WORKING PAPER NO.259

Event-Sponsor Personality Fit and Sponsor Identification

Ву

Dr.Seema Gupta Satish Pandey

June 2007

Please address all your correspondence to:

Dr.Seema Gupta
Faculty
Indian Institute of Management Bangalore
Bannerghatta Road
Bangalore 560 076, India
Phone: 91-80-2699 3469

Email: seemag@iimb.ernet.in Seemagupta2006@gmail.com

Satish Pandey
Associate Professor
Mudra Institute of Comunications (MICA)
Shela
Ahmedabad – 58
Email: satish@mica.ac.in

Event-Sponsor Personality Fit and Sponsor Identification

Dr. Seema Gupta, IIMB

&

Dr. Satish Pandey, MICA

ABSTRACT

The present study is an attempt to understand the 'event-sponsor fit' in the context of personality dimensions and investigate if sponsor identification is biased towards brand whose personality is more similar to the personality of the event that it sponsors than brands with less similarity. For the purpose of the study, 10 brand personality traits were adapted from Aaker's Brand Personality Inventory (Aaker, 1997). Recall and recognition measures were used for the construct of sponsor identification. The study was conducted on a representative sample of 527 respondents, who were viewers of the live telecast of ICC Cricket World Cup 2003 (event). The findings of the study suggests that sponsor identification is not biased towards brands whose personality is more similar to the personality of the event that it sponsors than brands with less similarity.

The findings support the proposition made by Jagre, Watson & Watson (1991) that "Companies that sponsor events that are completely consistent with viewer expectations (high fit) will have significant lower recall rates than companies that sponsor events that are either extremely inconsistent (low fit) or moderately inconsistent (moderate fit)."

Event-Sponsor Personality Fit and Sponsor Identification

Unlike sponsorship, celebrity endorser advertising has received arguably greater conceptual attention from marketing scholars. Although there are certain differences between advertising and sponsorship, but as forms of marketing communications they are similar enough in some respects to apply models from research on the former to study the latter in terms of its consumer-oriented objectives (Cunningham & Taylor, 1995). For instance, a sponsor like VISA, builds an entire creative platform around an event (e.g., the Olympic Games) whose organizers do not permit venue signage, thus requiring the company to use controlled messages (i.e., advertising) to leverage their association with the Games, which allows them to simultaneously communicate their contribution (McDaniel, 1999). Sponsorship is also like advertising in that both are used to target consumers via their involvement with certain vehicles, and the rising use of sponsorship has recently made it more like traditional advertising media in terms of clutter levels (Cunningham & Taylor, 1995; Stotlar, 1993; Tuan Pham, 1992). In addition the similarity of their related marketing objectives suggests that the above two strategies also involve comparable consumer behaviors (e.g. in terms of information processing, affective response and behavioral intentions). Therefore models applied to studies of other forms of marketing communications might provide appropriate perspectives with which to initiate theory driven research on the workings of sponsorship response (Cunningham & Taylor, 995).

The Match up Hypothesis of Celebrity Endorser Advertising

Kahle and Homer (1985) were among the first to empirically examine a match up hypothesis in the context of celebrity endorsement. They found support for the notion that advertising effectiveness is increased when the image of the celebrity converges with the image of the endorsed product. Although researchers have taken slightly different theoretical and methodological approaches to investigate endorser/brand-matching effects, there are several commonalities across this literature (Friedman & Friedman, 1979; Kahle & Homer, 1985; Kamins, 1990; Lynch & Schuler, 1994; Misra & Beatty, 1990; Petty, Cacioppo & Schumann, 1983). For example, the central tenet of this research stream is that advertising response is influenced by a perceived match (or similarity) between an endorser's image attributes, brand image attributes, and/or the function of a product. With the use of experimental designs these studies manipulated advertised endorser/brand relationships by varying such attributes as levels of endorser attractiveness and likeability as well as degree of consumer involvement with the products (Friedman & Friedman, 1979; Kahle & Homer, 1985; Kamins, 1990; Lynch & Schuler, 1994; Misra & Beatty, 1990; Petty, Cacioppo & Schumann, 1983).

