising, sales promotion and public relations. By 1988, sponsorship was the fastest growing form of media in North America and the annual growth of advertising in 1998 was projected at six percent, sales promotion at four percent and sponsorship at fifteen percent. Since 1994, sponsorship's growth has doubled that of sales promotion (IEG, 1997).

Ukman (1996) estimated sponsorship spending in 1985 at \$850,000. However, in 1995 spending had increased to \$4.7 billion. In 1997, it was estimated at \$5.9 billion (Ukman, 1996). The popularity of sport sponsorship in recent years has led many corporations to venture into many different types of sports and events to put their name on a highly successful, popular, and publicized event or team. Many companies are investing their marketing dollars in the new arena of sports marketing instead of commercials and print advertising.

Jensen (1994) discussed the impact of sponsorship on the Cadillac Motor Car Division. Cadillac is a sponsor of the SENIOR Professional Golf Association (PGA) TOUR. This organization allows the automobile company to directly involve consumers with their products. Fans at a golf tournament have the opportunity to see and even test drive the cars. Sponsorships also help Cadillac build relationships with local dealers by offering the dealers an opportunity to participate in the sponsorship of local events.

Cadillac's partnership with the SENIOR PGA TOUR has increased sales to an unprecedented level. Cadillac sponsors the SENIOR PGA TOUR throughout the country and provides players of the TOUR with Cadillac vehicles during tournament competitions. In addition, golf celebrities such as Lee Trevino, Arnold Palmer, and Jim Colbert wear the automaker's logo during tournaments (Serafin, 1996). By providing the players with cars during the tournament, Cadillac benefits from the marketing of their vehicles. In addition, the SENIOR TOUR professionals receive free transportation. Thirdly, the SENIOR PGA TOUR receives sponsorship money to operate their highly successful golf tournament organization. Cadillac attributes \$250 million in vehicle sales directly to its involvement with the PGA SENIOR TOUR since becoming the umbrella sponsor in 1990 (Serafin, 1996). Cadillac and the PGA SENIOR TOUR have successfully tapped into an exchange that benefits both organizations. Cadillac knows that golf is an attractive market for auto makers because of the affluent, highly educated demographics of a golf fan (Serafin, 1996). Cadillac utilizes a campaign that fits into the golf market and thus creates a successful marketing strategy with this sponsorship.

Another company that has used sport marketing strategies and sponsorship to assist in increasing sales revenue is United Airlines. In September of 1994, United Airlines put \$1.8 million dollars into the new facility for the National Hockey League (NHL) team, the Chicago Blackhawks, and the National Basketball Association (NBA) team, the Chicago Bulls (Spain, 1996). United Airlines executives recognized that the United Center was a unique opportunity to become associated with a facility that was going to become famous very quickly. The Chicago Bulls are perhaps the most popular team in the NBA and Michael Jordan is undoubtedly one of sports most popular superstars. Therefore, United Airline's investment into the Chicago facility creates new business for the airline and keeps the "United" name in the media each time Chicago stadium is mentioned. United Airlines, therefore, concluded that the

sponsorship money invested in the facility will pay lucrative dividends in the future. By placing a corporate name as part of the official title of an event or venue, the name of the corporation often becomes automatically associated with the brand.

Corporations such as United Airlines and Cadillac hope to reap profits for their companies by investing in the sponsorship of sporting activities. One of the most visible sporting events, the Olympics, also attracts many corporations that desire to be the "official" sponsor. Griesing (1995) hypothesized that in 1996, the Atlanta Committee for the Olympic Games would set a precedent for Olympic sponsorships, charging companies as much as \$40 million apiece to affiliate their name with the Olympics. Major corporations such as Coca-Cola, Home Depot, IBM, John Hancock, NationsBank, and Sensormatic invested into the sponsorship of the Atlanta Games in order to have their name associated with top Olympic athletes such as Michael Johnson, Lisa Leslie and many others (Johnson, 1993).

Companies have also invested their sponsorship funds into different levels of sport competition (amateur, professional and grassroots). Copeland, Frisby and McCarville (1996) found that 74.6 percent of companies that are involved in sponsorship indicated they support grassroots community-based sports. In addition, 76.1 percent of the sample supported elite, high performance amateur sports. Furthermore, 71.8 percent of the companies invested their marketing dollars into professional sport teams or athletes (Copeland, Frisby, & McCarville, 1996). Overall, sponsorships have grown in monetary totals and in scope (professional and amateur). The benefits that sponsorships provide, such as the opportunity for employee incentives, hospitality, and one-on-one consumer contact, have been paramount to sponsorship's growth.

What Events Want in Sponsors

The very nature of sponsorship relies on the exchange between the event and the corporation. Schaaf (1995) explained the exchange between corporations and sports entities as the "Event Triangle." The "Event Triangle" describes the exchange of goods and services among the fans, sponsors and the event. Each group desires something from the other. The fans seek entertainment through the event, the sponsors seek the audience through the event, and the event seeks both the audience and the sponsors.

Howard and Crompton (1995) depict the sponsorship exchange process as a “business relationship” where the sports organization seeks financial investment, media exposure and in-kind services. The resources may be physical, financial or intangible and must be valued by the reciprocating partner. In turn, the sponsor seeks increased awareness, image enhancement, hospitality opportunities and product trial or sales opportunities. The sponsorship exchange offers each party reciprocal benefits that cannot be achieved without the partnership (McCarville & Copeland, 1994). The outcome of exchange has been \$179 billion dollars in annual sponsorship sales (Schaaf, 1995).

Corporations enter into agreements with sporting organizations to link their product with an event, increase profits and assist with promotions and advertising. In exchange for the publicity received in the contract, the sponsors usually provide the sporting organization with some type of financial contribution. In addition to financial contributions, many sporting events receive product support for their sponsorship packages. In 1984, the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) began its Corporate Partner Program in order to generate income for their organization and assist with promotions (White & Irwin, 1996). “Corporate Partners” such as Sprint, Rawlings, Pizza Hut, Hershey, Footlocker, Coca-Cola, American Airlines, and All Sport provide some type of product in exchange for the publicity they receive for being associated with the NCAA. For example, Sprint provides telephone service for the NCAA corporate office in addition to a financial payment to the NCAA in exchange for receiving their name on all letterhead from the NCAA, signage at all NCAA championships, and advertising time at NCAA televised events. This exclusive contract allows no other corporation that sells phone service access to a sponsorship with any NCAA event.

In addition to monetary support for the event, Gardner and Shuman (1987) found that 73 percent of event managers wanted promotional pricing, 70 percent wanted tie-in ads, and 70 percent wanted point-of-purchase displays from their sponsors. In addition, the findings suggested that event managers were “fairly pleased” with the effect that sponsors have on promotions and overall event operations. Specifically, 52 percent of the event managers ranked the linkage of the sponsor to the event “good” or “excellent” (Gardner & Shuman, 1987). Thus, the special tie-in promotions that sponsors can bring to the advertising of the event have assisted event promoters with the high cost of promotion. Coupled with

product and monetary assistance, promotions from the sponsor add to the appeal of having a company sponsor an event.

What Corporations Want in Sponsorship

Corporations that are searching for an optimal event or team to sponsor need to find a link with the sponsor's product and the event. A natural basis for linking usually comes from the consumer or the product. For example, Valvoline Oil has a self-evident link to auto racing similar to an athletic shoe company having an obvious link to track and field. Sponsors can also indirectly link the sport's viewing audience to their product. Pizza Hut may not have a direct link to boxing, but boxing viewers may fit the typical "pizza eating" audience that Pizza Hut desires to target (Cornwell, 1995).

In order to determine which sporting event corporations want to sponsor, they need to understand their target market. Armstrong (1996) defined a company's target market as a set of buyers sharing common needs or characteristics toward which company wants to target their goods. Companies evaluate their potential customers and produce a product that best adheres to the desires and needs of their own particular target market. A company that is using target market strategies wants to enter segments of the market where it can offer superior value and gain an advantage over competitors (Armstrong, 1996).

One method of selecting and identifying a company's target market is market segmentation. Segmentation can be defined as dividing the population into different segments with similar likes, dislikes and characteristics. Armstrong (1996) described four types of segmentation that are helpful in finding a target market in which to direct specific product or service promotions. The four types of segmentation are geographic, demographic, psychographic and behavioral.

Geographic segmentation divides a market into groups that identify specifically where the target group physically lives or resides. Demographic segmentation divides the market into groups such as age, race and gender. Psychographic and behavioral segmentation can also assist a corporation with its sales and marketing efforts. When investing into a sponsorship with a particular event, corporations need to know the demographic makeup of individuals who attend the event.

Golf, for example, is an important sports marketing event for automobile makers because it allows them to create loyalty with those in a lucrative demographic (Jensen, 1994). Golf tournaments traditionally have attracted high-income males that are over the age of 50 (Jensen, 1994). This demographic might be useful to a corporation that sells products to that particular segment of the market. In addition, the behavioral segment (golfers) might be attending a golf event. Thus, golf merchandise and apparel stores might be more likely to sponsor a golf tournament. It is vitally important to understand market segmentation to effectively target the population to which a company wants to direct its advertising.

Once a company understands the segment of the market that they desire to target, they need to match their product to an event. Martin (1994) discussed the importance of matching the image of the firm to a positive image of the event. The image of the sport should combine with the image of the company to strengthen the image of the company's product.

Martin (1994) also studied the importance of mapping out the sporting event's image to effectively match that image with the desires of the sponsoring company. He found that there are six dimensions of sports. Specifically, spectators think about sports in one of the following categories: speed versus precision, athlete-only versus recreational participants, use of body versus impact of object, athletes alone versus athletes with others, narrow age range versus wider age range, and less masculine versus more masculine. For a company that specializes in making precision tools, it might be advantageous for that company to associate their product with a precision sport such as golf or figure skating. Understanding the different dimensions of sport can help companies select the type of sport they wish to associate with their company and determine exactly what the sport's image can bring to the image of the firm.

Cornwell (1995) provides a Sponsorship Development Model that helps define the process companies go through when choosing an event to sponsor. Companies begin with a situation analysis that helps the company evaluate their place in the market and their competitors. Second, companies define their objectives for the sponsorship (capital investment, employee productivity and/or consumer sales). Third, a company must develop a sponsorship link strategy in order to select the target market and the

marketing mix (product, price, place and promotion). After a company selects its target market and marketing mix, the company needs to establish a sponsorship link. Following the link to an event, companies implement their sponsorship and evaluate the results based on their objectives (Cornwell, 1995).

Morris (1996) states that the primary reason sponsors link their name with an event is to yield bottom-line results. National Association for Stock Car Auto Racing (NASCAR) exemplifies the attributes companies are looking for in a sporting event. A company's primary goal of a sponsorship is to increase market share and profits. Howard (1995) discussed the impact of NASCAR's loyal fans to the sponsorship exchange. With or without cigarette companies, NASCAR sponsorships lead the market in sponsorship's appeal. NASCAR viewers have more than doubled since 1987, from 2.6 million viewers to 4.9 million. In addition, NASCAR's spectators have been the most loyal fan base (to sponsors) of any other sporting event (Howard, 1995).

Many Olympic sponsors also used sponsorships to motivate their employees. Greising (1995) notes that John Hancock, an insurance sales firm, used Olympic getaways as employee sales incentives. Sensoromatic also used its sponsorship of the Atlanta Games to enhance their employee sales program with ticket and other "perks" as incentives. In addition to sales incentives and the Olympic linkage, corporations want to be associated with the Olympics to have access to the vast media exposure. Since 90 percent of U.S. television households watched the Summer Olympics, (Jensen 1988), many advertisers and sponsors were willing to pay that extra million or two to gain access to the trillions of people watching the telecast.

Not every corporation can sponsor a NASCAR event or the Olympics. Therefore, companies need to establish guidelines to assist their managers with sponsorship selection. Barr (1993) states that corporations should be able to fulfill the financial obligation that the event desires. In addition, the company should be compatible with the event's values and mission statements. Third, the company should allow enough time before the event to maximize the sponsorship. Finally, the company should associate with a newsworthy event, with opportunities for publicity.

Most importantly, in order for the sponsor to obtain all the benefits from a sponsorship, the event must fit the needs of the company. Bennett (1994) described the importance of fitting the event within the framework of the brand's overall marketing strategy. Visa, for example, uses the Olympics because it's attractive to the target audience and carries the values consistent with the identity of the brand. Visa uses consumer advertising, merchant programs, cardholder promotions and marketing efforts to help the 18,000-member financial institutions promote and market Visa cards (Bennett 1994). Companies that are interested in sponsorships should also look at the event to determine if the event is worthy of a sponsorship. Barr (1993) states that the event should have an opportunity for employee investment, be compatible with the "personality" of the company's products, be a televised event, and have experienced organizers.

Corporations also have objectives they wish to fulfill when entering into a sponsorship agreement. The following objectives were found by Komoroski (1996) and Cornwell (1995) to be the most common factors when deciding to enter into a sponsorship agreement with a sporting event. The event must increase public awareness of the sponsors. Second, the event must alter or reinforce public perception of the company and involve the company in the community. In addition, an event needs to generate media benefits, achieve sales objectives, create an advantage over competitors through association or exclusivity, gain unique opportunities for entertainment and hospitality, boost the service image of the company, influence non consumer audiences such as stockholders, aid staff relations, and influence community leaders' perceptions.

Cousens and Slack (1996) found that the sponsorship of local sport teams and events enable companies to build up a "trust bank" in the community. Local and community efforts were said to enable the restaurant owner to "touch people" individually through personal communication (Cousens & Slack, 1996). Sponsorships are not entered into by companies to make cheap impressions. Most companies desire to drive sales and form positive images for the company and/or the company's product (Levin, 1993). Television and radio advertisements are seldom able to achieve those same results. Pope and Voges (1994) found that increasing product awareness was identified as an important motive by the majority of sponsors as a way of increasing market share and profits. Other reasons for entering into a

sponsorship agreement with a sporting event or team include a desire to increase employee motivation, sales force incentives and client entertainment (Pope & Voges, 1994).

Sponsorships often help companies link their product or service name with the event's promotions. Gray (1996) reveals that in effective sponsorships, the exchange must accommodate the needs of both the event and the sponsoring company through the tangible benefits of sponsorship, such as publicity and promotion. True Value Hardware invested \$40 million into a sponsorship with Major League Baseball in order to tap into the passions of the 25-55 year-old male consumers through promotions, contests and sweepstakes (Mandese, 1995). Companies develop a more favorable image in the minds of the majority of consumers and fans through the sponsoring of events. Through promotions and give-a-ways, many companies positively increase the attitude of consumers toward their product. In a survey of adults, Friedman (1990) found that 54 percent of respondents feel either much more favorable or somewhat favorable toward sponsors whose signage appears on television at sporting events. This alone helps prompt corporations into securing some type of sponsorship with a matching sporting organization to boost the company's image.

According to Howard and Crompton (1995), sponsorships have two special strengths. First, they contribute to establishing a position in consumers' minds that helps differentiate one product from another. Second, sponsorships facilitate opportunities for a company to establish a more intimate relationship with its target audience. If a sporting event can provide the corporation with some of these benefits and exposure, the corporation is more likely to desire a sponsorship with the sporting event.

Advertising through Sponsorship

Companies that enter into a sponsorship agreement with a sporting event or team desire ultimately to increase their market share. In doing so, many companies desire media exposure. Tobacco companies began the sponsorship boom in the 1960's when they were banned from traditional advertising on television. Currently, sponsorship packages include advertising components such as program advertising, signage and radio announcements. Presenting sponsors receive additional exposure. Each time the name of the event is mentioned, the name of the sponsor is also mentioned. An example of an

event with a presenting sponsor is the Las Vegas Senior Classic by TruGreen-ChemLawn. TruGreen-ChemLawn, a lawn care service out of Tennessee, benefits from the mention of their company name each time the event is referenced in print, radio or television.

Georgia Tech football sponsors represent the benefits a sponsor can obtain through the advertising component of their sponsorship. Georgia Tech football sponsors receive full-page advertisements in the Atlanta Journal Constitution, Georgia Tech's student newspaper, the school's media guides and the game day programs. In addition, each sponsor receives 100 regional television spots promoting the game, substantial local radio spots, and their logo on all signs posted at the stadium (Gray, 1996). During some football games, sponsors' names are associated with the half time shows, the first touchdown and often visible on coaches' headsets. All of these advertising components add to the sponsorship package and make a sport sponsorship more valuable to a company than a television advertisement alone.

Lough (1996) stated that sponsorship should not be confused with traditional advertising. Sponsorships can be an inexpensive form of advertising that is less effective in gaining attention due to the spectators' primary involvement with the sport, instead of the sponsor. However, although sponsorship takes the primary focus off the company and onto the playing field, the enhanced image that the company receives justifies the expense of sponsorships. Lough (1996) also stated that, if used properly, sponsorships are capable of much more than advertising. Sponsorships offer opportunities for corporate hospitality, public relations, increased sales leads, personal contact with potential clients and can improve the company, product, and/or brand image at the same time.

Differences Between Advertising and Sponsorship

Although sponsorship is not advertising, sponsorship is undertaken for the same purposes as advertising, to achieve commercial objectives. Advertising is the direct promotion of a company through space or air time for a specific purpose. Advertising is mainly a quantitative medium, sold and evaluated in terms of cost per thousand. Sponsorship, on the other hand, is mostly a qualitative medium, it promotes a company in association with the event (Ukman, 1996).

In comparing the effectiveness of sponsorships and advertising, many have looked at the differences in attitude ratings. Sponsorship outperforms advertising by establishing qualitative attributes such as a consumers' image of a brand, increasing attitude ratings and generating awareness. (IEG, 1995) Advertising, on the other hand, has been found to have slightly higher ratings than sponsorship in its ability to increase corporate image, propensity to purchase, and in communicating specific product attributes.

Advertising has been defined as a monologue, whereas, sponsorship is a dialogue (Ukman, 1996). Sponsorship has also been found to be more advantageous than advertising in credibility ratings, product differentiation, message imagery, social responsibility, lifestyle relevance, prestige, internal morale and consumer interaction. In other words, sponsorship provides an exchange between the audience and the sponsor. Sponsorship's quantitative value also provides the company sponsoring the event with a live audience, an opportunity to showcase new and old products, and entertain current and potential clients.

Many advertisers are not inclined to venture into sponsorship because it is easier to stick with the more standardized form of marketing, advertising. Each advertisement on television is standardized and easy to control. However, with sponsorship, the atmosphere changes with each sport and with each contest. In addition, the evaluation process for advertising is more accepted than in sponsorship and no additional promotions are required (Ukman, 1996). Advertisers can sell additional time or space with known costs and experience less risk than with sponsorship.

One main advantage of sponsorship (IEG, 1993) is that sponsorship is one of the fastest ways to boost awareness. Sponsorship has shown to have a greater effect on awareness than advertising. In addition, sponsorship has been shown to elicit superior long term effects on awareness than advertising (IEG, 1993).

Factors Involved in Consumer Recognition and Recall

Companies that invest in sponsorship desire the same results as companies that invest in advertising. Both desire to increase their market share and ultimately their profits. Through advertising

and sponsorship, companies want to change the purchase behavior of consumers. Thus, in order to understand the impact of sponsorship on consumer behavior, it is imperative to look at the impact of advertising on consumers and evaluate the consumer response process to advertising.

Scholars in the late 19th century began studying the effects of advertising on subject's ability to remember advertisers and the advertising message. The close association between advertising and psychology led many researchers to begin investigating the different responses of consumers to different types of advertising. The three different types of research currently used to study advertising effectiveness are field experiments, analyses of aggregate historical data relating advertising and promotion to sales, and the analyses of the effect of marketing variables on consumers' choices among different brands (Tellis, 1994).

Two methods used to analyze the effect of marketing variables on consumers' choices are recall and recognition testing. The emergence of recall-based commercial testing began in 1948 with the company Gallup and Robinson (Clark, Brock, & Stewart, 1994). Gallup and Robinson interviewed subjects twenty-four hours after the subjects viewed commercials to examine which commercials the subjects recalled.

Gallup and Robinson's recall-based research ignited further studies on the consumers' response to advertising. Gengler and Reynolds (1993) presented a model that demonstrated how advertising messages are transmitted to the consumer by comparing the advertising response function to the model of communications. In the communication's model, the advertiser produces a message to be established. The advertiser replaces the "source" in the communications model (Gengler & Reynolds, 1993). Next, the advertising agency (or creative staff) takes an image concept and creates a message suitable for reception. In the advertising response model, the generating advertising copy plays transmitter role from the communications model. The advertising medium takes on many forms such as radio, television and print. In turn, the consumer acts as both receiver and the destination for the advertising message. Consumers find meaning in advertising messages through the individual internal translations (or decoding) of the message. The goal of communication and thus, advertising, in this model is to achieve a desired end-state. The end-state desires to place personal relevance of the product on the consumer, which is decoded.

The decoding of the advertisement determines whether the consumer remembers the advertising message and whether or not the advertiser achieves the desired end-state. Therefore, the encoding of the advertising message is dependent upon the anticipated decoding of the message.

The importance of evaluating consumers' response to advertising is further substantiated by McDaniel's (1995) consumer response model. McDaniel (1995) presented a model for understanding response to advertising in his study on the schema-triggered effect in consumer response to event sponsorship advertising. A schema is defined as a hypothetical cognitive structure that guides perception and action based on prior knowledge of stimuli gained through experience, media exposure and prior knowledge. Thus, consumers process advertising by matching visual and contextual cues from the ad with knowledge of similar stimuli from prior exposures. Goodstein (1993) found that consumers' expectations of advertising, contained in their advertising schemas, can influence their attitude toward particular brands, recall of the product and thus future purchase intentions.

Future purchase intentions are influenced by the consumers' attitude toward the ad (Goodstein, 1993). The consumers' attitude toward the ad is affected by the subjects recall of the advertisement (McDaniel, 1995). However, there are many different attributes of the subject and of the advertising message that affect the subject's recognition or recall of the advertising message. Consumers' recall of an advertiser and their advertising message can be affected by the subject's involvement with the subject advertised, the aesthetic qualities of the advertising message and the subject's exposure to the advertising message.

The effect of consumer involvement on recall and recognition of advertising has been shown to elicit similar responses in recognition and recall studies. MacInnis and Jaworski (1989) found that the subjects' mood at the time they were exposed to the advertisement was a variable in product recall and influenced their overall attitude toward the ad. Low involvement has also shown to elicit lower recall and recognition scores. In addition, consumers that were more motivated toward the advertisement absorbed the ad message more quickly. This reduced the need for further exposures. Ray and Webb (1986) also found that consumer knowledge would be positively affected by an advertisement if the message in the ad was substantially different from that communicated in earlier ads.

A subject's involvement with the ad can also include previous experience with the subject advertised and attitude toward the ad. Nedungadi, Mitchell and Berger (1993) demonstrated that the effects of advertising incorporate the use of previously obtained information including knowledge of brands, attributes and attitudes. Individuals who execute a non brand processing strategy are more likely to recall structural details of the advertisement and less likely to recall information about product attributes. Individuals who execute a brand strategy form inferences about the brand, recall more information about the brand and are more likely to recall overall brand evaluations. In addition, Nedungadi, Mitchell and Berger (1993) found that advertisements for competing brands inhibited recall of ad information. The study concluded that an increase in the number of similar ads in a person's memory decreased the likelihood that any one particular advertisement could be recalled.

MacInnis and Jaworski (1989) defined consumer involvement as a variable that moderates the advertisement-attitude relationship. Some factors that influence the consumers' involvement with the advertisement include mood toward the product, mood toward the company and attitude toward the ad. Consumer involvement depends on aspects of the situation, the product, the advertisement, and the consumers' response process. In addition, Ray and Webb (1986) found that when motivation, ability and opportunity are high, their involvement toward the ad is high. Thus, people seem to process ads more deeply. Learning from ads takes place more often when the subject has a prior knowledge of the brand or experience with the brand (Ray & Webb, 1986).

Consumer involvement has also shown to influence both the amount and the quality of the consumers' cognitive response. Buchholz and Smith (1991) found high levels of involvement when the audience has prior experience with the product, personal references or connections to the advertising message. They specifically found that the amount of cognitive elaboration, in the form of personal connections or bridging experiences, varied depending on the type of media and level of involvement. Under conditions of high involvement, the consumers' ability to recall details from the advertisement were enhanced.

A second factor that influences consumers' response to advertising is the aesthetic qualities of the advertisement. These qualities include size of the advertisement, color of the ad, clutter, the type of

appeal in the pictures, location, concept and type of media used to communicate the message to the consumer. Herr and Fazio (1993) found aesthetic qualities affect consumers' attitudes and are later activated from memory. The goal of the advertiser should be to create a pleasing ad that influences the consumers' perception in the immediate situation and will guide future purchase behavior.

Herr and Fazio (1993) concluded that the size of the advertisement, color ads instead of black and white, and pictures all influenced recognition of the ad. Recognition also varied among different types of messages, types of appeal and audience characteristics such as sex, education, anxiety, self esteem, and cognitive thoughts (Herr & Fazio, 1993). In contrast, Simon and Arndt (1980) cite that the recall of print ads has historically not increased proportionately with the increase in size. However, the relationship between expenditure and output (sales) did prove to elicit increasing returns. The \$1 million advertisement fared much better in consumer recall than the \$500,000 advertisement. Most often the higher priced advertisement takes up more room on the page and is larger in size. However, there are other attributes of a more expensive ad than size alone. Therefore, although the results indicate increasing returns with cost, this is not necessarily relevant for size. Simon and Arndt (1980) concluded that the most effective choice of media may often involve the use of several types of advertising in combination, not necessarily the biggest.

Many sponsorships include the use of signage. Therefore, analyzing the most effective aesthetic qualities of outdoor advertisements is imperative. The factors influencing consumer recall of outdoor advertising include clutter, length of approach, angle of structure, position relative to other structures and speed of travel toward the ad (Donthu, Cherian, & Bhargava, 1993). Factors also include size of billboard, number of gross rating points, length of exposure, format of billboard, location of board, purpose, key concept, color, illustration, quality of illustration, product characteristics and number of competing ads (Donthu, Cherian, & Bhargava, 1993).

Donthu, Cherian, and Bhargava (1993) found that there was the same retention of outdoor advertisements after 30 days as after 60 days. Recall was influenced by location, position, color and number of words in the ad. Black and white advertisements had a higher rate of recall than color ads. In addition, fewer words had higher rates of recall than ads with more words (i.e., 7 or more).