Among the key findings in this area, attitude towards the ad (Kamins, 1990), brand attitude (Friedman & Friedman, 1979; Kahle & Homer, 1985; Kamins, 1990; Misra & Beatty, 1990; Petty et al., 1983) and purchase intentions (Friedman & Friedman, 1979; Kahle & Homer, 1985) have all been found to be significantly related to the perceived fit

of an endorser's attribute (e.g. likeability) with those of the brand. In addition to involvement and matching effects, gender has also been shown to be a significant influence in certain studies (Kahle & Homer, 1985).

Schema Theory in Event Sponsorship

There is a question as to why this match up hypothesis seems to be in effect. One of the more compelling arguments is based on schema theory (Lynch & Schuler 1994; Misra & Beaty 1990). A schema is a cognitive structure that represents knowledge about a type of stimulus, for example, a person, event or object (Bartlett 1932; Lord & Foti 1986). Schema theory is based on research which found that memory is not a verbatim account of past experiences, but rather a blend of both specific memories as well as general abstractions about types of people, activities and objects (Bartlett 1932'; Rumelhart & Ortony 1977).

Sport or event sponsorships are used to target consumers who value a sponsored property, for example, the Olympics (Crimmins & Horn, 1996; Schrieber, 1994). Consequently these audiences are likely to have well developed schemas related to special events, from attending them in person or viewing them on television. Such schemas might also contain product categories that are typically part of fan's sport or event experience (e.g. beer or snack food). As part of their event schemas, consumers may also acquire sponsorship memory structures that contain brands or product categories that they come to associate as traditional; sponsors through repeated exposures to arena signage or other sponsorship related promotions over time. Therefore it is possible that event schemas may create different expectations, in terms of conventions people connect with various sponsorships. Moreover, these memory structures are likely to vary across consumer segments, in terms of their content and associated affective response (McDaniel, 1999).

Image Transfer in event Sponsorships

McCracken (1989) eschews the credibility and attractiveness models of endorsements used to explain the persuasive nature of endorsers. Instead he offers a theory of meaning transfer, where 'meaning' refers to an overall assessment of what a celebrity represents to the consumer. This meaning is built upon an individual's interpretation of the celebrity's public image as demonstrated in television, movies, military, athletics and other careers (McCracken, 1989). According to this theory the meaning attributed to celebrities moves from the celebrity endorser to the product when the two are paired in an advertisement. The transfer process is completed when a consumer acquires/consumes the product, thus transferring the meaning to the user.

Consumers can associate both sporting events and celebrities with particular meanings. While celebrities derive their meanings from consumer perceptions of their various public activities (e.g. movies, athletic, politics etc.) the meanings associated with sporting events are derived from the type of event, the event's characteristics (e.g. professional status, venue, size etc.) and individual consumer factors such as one's past experiences with the event (Gwinner 1997). Events may act in a manner analogous to celebrity endorsers in the transfer of image to sponsoring brands. That is, just as consumers

associate a celebrity's meanings with the brand they endorse, consumers may also associate a sporting event's meaning with a sponsoring brand. While it is possible that the directionality of the image transfer may move from brand to event rather than event to brand, this is less likely to occur when the event has strong established image relative to the sponsoring brand. Further since the primary focus of the spectator is typically on the activities of the sporting event rather than on the sponsors, the event's image is likely to be more salient in their mind, suggesting the image transfer process would move from event to brand (Gwinner & Eaton, 1999).

What is a Brand -Event Fit?