New information, clutter, ad timing, frequency content, and positioning also affect the effectiveness of each exposure to a particular advertisement. Webb (1979) discovered that if the advertisement contains new information, the ad would more likely be recalled. The effect of clutter on advertising is one of the most popular discussions. Kent (1993) found that competing clutter reduces recall and recognition of ads. Webb (1979) also found that attention and recall were lower when clutter was apparent. Other key factors that have been found to affect the degree of advertising effectiveness are ad timing, frequency, content and positioning (Tellis, 1994).

The third component of advertising that affects subjects' ability to recall and recognize ads is exposure to the ad. Amount of exposure to a particular ad has been analyzed by the advertising response function. Simon and Arndt (1980) depict the shape of advertising response function as the quantitative relationship between some input of advertising and some output affecting the value for the advertiser. There are two proposed shapes of the advertising response function, the concave shape and the S shape. The concave shape first has diminishing returns and then increasing returns after an inflection point. The S shape first has increasing returns and then, after an inflection point has diminishing returns. The S theorizes that constant repetition would ingrain a stimulus in the mind and eventually lead to a desired effect. This constant repetition is an extreme type of exposure to the ad.

Woodside (1994) cites the model of customer exposure in terms of marketing, initial communications and relationships. First, the customer is exposed to the advertisement and notices the advertisement. Second, the advertisement includes a direct linkage invitation to the consumer and the consumer notices the linkage invitation. Third, the customer decides to respond to direct linkage invitation and the offer made during the advertisement. Finally, the direct linkage between the ad's message and the consumer helps build a favorable attitude toward the brand or service and thus the customer decides to buy the product. Woodside (1994) concludes that mere exposure to the advertisement may have an influence on the consumer even if the customer does not notice the advertisement. Even if the person does not choose to look at or read the advertisement, it does not invalidate the ad exposure.

Researchers disagree on the effective reach necessary for ad recall and recognition. Effective reach is defined as the number of exposures the target market has to receive to obtain the desired effect.

Ray and Webb (1986) found that higher levels of advertising exposure led to increasing levels of brand attitude. Cannon and Riordan (1994) also found that a set number of impressions are required to convert a prospect into a purchaser. In addition, Nedungadi, Mitchell and Berger (1993) found that repetition increased the likelihood that a brand will be recognized. Furthermore, Murray and Jenkins (1992) concluded that the effective reach can be defined as a minimum of three confirmed exposures to an individual member of a target group over an agreed upon time period.

On the other hand, Krugman (1972) argued that there was not any theoretical or empirical evidence that would suggest that any specific number of exposures are necessary to determine effective reach or frequency. Webb (1979) found diminishing returns in recall and recognition score across numbers of exposures from 0-6.

The effectiveness of advertising is determined by many factors. Three factors that contribute to an advertisement's effectiveness include the consumers' exposure to the ad, the consumers' involvement with the ad and the aesthetic qualities of the ad itself. Although the results from research are often conflicting as to the impact of these three characteristics, most researchers agree that all three have some type of effect on the subjects' ability to recognize and recall ads. Additionally, these three factors can be used to assess the effectiveness of sponsorships. Although many other factors contribute to the effectiveness of sponsorship, aesthetic qualities, consumer involvement and exposure may contribute to an individual's ability to recall and recognize sponsors.

Recognition And Recall of Sponsorship

The aesthetic qualities of the advertisement, the exposure of the individual to the ad and the involvement of the individual with the subject advertised has shown to impact recognition and recall scores. Although advertising and sponsorships are not entirely similar in their motives and results, the findings from advertising research can be linked to sponsorship research. Like advertising, one of the goals of sponsorship is to have the spectators remember the names of companies that sponsor the event. Two strategies have been used to analyze the impact of sponsors on spectators. The first strategy is recognition. In using recognition testing, a list of sponsors is provided and the spectator is asked to

identify the correct sponsor from among the choices. The other method, recall, requires the spectators to name the official sponsors strictly from memory with no outside influence. Wells (1987) found that recognition scores have a much higher mean than recall scores. Subjects taking a recall based test are likely to score higher if the test is administered soon after the event. Recognition scores have not been proven to decline over time (Wells, 1987).

Many events use signage as the primary advertising tool for their sponsors. Stotlar and Johnson (1989) studied spectators' ability to recall sponsor's signage throughout stadiums at selected Division I football and basketball games. They discovered that approximately 7 out of 10 spectators correctly identified the sponsor's name. In addition, income and age distributions were studied. Stotlar and Johnson (1989) found that there was a statistically significant difference in the comparison of income data with the recall results. A lower percentage of respondents recalled the sponsors in the over \$40,000 annual income category than in the under \$10,000 income category (Stotlar & Johnson, 1989). The study also found that there was a difference in the effectiveness of the advertising based on the seat location of the respondents. Those sitting in the corners of the venue were less likely to recall the name of the company.

Turco (1994) also studied spectators' ability to recall sponsors. Spectators were asked to recall, unaided, the names of sponsors from the Albuquerque Annual Kodak International Balloon Fiesta. The balloons serve as floating billboards for the corporations that choose to sponsor the fiesta. Results from 591 spectators questioned on site revealed that the title sponsor, Kodak, was identified by 78.1 percent of the spectators. Pepsi received the second highest recall by spectators at 17.4 percent, followed by Kellogg's at 12.4 percent and Smith's at 11.1 percent. Spectators were also asked to indicate whether or not their image of the company changed positively or negatively as a result of the sponsorship. Approximately 22 percent of the spectators who identified Kodak as a sponsor stated that their image of Kodak was positively influenced. The results of this study indicate that a significant relationship exists between sponsor image before the event and sponsor image after the event as perceived by the spectators.

The Olympics have always been a popular venue for sponsorship. The 1994 Lillehammer Olympic Games sponsorship effects on Japanese spectators was studied by Ishikawa, Stotlar and Walker

(1996). They wanted to study the effectiveness of Olympic sponsorships in Japan and the Japanese consumers' image of these sponsorships. Results from 212 surveys revealed that 66 percent of the respondents reported having neither a positive nor a negative image of Olympic sponsors. About 30 percent reported having a positive image of Olympic sponsors and no respondents reported having a negative image of the sponsors. Recognition results revealed that Mizuno, Coca-Cola, and Kodak received favorable recognition rates. Thirty-eight percent of the spectators recognized Mizuno as an official Olympic sponsor, followed by Coca-Cola at 35.0 percent and Kodak at 31.1 percent. However, 50 percent or more of the subjects were unable to identify sponsors in the recall section of the study. Recall data showed that Coca-Cola received the highest rating of 21.2 percent. Most other companies were recalled by less than 5 percent of the subjects, showing that the respondents were more accurate with the recognition method than the recall method. The study also discovered that about 80 percent were not affected in their purchasing habits by the Olympic sponsorship. Demographic data from Ishikawa, Stotlar and Walker (1996) revealed that consumers' recognition rates differed among different types of television viewing patterns. The heavier viewers had a better image of sponsors and were more accurate with their recall and recognition. In addition, the heavier viewers were more likely to change their purchasing behaviors to favor the Olympic sponsors.

Kinney and McDaniel (1996) also studied the impact of recall and recognition at the 1994 Olympic Games. Their experimental study found that sponsors were not recalled at significantly higher levels than ambushers. Ambushers are companies that advertise during the a sporting event on television using references to the sport or event in their advertisement. However, unlike official sponsors, ambushers did not pay to affiliate their company with the event. Kinney and McDaniel (1996) compared the "official" Olympic sponsor with the ambushers. Both the ambushers and the official sponsors product matched the traits or activities associated with the event. The results revealed that the treatment group subjects believed that the ambushers were official sponsors. Therefore, the official sponsors did not receive a competitive advantage as part of their sponsorship. McDonalds (an official sponsor) was found to have a lower recognition rate then it's competitor, Wendy's (an ambusher). As would be expected, recognition figures tended to be higher than recall figures for most brands. Kinney and McDaniel (1996)

also studied the attitude of spectators toward the sponsors and ambushers. In the official credit card category, Visa performed better on all attitude measures than its ambushing rival, American Express. Thus, although subjects were unable to differentiate between the Visa as an official sponsor and the ambusher, American Express, their attitude toward Visa was higher than their attitude toward American Express.

Crimmins (1996) studied the impact of the 1988 summer Olympics on a random group of NBC viewers through a telephone survey. The study revealed that a large portion of viewers (over 40 percent) had a positive image of corporate Olympic sponsors. A positive image meant that the respondents felt that the sponsors gave money to Olympic athletes to help them train and that companies that support the Olympics show support for worthwhile causes. The sponsors' link to the event was measured on a ten point scale (10 being the highest). Results revealed that the official sponsors' link to the 1988 Olympic Games was rated 8.5 by the respondents, indicating a close association among the companies, their products, and the event. Crimmins (1996) also analyzed the recognition of sponsors at the Olympics. He found that 88 percent of the respondents recognized at least one out of four commercials presented by an Olympic sponsor.

White and Irwin (1996) used another type of recognition testing. They assessed the impact of the NCAA's Corporate Sponsors program on the general population. The Corporate Partner program gives exclusivity to all its corporate partners. Results revealed that accurate recognition of the NCAA Corporate Partners was relatively low. The study found that Coca-Cola received the largest recognition rate (34%) by spectators, followed by Pizza Hut (25%), All Sport (21%), Rawlings by (18%), and Footlocker (14%). Patrons also inaccurately cited Pepsi, MM Mars, Athletes Foot and Alamo as sponsors. These results prompted the NCAA task force to increase the corporate sponsor value and provide greater exposure for corporate partner entities outside the venue in which NCAA Championships are held. Recognition testing has been shown to elicit a high response in NHL hockey sponsorship. McDaniel (1995) found that recognition rates were 80 percent or higher in all three conditions tested.

A comparison between pre and post season sponsorship recognition rates was examined by Turco (1996). In this study, a random sample of 384 Illinois State University men's basketball season

ticket holders were polled to see if their recognition levels changed throughout the season. Turco used a list of sponsors mixed in with "distracters" or dummy businesses that competed directly with the "official sponsors" to examine recognition. The study found that subjects improved their recognition accuracy of the advertised businesses as much as 20 percent during the season. Turco (1996) also addressed arena visitation at events outside of men's basketball and examined the frequency of attendance at the arena. It was found that spectator recognition accuracy and enhanced positive attitude toward court side advertisers was independent of the frequency of arena visitation. Since increasing product awareness and enhancing product image are important to the sponsors, the influence of court side sponsorship in sport arenas is vital to include in recognition and recall studies.

Another early study on spectator's recall of sponsors tested the influence of sponsorship on consumers' purchase behavior. Gardner and Shuman (1987) found that respondents were able to match a sponsor to the correct event 43 percent of the time. The study found that linkage accuracy was greatest for respondents between 21 and 35 years of age with incomes over \$50,000. Furthermore, 53 percent of the respondents indicated that a sponsorship makes them more likely to buy the sponsors' product and only eight percent felt that the sponsorship of the event made them less likely to buy the sponsors' product.

NASCAR fans have been deemed the most loyal fans in the sponsorship arena. IEG studied the impact of sponsorship on NASCAR fans at the Busch Grand National. The study revealed that collectively, respondents recalled unaided more than 200 different sponsors. The sponsors that scored lower were those that were involved with the race but had no particular tie to a specific driver or team. In addition, fifty-seven percent of the respondents indicated that they had a higher trust in products from NASCAR sponsors and 48 percent of fans said that they would "almost always" purchase a sponsor's product over that of a closely priced competitor (IEG, 1994).

The attitude of consumers can be one of the most important factors in determining whether or not to purchase the product. McCarville, Flood and Froats (1998) examined the impact of a series of slides depicting an actual nonprofit sporting event on consumers' attitudes. The results from the study suggested that, regardless of the message, participants were not likely to report that the sponsors were effective in influencing attitudes toward the product. The act of linking the product to an event through

sponsorship did not mean the subjects manifested a positive image toward that particular company. However, when the sponsorship slide was viewed by the subject and subjects were able to examine the sponsor's product, the subjects gave that sponsor higher ratings. The conclusions from this study reveal that exposure to simple messages conveying the philanthropic efforts of the sponsor failed to alter the subject's perceptions of the sponsor.

Other studies have shown that spectator's attitude toward sponsors was high as a result of the sponsorship. McKeon (1993) found that seventy percent of attendees at a Blues Festival identified at least one Blues Festival sponsor. Most notably, 94 percent of those surveyed indicated that when they saw a company sponsoring an event, it gave them a positive image of the company. Furthermore, 73 percent of respondents stated that they would be more likely to purchase the sponsor's products as a result of the sponsorship (McKeon, 1993).

Finally, Shilbury and Berriman (1996) examined the change in sponsorship awareness during one season of a football club. Two surveys were administered, one at the beginning of the season and one at the end. Shilbury and Berriman tested the recall and recognition rates of sponsors. Additionally, they examined the types of sponsorship and the subsequent rate of recall and recognition. They did not find a notable difference in awareness between the first survey at the beginning of the season, and the second, at the end of the season. Recognition results were significantly higher than recall (as shown in most studies). All but two of the sponsors recall rates were below 10 percent. One of the sponsors recall rates was 13.2 percent in the first survey and 19.7 percent in the second. The results showed an extremely high recall rate (99.5 percent) for a sponsor that exhibited controversial issues surrounding their sponsorship. The sponsor, Tooheys (beer), was in direct conflict with the League's major-naming rights sponsor. The St. Kilda Football Club's signing of Tooheys as a sponsor stirred up a controversy between the league's main sponsor and the club. The publicity generated from this controversy is speculated to be the reason for Tooheys high recall rate.

In the Shilbury and Berriman (1996) study, 42.7 percent of all spectators were able to recognize the sponsors in the first survey. The results from the second survey showed that this had increased to 50.7 percent. The increases were most predominate among females ages 46-55. Holeproof Heroes, an

underwear sponsor, was highly recalled by this demographic group. Shilbury and Berriman (1996) hypothesized that this was because this demographic group was most likely mothers who were responsible for the underwear purchases for the family. In addition, recognition rates for the dummy advertisers accounted for less than 20 percent of the total responses. The results from the types of sponsorship recognition testing found a significant difference in recognition rates between the two different types. Subjects were able to distinguish between the club level sponsors and the ground advertisers. Advertisements for products available at the sporting contest (club level sponsorship) were recognized more frequently than were advertisements for products that were not available (ground advertisement).

Studies reveal mixed results on recall and recognition data. While many different types of research has been conducted to evaluate the effect of event sponsorship, the data is inconclusive regarding the ability of spectators to recall and recognize event sponsors. All studies showed a higher percentage of respondents recognizing sponsors than recalling sponsors. This means that subjects are able to pick out sponsors from a list of companies easier than unaided from memory. In addition, pre and post tests from events revealed that there were differences between recognition levels before and after the event or season of competition.

Literature Review Summary

The development of sponsorships has made a tremendous impact in the sport marketing industry. The IEG Sponsorship Report for December 1997 reported that worldwide sponsorship spending for 1998 would reach \$6.8 billion. Sport sponsorship is predicted to account for a total of 67 percent of the total sponsorship spending in 1998, which includes the arts, cause marketing, festivals and entertainment (IEG, 1997). Companies are participating in sport sponsorship to link their product with the popularity of an event, team or athlete, increase revenue for their company, involve the company with the community or to increase public awareness of the company's product. Both the company and the event receive benefits from a sponsorship agreement. Sponsors desire to increase their profits and market share from the sponsorship. By presenting an effective sponsorship, companies attempt to affect the memory of

spectators. Spectator's memory of sponsors is best evaluated by recall and recognition studies done on spectators at events.

In studying the effect of sponsorship and the relationship to recall and recognition studies, it is imperative to evaluate the impact of advertising on consumers. The advertising response model suggests that consumers are exposed to an ad and the ad affects the consumers' attitude toward the product. In turn, the consumers' attitude toward the ad affects the consumers' ability to recognize or recall the ad. Finally, the consumers' ability to remember the ad affects the consumers' purchase behavior toward that particular product.

Researchers have found that consumers' attitude toward the ad is affected by many characteristics. One of these characteristics, consumer involvement, can determine the attitude of the consumer toward the ad. An individual's perception toward that product, past exposure toward the product and interest in the product can all affect that individual's involvement with the ad. In addition, the aesthetic qualities of the ad such as color, size, location and clutter can affect the consumers' attitude toward the ad. Finally, the spectator's exposure to the ad can influence the consumers' attitude toward the ad and thus the consumers' recall and recognition of the ad.

The literature on the impact of sponsorship on spectator's recall and recognition is diverse and inconclusive. Some studies, Stotlar and Johnson (1989), Turco (1994), Crimmins (1996), Gardner and Shuman (1987), Turco (1996) and Shilbury and Berriman (1996), reveal high recall and recognition rates of the sponsors. Still others, Ishikawa, Stotlar and Walker (1996), Kinney and McDaniel (1996), and White and Irwin (1996), reveal low recall and recognition rates. Overall, the research suggests higher recognition rates than recall rates. This can be explained by the fact that recognition studies have the names of the sponsor listed on the page so that the subject can easily remember the company.

The study of recognition and recall rates for sponsorship assists event planners and sponsors in evaluating the impact of their sponsorship on consumers. Due to the magnitude of advertising funds spent on sponsorship, the effectiveness of sponsorship needs to be analyzed. By evaluating the differences in recall and recognition among different types of sponsorships, event organizers can determine which types of sponsorships are more effective. In addition, a study that examines the effects of consumer

involvement, aesthetic qualities of the sponsor's message and the spectator's exposure to the ad would assist in understanding why a particular sponsorship is recalled or recognized at a higher level than others.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This study examined the relationship between golf tournament sponsorship and spectator's recognition and attitude toward sponsors. In addition, this study analyzed the relationship between consumer involvement, the aesthetic qualities of the sponsorship message and the consumers' exposure to the sponsorship and recognition of the sponsor. Included in this chapter are the descriptions of the setting, subjects, procedures, instrument, pilot test results, limitations of the study and method of analysis.

Setting

The Las Vegas Invitational was chosen as the research site due to the quantity of sponsors at the tournament and the many different types of sponsorship available. Specifically, the survey was administered at the front gates of the Tournament Players Club at Summerlin Golf Course on Village Center Circle in Las Vegas. No signage or evidence of sponsorship was visible from the survey site.

Subjects

Data collection for the study involved a convenience sample of spectators at the 1997 Las Vegas Invitational. Subjects for this study were obtained from the spectators leaving the front gate of the Tournament Players Club at Summerlin following their attendance at the 1997 Las Vegas Invitational on Friday, Saturday and Sunday, October 24 - 26. Annual attendance at the Las Vegas Invitational averages 15,000. Spectators were contacted between the hours of 2:00 PM and 4:00 PM daily.

Instrument

A written survey was used as the instrument to examine sponsor recognition and attitude toward the sponsor as related to consumer involvement, aesthetic qualities and exposure to the ad. A similar survey format was also used by Ishikawa (1996), Leedy (1992), and Turco (1994). The written survey method was chosen because it gives respondents ample time to reflect on the event. In addition, the written survey provided the researcher with the opportunity to complete more surveys in the allotted time than could be collected through interviews. The survey consisted of two typed pages. The first page examined the respondent's demographic makeup. Demographic items included gender, age, place of residence, method of obtaining tickets to the tournament, the number of previous tournaments attended, the type of golf course played (public, private or non golfer), the number of golf rounds played per year, golf handicap, total family income, number of days in attendance at the tournament, and the primary reason for visiting Las Vegas (if visitor).

Consumer involvement was measured by the demographic question on the first page of the survey that asks the respondent to identify the number of times a year they play golf. In measuring the golf involvement of the subject, the researcher could then determine which subjects were more involved with golf and potentially more likely to distinguish between the types of sponsorship at the tournament. In addition, by measuring consumer involvement with golf, it could be determined if the golf related sponsors (Las Vegas Golf and Tennis, American Golf Resorts, Mesquite Vistas, TPC at The Canyons and Sports Guide) received a higher recognition rating than non golf sponsors.

Exposure to the sponsorship was measured by the question on the first page of the survey that asked the respondent to identify how many days they had attended the golf tournament. The spectator's exposure to the sponsorships would be expected to increase as the number of days attended increased. In comparing the recognition rates of those with two or more exposures to those with one, results would identify if exposure to the sponsorship influenced the subjects' ability to recognize the sponsor.

The second page of the survey examined sponsor recognition and attitude toward sponsors as a result of their sponsorship. Thirty corporate names were listed on the second page of the survey. Ten of the companies were not official sponsors of the tournament (dummy sponsors). The other twenty sponsors

listed on the survey were actual sponsors of the tournament. A total of approximately 75 companies participated as official sponsors at the 1997 Las Vegas Invitational. Official sponsors' names were divided by sponsorship type and randomly selected for the survey.

There were two columns on the second page. The first column asked the spectator to indicate whether or not they recognized the name of the sponsor at the tournament by circling yes or no. The second column asked the spectator to indicate their attitude toward that particular sponsor circled (only if they circled yes in the 1st column) as a result of their sponsorship. Respondents were to circle one of the following: Very positive (V+), Positive (+), Neutral (N), Negative (-) or Very Negative (V-).

There were four types of sponsorship evaluated in the study; multi-level sponsors, exposition sponsors, sky box sponsors and dummy sponsors. Eight of the twenty official sponsors listed in the survey were multi-level sponsors (i.e., sponsors of more than one activity at the tournament). Multi-level sponsors included Coca-Cola, Las Vegas Golf and Tennis, Miller Brewing Company, Cadillac, America West Airlines, Las Vegas Convention and Visitors Authority, Dollar Rent A Car, and Sprint. Most multi-level sponsors received a 50' x 30' hospitality tent with astro turf flooring, tables, chairs and a picket fenced courtyard, four playing spots in the two day Pro-Am, 20 season badges (good all five days of the tournament), 1,000 daily tournament tickets, 40 sponsor parking passes, 5 invitations to the Tuesday night evening contestant party, listing in the tournament's official program, corporate or brand related identification on the tournament's main sponsor board, corporate or brand related identification on a hole and the option to purchase a sky box or an exposition tent. In addition, a few of the multi-level sponsors exclusively sold their products to spectators during the tournament (e.g., Coca-Cola and Miller Brewing Company).

Six of the twenty official sponsors were exposition sponsors. Exposition sponsors included American Golf Resorts, Joshi and Associates, Mesquite Vistas, NEXTLINK, TPC at The Canyons, and Sports Guide. Exposition sponsors received a 8' x 10' tent including table and chairs inside the main exposition corridor, four exhibitor badges, recognition on the tournament's main sponsor board, a discount on a full page advertisement in the official program, and the opportunity to interact face to face with thousands of golf fans in the tournament exposition pavilion. Exposition sponsors had the opportunity to

demonstrate their product or service to spectators, handed out samples and offered promotions such as discounts on products and services and contests. However, exposition sponsors did not sell any product or services on site at the tournament.

The other six official sponsors listed on the survey were sky box sponsors. The sky box sponsors on the survey included Sunrise Suite Hotel, Susan Coleman/Carrier Corporation, Mutual of Omaha, Champion Homes, Summerlin Hospital and Humana Health Care. Sky box sponsors received a canopied sky box (seating approximately 25 guests), choice of 300 daily tickets or 75 season badges, five invitations to the Tuesday evening contestant reception, ten sponsor parking passes, corporate identification on the sky box and an option to purchase official program advertising at a reduced rate.

The final ten companies listed as sponsors were not official sponsors (dummy sponsors). The dummy sponsors included Smiths, McDonalds, Nevada State Bank, Pepsi, Coors, Las Vegas International Golf Center, Pizza Hut, Einstein Brothers Bagels, Pentagon Properties LTD, and PowerBar. The dummy sponsors were selected by choosing competing companies to the official sponsors in Southern Nevada. In addition, Pizza Hut, Smiths, PowerBar and McDonalds were selected from Turco (1994) as national sponsors. All forty of the company names were placed in random order on the page. Dummy sponsors were placed on the survey instrument to test whether or not the subjects could differentiate between the actual sponsors and the fake, as done in Turco (1994 & 1996) and Stotlar and Johnson (1989).

Each of the three different types of sponsorship had diverse aesthetic qualities. The sky boxes were large tents on the 18th green with signage depicting the sponsor. On the other hand, the exposition tents were smaller tents along a walkway with smaller signs. Furthermore, the exposition tents gave spectators an opportunity to see or sample the product or service in some fashion. The multi-level sponsors had signage on a particular hole on the course, a hospitality tent, recognition on tournament posters and other tournament correspondence. The differences between the types of sponsorship included the manner of communication, the size of the sign and other aesthetic qualities. These differences were evaluated using the recognition results and comparing these results to the different qualities of each particular type of sponsorship.

Procedures

This study was a cross-sectional study of the spectators. Spectators were asked by tournament volunteers upon leaving the front gate of the golf course if they were interested in completing the survey. All spectators that were in attendance at the tournament exited through the front gate. Volunteers that administered the survey attempted to obtain as many surveys as possible during the allotted time period. Subjects completed the survey on a voluntary basis. As an enticement to participate in the survey, spectators were offered a tournament poster. All surveys were completed on-site and returned (complete) to the volunteer administering the survey in order to receive their poster.

Volunteers were given a script that detailed the dialogue required between the subjects and the volunteers. The script asked the volunteers to describe the purpose of the survey, describe the time required to complete the survey and thank the participants for completing the survey. Each spectator was told that the survey would take approximately five to eight minutes to complete.

Pilot Test Results

A pilot test was administered to the eight staff members of the Las Vegas Invitational. Staff members felt the demographic information was adequate and important to the tournament's success and operations in the future. In addition, the staff members felt that the survey was clear and easy to understand if ample time was given to administer the survey. Most suggested a shorter version, however, no changes were made due to the desire of the researcher to obtain more conclusive results from the study. The survey could only be shortened by limiting the number of company names on the list. However, by eliminating some names, the accuracy of the sponsorship types would be negatively affected.

Analysis

The recognition data for each of the four sponsorship types will be summed resulting in a score that represents the number of sponsors that spectators recognized from the tournament. The range of recognition scores is based on the number of sponsors in each category. The range of possible scores were: multi-level sponsors 0-8, exposition sponsors 0-6, sky box sponsors 0-6, and dummy sponsors 0-10.

All questions in this study were analyzed using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) test. The use of ANOVA is an appropriate statistic for ratio data such as recognition scores (Cooper and Emory 1995; Grimm, 1993). Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference Post Hoc Test was used where appropriate. Data was entered and analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). An alpha level of .05 was used for all statistical tests.