McDaniel (1999) in an event sponsorship context has explored an aspect of match up hypothesis by matching event and brand in terms of involvement. He found that subjects rated attitude towards the ad significantly more positively when a highly involving product (e.g. an automobile) was paired with a highly involving sporting event (e.g. the Olympics) than when the product was paired with a low-involvement sporting event (e.g. PBA Bowling). In his study, event-product involvement match was not found to have an effect on attitude towards the brand or purchase intention. While providing insight into one match up dimension, McDaniel's study did not attempt to match the sporting event and the sponsoring brand on attributes related to their respective meanings in the manner that McCracken (1989) discussed or that Misra & Beatty (1990) explored (Gwinner & Eaton, 1999).

This leads to the question, 'on what basis might we judge a sporting event to be similar or dissimilar to a brand?' McDonald (1991) discusses the importance of product relevance to the sponsored event, suggesting that it might occur directly or indirectly. The direct method occurs when the sponsoring firm's products are (or could be) used in the event. Indirectly, relevance can be achieved if some aspect of the sponsor's image corresponds with the event. Gwinner (1997) has used the terms "functional based" and "image based similarity" to refer to the potential congruence between events and the brands/companies that act as sponsors. Consistent with McDonald (1991), Gwinner (1997) has suggested that functional based similarity can occur when the sponsored brand "is actually used by the participants during the event". Examples of this type of similarity would include Seiko being an official timer at the U.S. Open Tennis championship. Image based similarity has been described as occurring when the "image of the event is related to the image of the brand". For example, MasterCard's Golf Tournament and Cadillac Automobiles may be similar in terms of prestige image.

Although Functional similarity is relatively easier to decipher, Image similarity is prone to ambiguity. Gwinner & Eaton (1999), developed a seven point strongly disagree/strongly agree anchored scales for measuring image similarity using the following three measures: 1) "The (event name) and (brand name) have a similar image," 2) The ideas I associate with (brand name) are related to the ideas I associate with the (event name)," and 3) "My image of the (event name) is very different from the image I have of (brand name)." The third image based similarity measure was reverse coded in the analysis. Grohs, Wagner & Vsetecka (2004) used a modified three item, five point

rating scale to measure image similarity. Sirgy et al (1997) have argued for a more parsimonious measure of congruence. These authors suggest that a method, which directly measures congruency using the respondent's own image dimensions and employing a holistic evaluation is more appropriate for examining image congruence between a brand and one's own image. Gwinner & Eaton (1999) extended this advice by adapting the Sirgy et al (1997) measure to study event-brand congruence. Specifically, they offered the following instruction and asked subjects to rate the consistency between the event image and the brand image:

"Take a moment to think about the (sporting event name). Think about the various images and experiences one would encounter when they attended or watched this event. Imagine this event in your mind and then describe the event using several adjectives such as: exciting, traditional, young, conservative or whatever adjectives you think describe the image of this sporting event."

Subsequent to this mental imagery task, consistency was scored on a seven point scale (1=Strongly Agree, 7=Strongly Disagree) keyed to the following question: "My image of the (sporting event name) is consistent with my image of (brand name)."

While some researches have used some form of above scales to measure image similarity, this methodology has several limitations. These scales do not define image in specific dimensions rather treat the concept of image at an abstract and ambiguous level. This means that there could be as many interpretations of image as there are respondents in a study. It is very likely that respondents may judge similarity between event and brand on dimension other than image as no uniform parameters of image are presented before them. Another shortcoming of this approach is that the analysis will not be able to identify aspects of image where fit between event and brand is high and aspects where fit are low. The findings will thus be of limited use to marketing managers in understanding how and why their brand does or does not fit with the event. It will hence not guide future decisions regarding choice of events, which fit with the image of the brand.