Limitations of the Study

There were five main limitations of the study. The first is the fact that a convenience sample was used rather than a random sample. The results from a convenience sample can not be generalized to the population. A second limitation concerns the limited ability of the spectators to accurately recognize the sponsors from memory. Spectators that completed the survey might have accurately or inaccurately guessed the sponsors at the tournament. This would increase the recognition rates for official sponsors. Third, differences exist among the spectator's in their type of experience at the tournament. Some spectators could have spent more time at one particular area of the golf course and thus been exposed to different sponsors than others. Fourth, in terms of involvement, attitude and exposure, single indicators were used for the variables versus multiple indicators. Multiple indicators for exposure and involvement would have elicited more thorough results. Finally, some of the spectators could have attended a past Las Vegas Invitational tournament and thus would have been exposed to the repeat sponsors in multiple years.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The following chapter reports the results from the examination of this study's five research questions and the demographic data on the subjects. The results from the five research questions are illustrated in order in this section. The analysis of the data for recognition, attitude, exposure, involvement and aesthetic qualities of the sponsorship include descriptive statistics and within subjects ANOVA.

Demographic Results

The demographic makeup of the subjects was analyzed to describe the spectators who completed the survey. The sample size consisted of 269 spectators. The sample was composed of 36.1 percent females and 63.9 percent males. As would be expected for a golf event, the majority of respondents (71.1%) were between the ages of 26 and 55. Subjects between the ages of 36 and 45 comprised 28.3 percent of the respondents, followed by 25.3 percent (between the ages of 26 and 35), 17.5 percent (between the ages of 46 and 55), 13.4 percent (between the ages 21 of 25), and 13.4 percent (over the age of 56). Five people that completed the survey did not answer the age question; therefore missing data comprised 1.9 percent of the results.

In terms of income, most of the subject's annual income was less than \$100,000 per year. The income bracket with the largest majority was \$25,000 to \$49,999, which made up 27.1 percent of the respondents. More specifically, 8.2 percent of the subjects earned less than \$24,999 per year. The data also showed that 20.4 percent of the subjects had an income between \$50,000 to \$74,999, followed by \$75,000 to \$99,999 (13.8%), \$100,000 to \$124,999 (9.3%), \$125,000 to \$149,999 (3.3%), \$150,000 to

\$174,999 (4.8%), \$175,000 to \$199,999 (1.5%) and \$200,000 or more (8.2%). Nine subjects did not complete the income question on the survey.

The geographic make up of the subjects revealed that 73.6 percent of the subjects live either in the city of Las Vegas or Henderson, Nevada. The remaining 26.4 percent resided in a variety of cities throughout the United States. In terms of states, the majority of the subjects polled (74.3%) resided in the state of Nevada, followed by California (3.7%), Utah (1.9%), Arizona (1.5%), and Pennsylvania, Georgia, Kansas and Indiana (1.1%). Oregon, New Hampshire, Washington, Kentucky, Ohio, South Dakota, Illinois, Texas, Minnesota, Connecticut, Arkansas, Alabama, New York, South Dakota, Michigan, Maryland, Hawaii and New Jersey each comprised .4 percent of the subjects. In addition, 2.6% resided in Canada and two others came from Australia and Asia.

There were many reasons cited as to why the out of town spectators were visiting Las Vegas. Seventy two percent of the subjects revealed that they reside in the city of Las Vegas, which differs from the 73.6 percent indicated in the geographic question. Of the 28.3 percent of subjects that live outside the city of Las Vegas, 11.9 percent came to Las Vegas in October of 1997 for the primary purpose of attending the Las Vegas Invitational. Other reasons for visiting the city of Las Vegas include vacation (9.3%), visit friends or relatives (3.3%), business (2.2%), or conference/convention (1.5%).

Thirty five percent of individuals had purchased a ticket to the event. The 65.1 percent of individuals that indicated they were given a ticket could have received the ticket from many different groups. Group tickets were sold to many hotels in the Las Vegas community and sponsors of the tournament. The hotels and sponsors, in turn, gave these tickets to individuals that patronized the hotels and worked for or in conjunction with the sponsors. The majority of subjects attended the tournament only one day (53.9%), followed by two days (23.8%), three days (11.5%) five days (6.3%) and four days (4.5%).

Data revealed that 45 percent of the respondents had not attended a previous Las Vegas Invitational. Furthermore, 20.8 percent of the subjects indicated that they had attended one previous tournament, followed by two tournaments (12.6%), three tournaments (6.3%), four tournaments (4.5%), five tournaments (3%), six tournaments (3%), seven to twelve tournaments (2.8%) and fourteen

tournaments (1.9%). In addition, 35.3 percent of the subjects revealed that they have attended another PGA TOUR or Senior PGA TOUR tournament besides the Las Vegas Invitational.

The golfing characteristics of each individual polled help facilitate the connection between recognition of the sponsors and their involvement with golf. Sixteen percent of subjects indicated that they do not play golf. Of those, 84 percent of the subjects that play golf, 30.9 percent play at a private club and 53.2 percent play at a public golf course. The handicaps for the respondents were as follows: 5 or less (9.7%), between 6 - 10 (17.7%), between 11 and 15 (28%), between 16 and 20 (22%), between 21 and 25 (9.2%), and 26 or higher (13.4%).

Sponsor Recognition Results

Given that one of the main objectives of sport sponsorship is to increase spectator awareness of the sponsor (Ishikawa, Stotlar, & Walker, 1996), recognition testing was used to determine whether or not the subjects remembered the sponsors at the 1997 Las Vegas Invitational. Table 1 shows the recognition rates for each of the 30 companies listed on the survey by type of sponsor. Results from the recognition examination reveal that Sprint (a multi-level sponsor) was recognized by 69.1 percent of the subjects, receiving the highest percentage recognition rate of any sponsor. America West Airlines (multi-level sponsor) received the second highest recognition rating at 68.8 percent, followed by Cadillac (multi-level sponsor) at 65.4 percent, Tournament Players Club at The Canyons (exposition sponsor) at 65.1 percent, Las Vegas Golf and Tennis (multi-level sponsor) at 63.6 percent, Coca-Cola (multi-level sponsor) at 58.3 percent, Miller Brewing Company (multi-level sponsor) at 52.4 percent, Las Vegas Convention and Visitors Authority (multi-level sponsor) at 43.1 percent, Las Vegas International Golf Center (dummy sponsor) at 43.1 percent, NEXTLINK (exposition sponsor) at 42.4 percent, and Sports Guide (exposition sponsor) at 40.5 percent.

Those companies that received a recognition rating of 40 percent or lower include Summerlin Hospital, Champion Homes, Pepsi, Dollar Rent-A-Car, Mesquite Vistas, Nevada State Bank, Coors Brewing Company and McDonalds, PowerBar, The Howard Hughes Corporation, American Golf, Smiths,

Table 1

Recognition Data for All 30 Companies

Company	Recognition Rate	Type of Sponsor
America West Airlines	68.8%	Multi-Level
American Golf Resorts	22.0%	Exposition
Cadillac	65.4%	Multi-Level
Champion Homes	34.6%	Sky Box
Coca-Cola	58.3%	Multi-Level
Coors	24.2%	Dummy
Dollar Rent A Car	32.0%	Multi-Level
Einstein Brothers Bagels	08.6%	Dummy
Humana Health Care	22.7%	Sky Box
Joshi and Associates	10.8%	Exposition
Las Vegas Conv. and Visitors Authority	43.1%	Multi-Level
Las Vegas Golf and Tennis	63.6%	Multi-Level
Las Vegas International Golf Center	43.1%	Dummy
McDonalds	24.2%	Dummy
Mesquite Vistas	29.4%	Exposition
Miller Brewing Company	52.4%	Multi-Level
Mutual of Omaha	24.2%	Sky Box
Nevada State Bank	25.3%	Dummy
NEXTLINK	42.4%	Exposition
Pentagon Properties LTD	08.2%	Dummy
Pepsi	32.3%	Dummy
Pizza Hut	13.4%	Dummy
PowerBar	22.7%	Dummy
Smiths	17.5%	Dummy
Sports Guide	40.5%	Exposition
Sprint	69.1%	Multi-Level
Summerlin Hospital	37.5%	Sky Box
Sunrise Suite Hotel	13.8%	Sky Box
Susan Coleman/Carrier Corp.	14.5%	Sky Box
TPC at The Canyons	65.1%	Exposition

Sunrise Suite Hotel, Susan Coleman/Carrier Corporation, Pizza Hut, Einstein Brothers Bagels, and Pentagon Properties LTD.

The results from the recognition examination of the sponsorship types are presented in Table 2. Sponsors were grouped together into sponsorship types (exposition, multi-level, sky box and dummy) and their recognition means by sponsorship type were evaluated. The highest mean recognition rate was found (as expected) for the multi-level sponsors at 56.5 percent. The exposition sponsors total recognition

Table 2

Recognition Data by Sponsorship Type

Type	Recognition Rate	Standard Deviation
Exposition Sponsors	35.1%	.238
Sky Box Sponsors	24.5%	.247
Multi-Level Sponsors	56.5%	.241
Dummy Sponsors	21.9%	.186

mean was 35.1 percent, followed by the sky box sponsors at 24.5 percent. The dummy sponsors were erroneously recognized by 21.9 percent of the subjects.

Research Question #1: Is there a difference in recognition rates based on the aesthetic qualities of the sponsor's message?

In order to examine research question one, the four sponsorship types were analyzed using a within subjects ANOVA. Table 3 depicts the results of the procedures for research question one for each of the four types of sponsorship in this study. The results for question one, using a within subjects one-way ANOVA, reveal that the recognition rates for sponsorship types was significant, $F(3, 801) = 205.25$, $MS = 6.69$, $p < .05$.

Tukey's Post Hoc Test was used to determine where significant differences existed in recognition by sponsorship type. The critical value for Tukey's Test was .038. The results from Tukey's Test are presented in Table 4. The results show that the multi-level sponsors were recognized at a higher rate than

Table 3

ANOVA for Recognition Differences Among Types of Sponsors

Source of Variation	df	MS	F
Sponsor	3	6.69	205.25*
Within + Residual	801	0.03	

* $p < .05$.

Table 4

Tukey's Test for Recognition Differences Among Types of Sponsors

Sponsor Type	Exposition	Sky Box	Multi-Level	Dummy
Exposition	—			
Sky Box	*	—		
Multi-Level	*	*	—	
Dummy	*	ns	*	—

*p < .05. ns = not significant

the exposition, sky box, and dummy sponsors. In addition, the exposition sponsors were recognized at a significantly higher rate than the sky box and dummy sponsors. There was no significant difference found between the sky box and dummy sponsors in recognition rates.

Sponsor Attitude Results

As revealed in Table 5, most of the businesses that sponsored the 1997 Las Vegas Invitational generated positive consumer attitudes toward the sponsor's product or service as a result of the sponsorship. Of those respondents that indicated they recognized the multi-level sponsors, their attitude toward the sponsors as a result of their sponsorship falls in the very positive, positive or neutral classification almost 97 percent of the time. Data from the survey revealed the following: 48.1 percent of spectators felt very positive toward America West Airline's sponsorship, followed by 16.2 percent feeling positive, 32.4 percent feeling neutral, 1.1 percent feeling negative and 2.2 percent feeling very negative. Other multi-level sponsors received the following very positive attitude ranking by spectators: Cadillac (46%), Coca-Cola (56.7%), Dollar Rent-A-Car (49.4%), Las Vegas Convention and Visitors Authority (31.9%), Las Vegas Golf and Tennis (49.7%), Miller Brewing Company (41.8%) and Sprint (47.6%).

The data from the subject's attitude toward the exposition sponsors revealed that Mesquite Vistas received a very positive rating from 44.3 percent of the subjects, followed by American Golf Resorts (43.9%), TPC at The Canyons (43.4%), NEXTLINK (41.4%), Sports Guide (31.8%), and Joshi and

Table 5

Attitude Data for All 30 Companies

Company	Very Positive	Positive	Neutral	Negative	Very Negative
America West Airlines	48.1	16.2	32.4	00.0	00.0
American Golf Resorts	43.9	21.2	34.8	01.1	02.2
Cadillac	46.0	24.2	28.4	00.0	00.7
Champion Homes	33.7	27.4	34.7	01.1	03.2
Coca-Cola	56.7	16.6	23.6	00.6	02.5
Coors*	61.5	15.4	21.5	00.0	01.5
Dollar Rent A Car	49.4	11.2	38.2	00.0	01.1
Einstein Brothers Bagels*	47.8	26.1	26.1	00.0	00.0
Humana Health Care	47.5	18.0	32.8	00.0	01.6
Joshi and Associates	27.6	10.3	62.1	00.0	00.0
LV Conv. and Visitors Auth.	31.9	25.9	41.4	00.9	00.0
LV Golf and Tennis	49.7	17.0	31.6	01.8	00.0
LV International Golf Center*	41.4	22.4	36.2	00.0	00.0
McDonalds*	56.9	23.1	18.5	00.0	01.5
Mesquite Vistas	44.3	26.6	27.8	00.0	01.3
Miller Brewing Company	41.8	22.0	35.5	00.7	00.0
Mutual of Omaha	41.5	21.5	33.8	01.5	01.5
Nevada State Bank*	36.8	26.5	36.8	00.0	00.0
NEXTLINK	41.4	26.7	29.3	00.0	02.6
Pentagon Properties LTD*	52.2	30.4	17.4	00.0	00.0
Pepsi*	53.4	17.0	27.3	01.1	01.1
Pizza Hut*	50.0	25.0	25.0	00.0	00.0
PowerBar*	64.5	17.7	17.7	00.0	00.0
Smiths*	55.1	28.6	16.3	00.0	00.0
Sports Guide	31.8	19.1	45.5	03.6	00.0
Sprint	47.6	20.3	30.5	01.1	00.5
Summerlin Hospital	45.5	19.8	34.7	00.0	00.0
Sunrise Suite Hotel	40.5	29.7	29.7	00.0	00.0
Susan Coleman / Carrier Corp.	30.8	17.9	51.3	00.0	00.0
TPC at The Canyons	43.4	22.9	32.6	00.6	00.6

* denotes dummy sponsors

Associates (27.6%). Sky box sponsors also received favorable attitude ratings from the subjects. Data showed that 47.5 percent of respondents exhibited a very positive attitude toward the Howard Hughes Corporation as a result of their sponsorship, followed by Summerlin Hospital (45.5%), Mutual of Omaha (41.5%), and Sunrise Suite Hotel (40.5%), Champion Homes (33.7%), and Susan Coleman Carrier Corporation (30.8%). The four different types of sponsorship and their mean attitude ratings can be found

Table 6

Attitude Data by Sponsorship Type

Type	Attitude Mean	Standard Deviation
Exposition Sponsors	1.977	.825
Sky Box Sponsors	2.062	.874
Multi-Level Sponsors	1.879	.712
Dummy Sponsors	1.829	.754

in Table 6, which shows the attitude results from the data as measured on a five-point Likert scale (1 being very positive and 5 being very negative).