Based on above discussion we propose to measure image related similarity on personality dimensions. Personality oriented objectives can be used to describe image dimensions of event and the brands that sponsor the event. In consumer behavior research, a considerable amount of attention has been paid to the construct 'brand personality', which refers to the set of human characteristics associated with the brand. Researchers have focused on how the personality of a brand enables a consumer to express his or her own self (Belk 1988), an ideal self (Malhotra 1988), or specific dimensions of the self (Kleine and Kernan 1993) through the use of a brand. Personality traits come to be associated with a brand in a direct way by the people associated with the brand-such as the brand's user imagery, which is defined here as "the set of human characteristics associated with the typical user of a brand"; the company's employees or CEO; and the brand's product endorsers. In addition personality traits come to be associated with the brand in an indirect way through product related attributes, product category associations, brand name, symbol or logo, advertising style, price and its distribution channel (Batra, Lehmann and Singh 1993)

Just as brands have their distinct personality, events also have unique personality of their own. While an event's image will be strongly influenced by one's attitude towards the

event, event image will also be impacted by non evaluative perceptions of an event that are formed through associations held in the consumer's memory (Keller, 1993). In this sense, event image reflects the meaning of an event for an individual, and can be characterized using descriptive labels that represent a summation of one's perceptions. These labels, termed image associations, would include: youthful, mature, carefree, adventurous, social, artistic, political, exclusive etc. (Gwinner, 1997).

Big sports events such as Olympics, FIFA Cup, European League, Wimbledon, Asian Games, International Cricket Council (ICC) World Cup are conducted at regular intervals. These events because of their long history have formed specific brand images of their own. Besides legacy several other factors like the reach of the event, sociocultural profile of audiences, geographical scope of the event, type of event (sports, music, festival, fine arts); size of event, professional status of event, venue, promotions related to event contribute to creating perceptions about event (Gwinner, 1997).

Hence we propose an operational definition of 'event-brand fit' as the similarity between personality of an event and the personality of brand that sponsors the event. This fit is an aspect of image related similarity, is descriptive, adjective based and non-evaluative in nature and derived from cumulative experiences of the consumer with the event and the brand.

Sponsor Identification

A survey about the 1998 Winter Olympics sponsors yielded alarming results (The Wall Street Journal 1998). Eleven of the 20 brands most often identified, as worldwide sponsors of the event were not in fact sponsors. For example, whereas 50% of the respondents correctly identified United Parcel Service (UPS) as an Olympic sponsor, 40% mistakenly credited Federal Express. These results are far from unusual (e.g., Crimmins & Horn 1996). Event sponsors have expressed concern about public confusion regarding event sponsorship. This concern is evident in the increasing number of commercial studies that track sponsor identification (e.g., Millman 1995), published recommendations on how to increase the chances of proper identification (e.g., Meenaghan 1994), and advertisements warning consumers against "ambush marketing" tactics by which consumers are led to believe incorrectly that some brands are actual sponsors. Proper identification usually is perceived as a necessary condition for achieving the image objectives that most sponsors assign to sponsorship activities (e.g., Stipp and Schiavone 1996)

The processes underlying sponsor identification, surprisingly, are poorly understood. It is assumed widely by practitioners that sponsors are identified through pure recollection, that is, access to a memory record of event-sponsor association (e.g., Crimmins & Horn 1996). However, extant theorizing on constructive memory processes suggests that there may be more to sponsor identification than sheer retrieval of the original event-sponsor association (e.g. Loftus, Feldman and Dashiell 1995; Schacter, Norman and Koustaal 1998). As with other type of marketing communications, sponsor identification may involve a substantial degree of construction. Johar & Pham (1997) examined how two major heuristics- brand-event relatedness and market prominence operate in constructive sponsor identification. Findings indicate that sponsor identification is biased towards

brands that are prominent in the market place and semantically related to the event. The effect of relatedness on sponsor identification seems stronger and more robust than those of prominence, which appears to be invoked only for large events.

Intrigued by the findings of limited research done in sponsor identification, the authors intend to study the relation between one more heuristic that is 'event -brand personality fit' and 'sponsor identification'. As has already been stated earlier, we have defined "event-brand fit" as an aspect of image related similarity and means similarity between 'personality of the event' and the 'personality of the brand' that sponsors the event. Consumers who are asked to identify the sponsor of an event may assess the likely association between the event and alternative sponsors. Various streams of research indicate that such associative judgments tend to be based on a heuristic of relatedness. Categorization research suggests that instances are assigned to categories on the basis of the overlap between attributes of the instance and those of the category (e.g., Rosch & Mervis 1975). Research on the representative ness heuristic (e.g., Kahneman & Tversky, 1973) indicates that judgments about the probability that an object (e.g., a movie) belongs to a certain population (e.g., movies that a person likes) often are based on the similarity between attributes of the object (e.g., features of a given actor) and salient characteristics or exemplars (well liked movies previously reviewed) of the population (e.g., Glass & Waterman 1988). It may therefore be likely, that consumers in sponsor identification tasks are influenced by similarity in personality of the event and that of the brand sponsoring the event. The higher the similarity the higher may be the likelihood of the event being attributed to a particular sponsor.

This discussion leads to the hypothesis:

H: Sponsor identification will be biased towards brands whose personality is more similar to the personality of the event they are sponsoring than when brands have less or no similarity.

The Present Study

For this study, the event 'ICC Cricket World Cup 2003' was selected, as cricket is the most popular sport in India and being the biggest cricket tournament in the world, the event attracts huge sponsorships. Cricket boards of South Africa, Zimbabwe and Kenya jointly organized the ICC World Cup 2003. Survey method of data collection, using questionnaires was deployed. Pepsi, Hero Honda and LG sponsored this event. All the three brands had equivalent level of sponsorship. In most event sponsorships, the sponsors need to leverage sponsorship by integrated marketing communications. Each of these companies allocated different marketing budget for sponsorship activation and created their own advertising campaigns. Pepsi launched Pepsi Blue, a different version of its product, as blue was the colour of Indian cricket team, to be sold only during the world cup.

Methodology

Sample:

The respondents selected for this study were viewers of World Cup matches broadcasted by the national broadcasting channel 'Doordarshan' (DD) and the official broadcaster, SET MAX (a division of Sony Entertainment Television). To control the impact of time on the cognitive processes of respondents, all respondents were approached within a specific period (April 15-30, 2003), after approximately one month of the closing of the event. The data on demographic factors (age, gender, educational qualifications) and match viewer ship were collected for all respondents.

Data was collected on a representative sample of 527 people from 8 representative cities of India (Delhi, Mumbai, Kolkata, Bangalore, Chennai, Lucknow, Ahmedabad and Hyderabad). All respondents had satellite cable connection in their household and watched ICC World Cup matches on TV during its telecast. Trained student volunteers administered questionnaires on respondents personally on one-to-one basis. Although the sampling was purposive but while selecting respondents for the study, efforts were made to ensure as far as possible equal distribution of respondents across the three categories of age and two categories of gender. The demographic profiles of respondents have been given in tables 6(a-e).

Aaker (1997) had developed an instrument (Brand Personality Inventory) to measure brand personality on the basis of her "Big Five Model of Brand Personality", adapted from the 'Big Five' model of personality in organizational psychology proposed by Digman (1990). These five factors of brand personality are given in the table below:

S.	Brand Personality	Traits with highest association with the factor	Comparable "human		
No.	Factors	-	personality" factor		
1	Sincerity	Domestic, honest, genuine, cheerful	Agreeableness		
2	Excitement	Daring, spirited, imaginative, up-to-date	Extraversion		
3	Competence	Reliable, responsible, dependable, efficient	Conscientiousness		
4	Sophistication	Glamorous, pretentious, charming, romantic	No comparison		
5	Ruggedness	Tough, strong, outdoorsy, rugged	No comparison		

[Source: Aaker, J. L. (1997), Dimensions of Brand Personality, *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 34, August 1997, p. 351)]