Research Question #2: Is there a difference in attitude toward the sponsor based on the aesthetic qualities of the sponsor's message?

In order to examine research question two, the sponsorship attitude data from the individual sponsors was grouped together into the four sponsorship types. Each sponsorship type's attitude score reflected spectator's feelings toward that sponsor as a result of their sponsorship on a scale from very positive to very negative. The four types of sponsorship attitude were recoded and tested for significance. The ANOVA results found in Table 7 are from the results from research question two for the four attitude categories.

The attitude result for question two, using a within subjects one-way ANOVA test, reveal that the attitude rates for sponsorship types was significant, $F(3, 441) = 6.05$, $MS = 1.49$, $p < .05$. Tukey's Test was used to determine where significant differences exist in the sponsorship attitude types. Results are found on Table 8. Critical value for Tukey's Test for question two was .1106. Post Hoc Tukey's Test revealed that the spectators had a significantly lower attitude rating for the sky box (2.062) than the multi-level (1.879) and dummy sponsors (1.829). In addition, the exposition sponsors (1.977) received a significantly lower attitude rating than the dummy sponsors (1 being very positive and 5 being very negative).

Table 7

ANOVA for Attitude Differences Among Sponsorship Types

Source of Variation	df	MS	F
Sponsor	3	1.49	6.05*
Within + Residual	441	0.25	

*p < .05.

Involvement Results

According to MacInnis and Jaworsky (1989), Ray and Webb (1986), Buchholz and Smith (1991) and Nedungadi, Mitchell and Berger (1993), an individual's involvement in a particular subject will increase the likelihood that the advertisement will be recognized. Therefore, spectators' involvement in golf (participating in the sport), should elicit enhanced recognition rates. The subjects' involvement with golf was measured by the number of times a subject played golf per year. Subjects that did not play golf at all comprised 15.6 percent of the respondents. The data on subjects' involvement with golf was grouped into categories of none, low, medium and high. Those exhibiting low involvement with golf played golf less than fourteen times per year (27.0 percent of respondents). Subjects that played golf between 15 and 36 times per year exhibited medium involvement with golf (27.0 percent of respondents). Those classified as highly involved with golf played the sport over 37 times per year (27.0 percent of the respondents).

Table 8

Tukey's Test For Attitude Differences

Sponsor Type	Exposition	Sky Box Multi-Level	Dummy
Exposition	—	—	
Sky Box	ns	*	
Multi-Level	ns	*	—
Dummy	*	*	ns

*p < .05. ns = not significant

Table 9

ANOVA for Sponsorship Types and Involvement

Source of Variation	df	MS	F
Involvement	9	0.02	00.51
Sponsor	3	2.70	85.97
Within + Residual	678	0.03	

* $p < .05$.

Research Question #3: Is there a relationship between the subject's involvement with golf and their response to the aesthetic qualities of the sponsor's message?

To examine research question three, the subjects' involvement with golf was compared across the four different groups. Results from the within subjects one way ANOVA test revealed that the relationship between involvement and the four types of sponsorship was not significant, $F(9, 3, 678) = .51$, $MS = .02$, $p > .05$. Therefore, there was not relationship found between the spectators' involvement with golf (as measured by golf rounds played per year) and their recognition of a particular type of sponsorship. Table 9 shows the results for the variables in research question three.

It is important to study the effects of involvement with golf on the recognition of golf related sponsors versus non golf related sponsors. A comparison of the golf related (actual) sponsors versus the non golf related (actual) sponsors revealed that 44.2 percent of the subjects recognized the golf related sponsors as opposed to 39.1 percent of non golf related sponsors.

Research Question #4: Is there a relationship between involvement with golf and the recognition of golf related sponsors?

Table 10 reveals the results from research question four. The one-way within subjects ANOVA test revealed that the relationship between involvement and golf related versus non golf related sponsors was not significant, $F(3, 1, 226) = .58$, $MS = .02$, $p > .05$. Therefore, there was not a relationship found between involvement with golf and the spectators' recognition of golf related sponsors as opposed to non golf related sponsors.

Table 10

ANOVA for Golf Sponsors versus Non Golf Sponsors and Involvement

Source of Variation	df	MS	F
Involvement	3	.02	0.58
Sponsor	1	.18	6.21
Within + Residual	226	.03	

*p < .05.

Exposure Results

A subjects' exposure to an advertisement or sponsorship has been studied by many. Simon and Arndt (1980), Woodside (1994), Ray and Webb (1986), Krugman (1972), Murray and Jenkins (1992), Cannon and Riordan (1994), Nedungadi, Mitchell and Berger (1993) and Webb (1979) have all concluded that exposure affects the recognition of advertising and thus sponsorship. The research disagrees on the number of impressions that is necessary to influence consumers' recognition rates. However, all agree that mere exposure to the sponsor's message influences the overall recognition.

Research Question #5: Is there a relationship between exposure to the sponsor's message and the recognition of one particular type of sponsorship?

The data were grouped into categories to facilitate the examination of exposure to the golf tournament and sponsors' recognition. Subjects with one day of exposure to the tournament were

Table 11

ANOVA for Exposure by Sponsor

Source of Variation	df	MS	F
Exposure	3	0.02	000.72
Sponsor	3	6.67	203.97
Within + Residual	801	0.03	

*p < .05.

compared to subjects with two or more days to analyze the effects of exposure on the ability of subjects to recognize sponsors. Results from question five can be seen on Table 11. A one-way ANOVA test revealed that the relationship between exposure and sponsorship types was not significant, $F(3, 3, 801) = .72$, $MS = .02$, $p > .05$. Thus, there was not a relationship found between exposure to the sponsors' message (as measured by the number of days attending the tournament) and the subjects' ability to recognize one particular type of sponsor over another.

Aesthetic Qualities Results

The effects of aesthetic qualities on recognition of sponsorships has been studied by Herr and Fazio (1993), Simon and Arndt (1980) and Donthu, Cherian and Bhargava (1993). They found that the size of the ad, color of the ad, location of the ad, clutter, relative position to others and the number of words in an ad can affect the recognition and recall of the ad.

It is important to look at the aesthetic qualities of each particular type of sponsorship when comparing the recognition results. The multi-level sponsors received the highest recognition rate at 56.5 percent. The multi-level sponsors had many of the sponsorship opportunities available to them on the course. The signage for the multi-level sponsors included signage on a hole, on Exposition Avenue, on the main sponsor board, on Summerlin Parkway, on a corporate hospitality tent, on an exposition booth, product or service sales, on tee boxes, on the driving range, on the TV Tower, press room signage and more. The multi-level sponsors had many opportunities for their corporate name to be seen. This meant that the multi-level sponsors had larger signs and more signs. Multi-level signage exposure was higher than any other type of sponsorship. Therefore, the mere quantity of signage opportunities might have attributed to the high recognition rate.

One multi-level sponsor that received a high recognition rate was the Las Vegas Convention and Visitors Authority (LVCVA). The LVCVA was the title sponsor of the event and had their name listed on all tournament promotional materials. This high level of exposure would have aided in their high recognition rate. The two sponsors with the highest recognition rates were Sprint and America West Airlines. Both companies had exposition booths, their name on promotional materials (posters, ticket

brochures), and had many large signs on the course. In addition, Sprint was the sponsor of the media center and America West Airlines had their name on several counter top advertisements throughout the city. These qualities alone, may have contributed to the high recognition rates of Sprint and America West Airlines

Another multi-level sponsor with a high recognition rate was Cadillac at 65.4 percent. Cadillac sold tournament tickets at their stores and did a cross promotion for a free Cadillac. In addition, Cadillac ran a cross promotion at the tournament called the Cadillac Measure-Up Challenge where someone could win a Cadillac. The car was part of their promotion and was visible for all to see at the tournament. This aesthetic quality of an actual car for all to see may have attributed to Cadillac's high recognition rate.

The exposition sponsors had the second highest recognition rate at 35.1 percent. The aesthetic qualities of the exposition sponsors included a 10' x 10' large white tent, a medium size white sign with green letters with the sponsor's logo and blue skirting around all the tables. Each exposition sponsor had the opportunity to decorate the inside of their booth as they please. The TPC at The Canyons booth had golf photos of the course in an open setting. TPC at The Canyons received the highest recognition rating among the exposition sponsors at 65.1 percent. This could be attributed to their open style booth, their "golf" related type of appeal as discussed earlier, or their name likeness to the TPC Summerlin (the host course for the tournament.) American Golf Resorts, another exposition sponsor had a booth with a table out front that prevented subjects from entering. In addition, they did not have any colorful pictures in their booth. American Golf Resorts received only a 22 percent recognition rate. Their lower recognition rate could be attributed to the lack of color and openness in their booth.

Two other exposition sponsors with high recognition rates were NEXTLINK at 42.4 percent and Sports Guide at 40.5 percent. These two exposition sponsors gave something to the subjects so that the subjects would remember their name. NEXTLINK gave everyone a baseball hat. This was a very popular item and could have aided in the recognition of the NEXTLINK name on the survey. Sports Guide handed out magazines to all spectators that wanted one. Like NEXTLINK, the gift given by Sports Guide may have attributed to their high recognition rate.

The sky box sponsors received the lowest recognition rates of the three types of sponsors. Their recognition rate was 24.5 percent. Sky box sponsors were inside a large tent overlooking the 18th green at the TPC Summerlin. The sponsors were in a tent with other sponsors right next to them. There was a sign outside the sky boxes that listed the names of the different companies that had purchased a sky box. In addition, the sky boxes had the corporate name or logo of the companies in large lettering on a white background of each sponsor. However, the signs were close together and difficult to differentiate from one another. The primary purpose of sky boxes is customer entertainment not spectator recognition. However, it is important to note that the sky box sponsors spend more money than the exposition sponsors and yet are recognized at a lower rate than the exposition sponsors. One of the main differences between the two sponsorships is that the exposition sponsors have the opportunity for product trial and demonstration and the sky box sponsors do not.

In terms of sky box sponsors, only one sponsor exhibited a notable recognition rate. Champion Homes, the only sky box sponsor with a recognition rate over 30 percent, also had a sign on Summerlin Parkway. This may have contributed to the spectators' recognition that sponsor. It is also noteworthy that multi-level sponsors that had a hospitality tent instead of a sky box had high levels of recognition. The hospitality tents were large tents along the fairway on the 18th hole with large corporate signage, umbrellas and tables, extensive food and beverage service and white picket fences around the outside. The hospitality tents stood alone and did not have competing signage on their building. Coca-Cola and Miller each purchased a hospitality tent with the multi-level sponsorship package and they received 58.3 percent and 52.4 percent recognition rates on their sponsorship. Although, they had additional entitlements in their sponsorship package, it is interesting that the hospitality tents by far had higher recognition rates than the sky box sponsors.

In sum, the aesthetic qualities of each type of sponsorship were distinct. The multi-level sponsors had more signs and larger signs. The exposition sponsors had a prime location and could gain access to all spectators entering the tournament. The problem with the sky box sponsors and recognition was the clutter issue on the tents and their lack of opportunity for product sampling. Although, it is important to

note that each company had different reasons for entering into the sponsorship, the sky box sponsors, for the most part, wanted customer entertainment versus spectator recognition.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The results presented in this study are similar to those found by other researchers in terms of recognition rates of sponsors, spectator attitude toward a sponsor and aesthetic qualities of the sponsorship. However, this study differs from the results of other studies on spectator controlled exposure to the sponsor's message and involvement. Significance was found in the recognition and attitude results among the four sponsorship types and their aesthetic qualities. Significance was not found among the four sponsorship types with respect to involvement and exposure. This study's highest recognition rates of 68.8 percent, 65.1 percent, 69.1 percent, 63.6 percent and 58.3 percent for actual sponsors was similar to Stotlar and Walker (1996), Crimmins (1996), Turco (1996), McDaniel (1995) and McCarville, Flood and Froats (1998). However, this study looked at the difference in the recognition rates among the different types of sponsorship and examined the reasons for the difference. The recognition rates for the different types of sponsorships were 56.5 percent, 35.1 percent and 24.5 percent.