In this study, we adapted the personality scale from Jennifer Aaker's (1997) "Brand personality Inventory". Initially, we identified 20 personality traits from 42 personality traits of Jennifer Aaker's (1997) "Brand Personality Inventory". The personality traits were selected keeping in mind the characteristics of the ICC World Cup Cricket event. The selected traits represented all the five factors (sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication, and ruggedness) as per Aaker's Big Five-Brand Personality model. Aaker (1997) reported test-retest reliability coefficients for 42 personality traits, ranging from 0.49 to 0.90 (average correlation 0.80). For the extracted five factors Chronbach's alphas were reported ranging from 0.90 to 0.95. In addition, all 42 traits within each of the five factors had high item-to-total correlations (averaging 0.85, all exceeding 0.55), which

indicate high levels of internal stability. The pilot questionnaire for this study was developed by researchers on a sample of 50 people including faculty colleagues and students for identifying relevant personality factors. Respondents were asked to rate four brands- ICC World Cup and its three sponsors Pepsi, Hero Honda and LG, on 20 personality traits on a 5-point scale from most descriptive (5) to least descriptive (1). Respondents were shown only 'one brand at a time' while rating the traits.

On the basis of the feedback of respondents, 10 personality traits were short-listed for the final questionnaire. These traits were- Honesty, Exciting, Reliable, Cheerful, Successful, Tough, Young, Daring, Confident and Glamorous. Hence in the final version of the questionnaire respondents were asked to rate the event (ICC World Cup Cricket) and the three brands sponsoring the event (Pepsi, Hero Honda and LG) on a 5-point Likert type rating scale on 10 personality traits.

In her study on brand personality dimensions, Aaker included brands associated with various products and services (Aaker 1997) and in most of the studies cited in brand personality literature, the construct 'brand personality' has been discussed in the context of product/service brands only (Plummer 2000, Aaker 1997, Aaker and Fournier 1995). Here we believe that the brand personality framework may provide a good base to understand the event-sponsor fit in a holistic perspective.

Sponsor identification was measured using 'recall and 'recognition' measures. For getting recall data, event prompt was used. Hence respondents were asked, "Name the brands that you think are sponsors of ICC Cricket World Cup 2003?" Respondents could list as many brands as they wanted. For collecting recognition data, "category, brand and event prompt" were used. Pepsi, a soft drink; Hero Honda, an automobile company (2 wheelers) and LG, a consumer electronics company, sponsored the event. For each product category, four brands were shown to the respondents out of which one was the sponsor and the other three were competitors and hence in all 12 brands were presented to the respondents. They were then asked, "Which of the following brands do you think are sponsors of ICC Cricket World Cup 2003? Please tick wherever applicable.

Results

Descriptive Statistics: The data collected was analyzed by using SPSS 10.0. Descriptive statistics (Mean and S.D.) for the event (ICC Cricket World Cup) and the three brands (Pepsi, Hero Honda and LG) on all 10-personality traits were calculated (Table-1). These mean scores have been used to plot the line graph to display the 'fit' between ICC and the three brands sponsoring it (chart-1).

To establish statistical measure on 'event-brand fit' between the event (ICC) and its sponsors, we calculated 'distance scores' for each respondent on the basis of scores on each personality dimensions for selected brand pairs (ICC-Pepsi, ICC-Hero Honda and ICC-LG) on the basis of the following formula-

$$D_j = \sum_{i=n} (EventP_{ij} - SponsP_{ij})$$

Where, Dj = overall linear discrepancy between the jth respondent's rating scores on the event (EventP) and the sponsor (SponsP) for the ith personality trait.

i = the specific personality trait used to assess the discrepancy between the event (EventP) and the sponsor (SponsP).

n = 10, number of ith personality traits used (honesty to glamorous).

EventP_{ij} = the jth respondent's rating score on the ith personality trait for the event (ICC).