In terms of recognition, the significant difference found between the multi-level sponsors and the exposition sponsors can be attributed to many factors, including sponsor controlled exposure, size of the ad, expenditure and purchasing options. The multi-level sponsor's signage, name and logo were found more often at the tournament than the exposition signage. Therefore, the spectators were exposed to the name of the multi-level sponsors more often than the exposition sponsors. In addition, the multi-level sponsors had larger signs throughout the golf course and more signs than the exposition sponsors. The third characteristic of multi-level sponsors that is not available to exposition sponsors is purchasing options. Coca-Cola, Miller, Cadillac, Las Vegas Golf and Tennis, Dollar Rent A Car and America West

Airlines all either sold products at the tournament, provided tournament services or sold tournament tickets in their stores to spectators in order to attract customers.

The significant difference in recognition rates between the multi-level sponsors and the sky box sponsors can also be attributed to the type of exposure, size of the ad, expenditure and product sales options. Many multi-level sponsors had hospitality tents in addition to their many other sponsorship characteristics. The differences between the sky boxes and the hospitality tents can also explain the difference in recognition. The sky boxes were clustered together whereas the hospitality tents were featured alone. This cluttered appearance of the sky box signage might have contributed to lower spectator recognition of the sky box sponsors.

There was a significant difference found between the sky box and exposition sponsors. The exposition sponsors had a higher rate of recognition than the sky box sponsors. This difference in recognition rates can be attributed to many factors including the product sampling and prime location of the exposition sponsors. The exposition sponsors are the first sponsors that subjects see upon entering the gates of the tournament and the last sponsors they see upon exiting. This gives the exposition sponsors a chance to talk to spectators as they enter and exit. The sky box sponsors, on the other hand, are located on the 18th green, which is a prime location, but the focus is taken away from the sponsor and onto the golfing action. In addition, the exposition sponsors have the opportunity to provide samples to the spectators on their product whereas the sky box sponsors do not. High recognition non golf related exposition sponsors, such as NEXTLINK (42.4 % recognition) and Sports Guide (40.5% recognition), passed out gifts with their companies' names to aid the spectators' recognition of their corporate name. It should be noted that the primary goal of exposition sponsors is recognition in contrast to the primary goal of sky box sponsors, which is client entertainment.

In looking at the relationship between the dummy sponsors and the other three types of sponsorship, it is interesting that there was not a significance difference between the dummy sponsors and the sky box sponsors. Therefore, many spectators incorrectly recognized some of the dummy sponsors as often as they accurately recognized the sky box sponsors. This can be attributed to the clutter of the sky box sponsors as well as the guessing by spectators as to which companies were attending the tournament.

The dummy sponsors recognition rates were also found to be significantly lower than the exposition and the multi-level sponsors. This means that in terms of recognition, the exposition and the multi-level sponsors were more effective than both the dummy sponsors and the sky box sponsors.

Another variable that was analyzed in this study, attitude, elicited results that did not benefit the sponsors of the tournament. A low attitude rating meant that the spectator had an attitude toward the sponsor close to very positive. The dummy sponsors had the highest (most positive) attitude rating, followed by the multi-level sponsors, the exposition sponsors and the sky box sponsors. Although all of the attitude scores were above neutral, it is noteworthy that the dummy sponsors had a significantly higher positive attitude rating than the exposition and sky box sponsors. This could be attributed to the spectator's having a positive attitude toward the dummy sponsors as a result of other advertising messages. Obviously, it was not as a result of their Las Vegas Invitational sponsorship. However, the dummy sponsors attitude ratings were marked only if the sponsor incorrectly recognized the dummy sponsor as an official sponsor. Therefore, this shows that the companies such as Pepsi, McDonalds, Pizza Hut, PowerBar, Coors and Smiths put their name on so many sporting contests and events, that spectators naturally assume that they are associated with the event.

In terms of involvement, the results revealed that involvement did not play a part in spectator recognition among the four types of sponsorship nor between golf related sponsors in contrast to non golf sponsors. Therefore, the subjects that were more active in golf and participated more frequently were not more likely to recognize one particular type of sponsorship over another. This finding does not support the involvement theories set forth in MacInnis and Jaworsky (1989), Ray and Webb (1986), Buchholz and Smith (1991) and Nedungadi, Mitchell and Berger (1993). It is possible that the reason involvement was not found to be a factor in recognition is due to the fact that the study only looked at one factor that contributes to involvement with golf. Perhaps, if other involvement characteristics such as television viewing and general interest in golf were studied, the results would differ.

Exposure was described as the number of days the subjects attended the tournament. However, there was not a significant difference found between exposure and recognition among the sponsorship types. This could be explained by the fact that, in golf, spectators do not have to look at the sponsors'

message while viewing the sport. In basketball, football and other indoor arena's the sponsor's message is on the scoreboard and along the court or playing field. This could be the reason why Stotlar and Johnson (1989) found that 7 out of 10 spectators could correctly identify a sponsors' name at stadiums at selected Division I football and basketball games. In golf, however, the sponsors' messages are spread out and not always along each fairway and green. Although, each spectator had to walk by the exposition booths upon entering, each spectator did not have to stop at each booth and communicate with the booths' attendee. Thus, the subjects could have attended the event on more than one day and not actually been exposed to the message a second or third time. The very nature of golf provides the spectator with the opportunity to choose which hole they wish to view and thus not all sponsor's messages are visible all of the time. However, it should be noted that higher levels of recognition were found among the multi-level sponsors which had more opportunities to communicate their message to the spectator than the other two types. Therefore, although spectator controlled exposure (defined as the number of days attended) failed to elicit a significance, sponsor controlled exposure (as defined as number of signs and sponsorship entitlements per type of sponsor) did elicit significance.

The effects of aesthetic qualities, exposure and involvement had varied results on the recognition rates of spectators. An explanation as to why sponsors' messages are recognized in this study can be attributed to product sampling and sales, frequency and number of signs, creative aesthetic qualities (as found in the exposition tents), lack of clutter and the subjects' involvement with the sport. Although there are many other reasons the subject recognized the message including past bias toward a company and other psychological attributes of the consumer, these concrete attributes of sponsorship assisted with the recognition of the sponsors in this study.

Implications for Sponsoring Companies

Sponsorship has grown significantly in the past twenty years and it will continue to grow. Therefore, it is imperative to understand what makes sponsorship effective and which particular types of sponsorship are more effective than others. This study looked at all of these questions. Corporations attempt to attract customers to a particular product or service by sponsoring an event that attracts a

particular type of customer. Golf attracts, for the most part, a higher income population and individuals that enjoy recreational activities. Therefore, companies that want to attract this demographic are most interested in sponsoring golf. However, they must choose the type of sponsorship that most meets their needs and helps attract customers to their product or service. This study's analysis of sponsorship types may help companies decide which type of sponsorship is most effective for their goals. If their goal is recognition, the company should select a multi-level sponsorship. However, if recognition is still the goal, but the company does not have the funding for a multi-level sponsorship, exposition sponsorship is the next best choice. In terms of recognition, sky box sponsorship is not the avenue for companies. Nevertheless, sky box sponsorships are important for client and employee entertainment and valuable for many different companies. This study analyzed the types apparent at the 1997 Las Vegas Invitational. It is imperative for sponsoring companies to identify their goals in sponsorship and select the most appropriate type of sponsorship that meets their needs.

Implications for Event Managers

The fact the multi-level and exposition sponsors were found to have significantly higher recognition rates than the sky box and dummy sponsors is important for event managers. Spectators' recognized the multi-level and exposition sponsors more often than the dummy sponsors. This has implications for the sale of sponsorships. Event managers may use increased recognition rates to demonstrate the effectiveness of sponsorships on consumer memory. Event managers could use this information and other recognition and recall results to demonstrate the increased awareness of companies as a result of sponsorship.

The second implication for managers lies in the difference in recognition rates between the sky box sponsors and the other two types (exposition and multi-level). Sky box sponsors at the Las Vegas Invitational spent \$12,500 on their sponsorship. Therefore, since their company name was not recognized as often as the other types of sponsorship, it is important for managers to stress the goals of the different types of sponsorship when selling sponsorships. In addition, because the multi-level sponsors were

recognized at such a high rate, it might be helpful for managers to package different types of sponsorship together to facilitate better recognition.

Recommendations for Future Research

It is clear from the results in this study that aesthetic quality of the sponsor's message impacts recognition rates in sponsorship. However, there are many other factors that help contribute to sponsorship's effectiveness that need to be studied.

Beneficial future research could focus on the difference between sponsorship types at other sporting events. The impact of sponsorship suites at basketball, football, soccer and baseball games could be analyzed and compared to courtside advertising. In addition, it would be valuable for sponsors to analyze the impact of suites and sky boxes on customer entertainment. Analyzing the benefits to the customers inside the sky boxes and suites would be important to understanding if the objectives of sky boxes and suites were being met.

In terms of involvement with golf, future research should look at spectator's television patterns viewing golf and their basic knowledge and/or interest in golf. Identifying the factors that contribute to spectator involvement is important in understanding how involvement impacts recall and recognition. In addition, exposure could be looked at differently. By studying what the spectator did at the tournament, it would help researchers identify what type of exposure they had to the sponsor's message. It would also be helpful to compare the number of hours spent at the tournament or sporting event to the recall and recognition of sponsors.

Additionally, since this study only examined recognition rates at a golf tournament, it would be beneficial to analyze the recall rates and compare them to the recognition rates. Also, future research should attempt to obtain a random sample of spectators from a golf tournament versus a convenience sample in order to generalize the findings back to the entire population.

APPENDIX A

Spectator Questionnaire

Please circle the response that most accurately describes you.

1. Please circle your gender? Male or Female
2. Please circle your age?
 - a. under 25 c. 36 - 45 e. 56 - 65
 - b. 25 - 35 d. 46 - 55 f. over 66
3. Where is your permanent residence?
City _____ State _____ Zip _____ Country _____
4. How did you obtain your tickets to the LVI?
 - a. purchased ticket b. given ticket
5. How many previous LVI tournaments have you attended? _____
6. Have you attended any other PGA TOUR events in the last 12 months? Yes / No
If yes, please identify the most recent event attended _____
7. Where do you primarily play golf?
 - a. private club / country club
 - b. public course
 - c. do not play golf (skip to question #10)
8. Please indicate how many times a year you play golf _____
9. What is your golf handicap? _____
10. What was your 1996 total family income?
 - a. less than \$24,999 d. \$75,000 - \$99,999 g. \$150,000 - \$174,999
 - b. \$25,000 - \$49,999 e. \$100,000 - \$124,999 h. \$175,000 - \$199,999
 - c. \$50,000 - \$74,999 f. \$125,000 - \$149,999 i. \$200,000 or more
11. How many days so far have you attended the tournament?
 - a. 1 day c. 3 days e. 5 days
 - b. 2 days d. 4 days
12. What is your primary reason for visiting Las Vegas? (circle one response)
 - a. attend the LVI e. conference / convention
 - b. visit friends or relatives f. shopping
 - c. vacation g. live in Las Vegas
 - d. business h. other _____

Part 1 - In the Recall column, please circle yes if you remember the sponsor at the tournament, and circle no if you do not remember the sponsor at the tournament.

Part 2 - Only If you circled yes in the recall column for that company, do you need to fill out the Attitude column for that particular company.

Part 2 - In the Attitude Column, you need to indicate your attitude toward that particular sponsor as a result of their sponsorship.

Very Positive (V+) Positive (+) Neutral (N) Negative (-) Very Negative (V-)

Sponsor	Recall		Attitude				
American Golf Resorts	Yes	No	V+	+	N	-	V-
Sunrise Suite Hotel	Yes	No	V+	+	N	-	V-
Coca Cola	Yes	No	V+	+	N	-	V-
Smiths	Yes	No	V+	+	N	-	V-
Susan Coleman / Carrier Corp.	Yes	No	V+	+	N	-	V-
Las Vegas Golf and Tennis	Yes	No	V+	+	N	-	V-
McDonalds	Yes	No	V+	+	N	-	V-
Joshi and Associates	Yes	No	V+	+	N	-	V-
Nevada State Bank	Yes	No	V+	+	N	-	V-
America West Airlines	Yes	No	V+	+	N	-	V-
Mutual of Omaha	Yes	No	V+	+	N	-	V-
Miller Brewing Company	Yes	No	V+	+	N	-	V-
Pepsi	Yes	No	V+	+	N	-	V-
Sprint	Yes	No	V+	+	N	-	V-
Champion Homes	Yes	No	V+	+	N	-	V-
Coors	Yes	No	V+	+	N	-	V-
Mesquite Vistas	Yes	No	V+	+	N	-	V-
Summerlin Hospital	Yes	No	V+	+	N	-	V-
Cadillac	Yes	No	V+	+	N	-	V-
Las Vegas Intern'l Golf Center	Yes	No	V+	+	N	-	V-
Las Vegas Convention Authority	Yes	No	V+	+	N	-	V-
NEXTLINK	Yes	No	V+	+	N	-	V-
Pizza Hut	Yes	No	V+	+	N	-	V-
Dollar Rent A Car	Yes	No	V+	+	N	-	V-
Humana Health Care	Yes	No	V+	+	N	-	V-
Einstein Brothers Bagels	Yes	No	V+	+	N	-	V-
TPC at The Canyons	Yes	No	V+	+	N	-	V-
Pentagon Properties LTD	Yes	No	V+	+	N	-	V-
Sports Guide	Yes	No	V+	+	N	-	V-
PowerBar	Yes	No	V+	+	N	-	V-

REFERENCES

- Armstrong, G., Kotler, P. (1996). Principles of marketing. Prentice Hall.
- Barr, J. M. (1993). Maximizing the value of sponsorships. Public Relations Journal, 49, 4, 30.
- Bennett, J. (1994). Shopping for sponsorships? Integration is paramount. Brandweek, 35, 7, 18.
- Buchholz, L., Smith, R. (1991). The role of consumer involvement in determining cognitive response to broadcast advertising. Journal of Advertising, 20, 1, 4-17
- Cannon, H., Riordan, E. (1994). Effective reach and frequency: does it really make sense? Journal of Advertising Research, 34, 2, 19-28.
- Clark, E., Brock, T., Stewart, D. (1994). Attention, attitude and affect in response to advertising. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Cooper, D., Emory, C. (1995). Business Research Methods. The McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc.
- Copeland, R., Frisby, W., McCarville R. (1996). Understanding the sport sponsorship process from a corporate perspective. Journal of Sport Management, 10, 32 - 48.
- Cornwell, T. B. (1995). Sponsorship - linked marketing development. Sport Marketing Quarterly, IV, 4, 13 - 24.
- Cortez, J. (1993). Sports teams help two giants score in cross- marketing. Advertising Age, 64, 11, 31.
- Cousens, L., Slack, T. (1996). Using sport sponsorship to penetrate local markets: The case of the fast food industry. Journal of Sport Management, 10, 169 - 187.
- Crimmins, J. (1996). Sponsorship: from management ego trip to marketing success. Journal of Advertising Research, 30, 4, 22-28.
- Donthu, N., Cherian, J., Bhargava, M. (1993). Factors influencing recall of outdoor advertising. Journal of Advertising Research, 33, 3, 64-72.

Friedman, A. (1990). Sports marketers must work harder - and smarter - to score. Athletic Business, December, 1990, p. 22.

Gardner, M., Shuman, P. (1987). Sponsorship: an important component of the promotions mix. Journal of Advertising, 16, 1, 11 - 17.

Gengler, C., Reynolds, T. (1993). A structural model of advertising effects. Advertising Exposure, Memory and Choice, 283-301.

Goodstein, R.C. (1993). Category-based applications in advertising: Motivating more extensive ad processing. Journal of Consumer Research, 20, 87-99.

Gray, D. (1996) Sponsorship on campus. Sport Marketing Quarterly, 2, 29-33.

Greising, D. (1995). Let the hype begin Business Week, February 27, 1995, 114-118.

Grimm, L. (1993). Statistical Applications for the Behavioral Sciences. John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Herr, P., Fazio, R. (1993). The attitude-to-behavior process: Implications for consumer behavior. Advertising Exposure, Memory and Choice, 119-140.

Howard, D., Crompton, J. (1995). Financing Sport. Fitness Information Technology, Inc.

Howard, T. (1995). Fast feeders rev engines with NASCAR sponsorships. Nations Restaurant News, 29, 35, 4.

IEG Sponsorship Report. (1997). IEG's 15th annual conference highlights new directions in sponsorship, 16, 24.

IEG Sponsorship Report. (1995). Sponsorship vs. advertising: comparing return. 14,21.

IEG Sponsorship Report. (1994). Performance research quantifies NASCAR impact. 13, 3.

IEG Sponsorship Report. (1993). The long-term effect of sponsorship and how it compares to advertising. 12,6.

Ishikawa, S., Stotlar, D., Walker, M. (1996). Olympic games marketing in Japan. Sport Marketing Quarterly, 4, 17 - 25.

Jensen, J. (1988). Games may link ads, sponsorships Advertising Age, 65, 3, 27-28.

Jensen, J. (1994). Sports marketing links need nurturing. Automotive News, 55,44, 530-533.

- Johnson, W. (1993). The clock is ticking. Sports Illustrated 78, 154-172
- Kent, R. (1993). Competitive versus noncompetitive clutter in television advertising. Journal of Advertising Research 33.2, 40-46.
- Kinney, L., McDaniel, S. (1996). Strategic implications of attitude-toward-the-ad leveraging event sponsorships. Journal of Sport Management, 10, 250 - 261.
- Komoroski, L. (1996). Sponsor accountability: designing and utilizing an evaluation system. Sports Marketing Quarterly, 2, 35-39.
- Krugman, H. (1972). Why three exposures may be enough. Journal of Advertising Research, 12.6, 11-15.
- Levin, G. (1993). Sponsors put pressure on for accountability. Advertising Age, 64, 26, 51.
- Lough, N. (1996). Factors Affecting Corporate Sponsorship of Women's Sport. Sport Marketing Quarterly, 2, 11 - 19.
- MacInnis, D., Jaworski, B. (1989). Information processing from advertisements: toward an integrative framework. Journal of Marketing, 53, 1-23.
- Mandese, J. (1995). MBL finds True Value in hardware alliance. Advertising Age, 8-9
- Marshall, D., Cook, G. (1992). The corporate sponsor. International Journal of Advertising, 11, 307 - 324.
- Martin, J. (1994). Using a perceptual map of the consumer's sport schema to help make sponsorship decisions. Sport Marketing Quarterly, III, 3, 27-32.
- McCarville, R., Copeland, R. (1994). Understanding sport sponsorship through exchange theory. Journal of Sport Management, 8, 2, 102-114.
- McCarville, R., Flood, C., Froats, T. (1998). The Effectiveness of Selected Promotions of Spectators' Assessments of a Nonprofit Sporting Event Sponsor. Journal of Sport Management, 12, 51-62.
- McDaniel, S. (1995). The communication effects of positioning brands with sporting events: an experimental study of schema-triggered affect in consumer response to event sponsorship advertising. Florida State University.

- McKeon, M. (1993). Demographics' impact on attitudes toward sponsors. IEG SR Sponsorship Briefing: Evaluation. IEG Inc.
- Morris, D. (1996). The data-driven approach to sponsorship acquisition. Sport Marketing Quarterly, V, 2, 7-9.
- Murray, G., Jenkins, J. (1992). The concept of "effective reach" in advertising. Journal of Advertising Research, 32, 3, 34-41.
- Nedungadi, P., Mitchell, A., Berger, I. (1993). A framework for understanding the effects of advertising exposure on choice. Advertising Exposure, Memory and Choice, 89-117.
- Pechmann, C., Stewart, D. (1994). The psychology of comparative advertising. Attention, Attitude and Effect in Response to Advertising, 80-96.
- Pope, N., Voges, K. (1994). Sponsorship evaluation: does it match the motive and the mechanism? Sport Marketing Quarterly, III, 4, 37 - 45.
- Ray, M., Webb, P. (1986). Three prescriptions for clutter. Journal of Advertising Research, 25, 5, 69-76.
- Schaaf, P. (1995). Sports marketing. It's not just a game anymore. Prometheus Books.
- Serafin, R. (1996). Upscale drivers. Advertising Age, 67, 9, 30.
- Shilbury, D., Berriman, M. (1996). Sponsorship awareness: a study of St. Kilda Football Club supporters. Sport Marketing Quarterly, 1, 1, 27 - 33.
- Simon, J., Arndt, J. (1980). The shape of the advertising response function. Journal of Advertising Research, 20, 4, 11-28.
- Spain, W. (1996). For Stadiums, The game's the dome name. Advertising Age, 67, 10, 52-54.
- Stotler, D., Johnson, D. (1989) Assessing the impact and effectiveness of stadium advertising on sport spectators at division I institutions. Journal of Sport Management, 3, 90-102.
- Tellis, G. (1994). Modeling the effectiveness of advertising in contemporary markets: Research findings and opportunities. Attention, Attitude, and Effect in Response to Advertising, 55-65.
- Turco, D. (1994). Event sponsorship: effects on consumer brand loyalty and consumer. Sports

Marketing Quarterly, 3, 3, 35-37.

Turco, D. (1996). The effects of courtside advertising on product recognition and attitude change. Sports Marketing Quarterly, 5, 4.

Ukman, L. (1996). IEG's complete guide to sponsorships. IEG, Inc.

Webb, P. (1979). Consumer initial processing in a difficult media environment. Journal of Consumer Research, 6.4, 225-236.

Wells, W. (1964). Recognition, recall and rating scales. Journal of Advertising Research, 4.3, 2-8.

White, A., Irwin, R. (1996). Assessing a corporate partner program: a key to success. Sports Marketing Quarterly, V, 2, 21-28.

Woodside, A. (1994). Modeling linkage-advertising: going beyond better media comparisons. Journal of Advertising Research, 34,4, 22-31.

VITA

Graduate College
University of Nevada, Las Vegas

Tanya Michelle Benson

Bachelors Degree:

University of California, Davis
International Relations

Local Address:

7200 Pirates Cove Road #2076
Las Vegas, NV 89128

Home Address:

PO BOX 509
Sterling, Alaska 99672

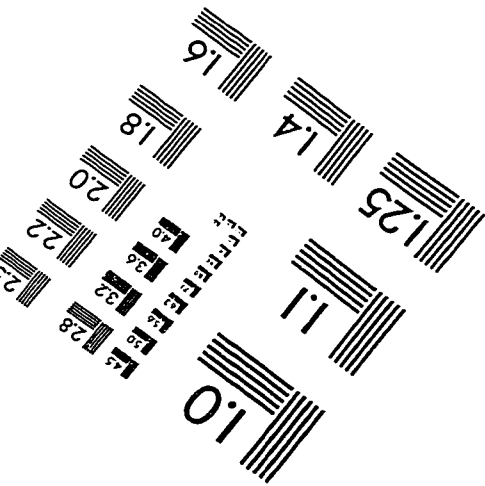
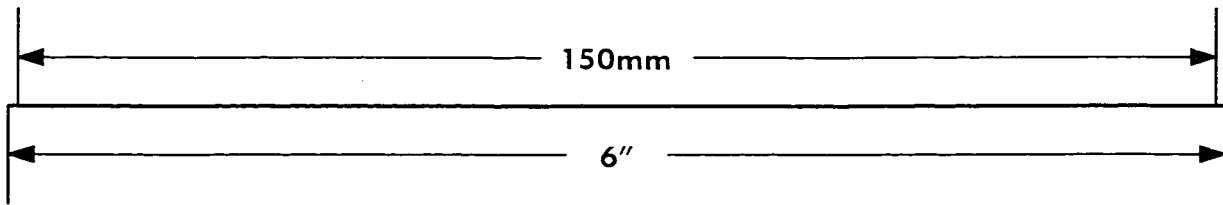
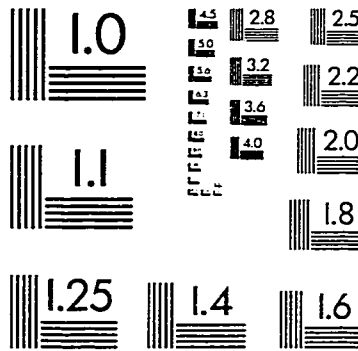
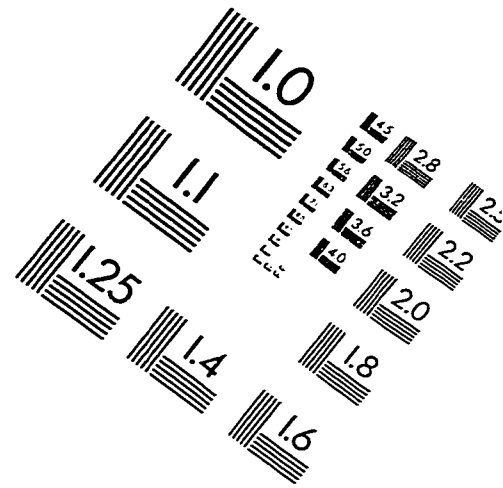
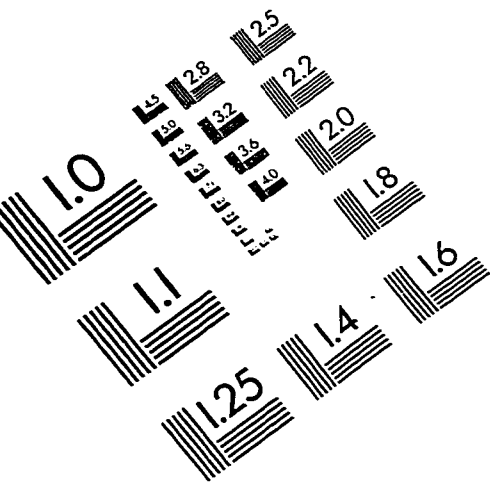
Thesis Title:

The Effect of Exposure, Involvement and Sponsorship Types on Spectator
Recognition and Attitude.

Thesis Examination Committee:

Dr. James Busser, Examination Committee Chair
Dr. Cynthia Curruthers, Examination Committee Member
Dr. Wesley Roehl, Examination Committee Member
Dr. Thomas Boyt, Graduate College Representative

IMAGE EVALUATION TEST TARGET (QA-3)



APPLIED IMAGE, Inc.
1653 East Main Street
Rochester, NY 14609 USA
Phone: 716/482-0300
Fax: 716/288-5989

© 1993, Applied Image, Inc., All Rights Reserved