Spons P_{ij} = the jth respondent's rating score on the ith personality trait for the selected sponsors (Pepsi, Hero Honda and LG).

Lesser distances between rating scores represent high fit whereas greater distances represent low fit. To test the significance of difference in the mean scores, we applied paired t-test. Table-2 displays that for ICC-LG pair, all 10 mean differences are statistically significant; whereas in case of ICC-Pepsi pair 3 mean differences are non-significant (successful, confident and glamorous) and for the ICC-Hero Honda pair, four mean differences are non-significant (successful, tough, young and confident).

These t-values only reflect differences between the event and the sponsoring brand on individual personality traits but do not give holistic picture of the 'event-sponsor brand personality fit'. Hence we applied "Wilcoxon matched pair sign rank test" for all the three pairs (Table-3). The mean difference scores on all 10-personality traits for the three pairs were ranked and lowest rank values were converted into T-value to test the statistical significance for mean difference scores. Table-3 reflects that for the pair (ICC-Hero Honda), T-value is not statistically significant, whereas in case of pairs ICC-Pepsi and ICC-LG, T-values are significant at 0.05 level of confidence. This finding confirmed that the fit between ICC Cricket World Cup and Hero Honda is better than other pairs. Hence personality of Hero Honda (sponsoring brand) was found to be most similar to the personality of ICC Cricket World Cup 2003 (event).

Table 4 (a) represents frequency distribution of recall and recognition data for various brands identified by the respondents as sponsors of the event 'ICC World Cup 2003'. Recall was highest for the brand Pepsi (76%), followed by LG (65%) and Hero Honda (42%). Recognition data also followed a similar pattern. It was highest for Pepsi (82%), followed by LG (75%) and Hero Honda (71%). Table-4 (b) represents comparative analysis of recall and recognition data for sponsors of ICC event and their competitors.

On comparing recall/recognition data with event-brand fit findings we derive that Hero Honda whose personality was most similar to the personality of ICC World Cup among the three sponsors had the lowest recall and recognition. LG, which had the lowest fit, has a much better recall rate than Hero Honda.

Companies often want to know the extent to which a brand has effectively borrowed an event's image. This 'strength of link' is best measured by the formula: 'Percentage of

target market who recognize the link between the sponsoring brand and the event' minus 'percentage of target market who mistakenly believe there is a link between a nonsponsoring competitor and the event'. The larger the percentage that recognizes that a brand is a sponsor and that its competitor is not, the stronger is the link (Crimmins & Horn, 1996). In the present study, we identified Coca Cola, Samsung and Bajaj as the nearest competitor of Pepsi, LG and Hero Honda respectively. On applying the above formula, we found that the link was strongest for Pepsi (53%), followed by LG (43%) and was weakest for Hero Honda (36%). This finding supports our earlier finding that awareness measures are not biased towards brand with personality more similar to the personality of the event than brands with less similarity.

To further test the association between 'event-brand personality fit' and sponsor identification through 'recall and recognition' statistically, we classified all the respondents into three distinctive groups based on 'distance scores' for three brand pairs (less distance score indicates 'better fit').

Lowest 'Fit' Group (respondents above 75th percentile on the distance score for the selected brand)

Medium 'Fit' Group (respondents between 25th and 75th percentile on the distance score for the selected brand)

Highest 'Fit' Group (respondents below 25th percentile on the distance score for the selected brand)

To see the relationship between 'event-sponsor brand personality fit' with free recall and recognition of the sponsor brand, chi-square based higher-order statistics were calculated. Tables 5 (a-c) represent frequencies and percentage distribution of recall and recognition responses of respondents from three distinct groups (High Fit, Moderate fit and Low Fit) for the respective sponsors (Pepsi, Hero Honda and LG). It is reflected from these tables that there are significant proportions of respondents in each 'fit' group who have not recalled/recognized the brand. To reduce the effect of proportional errors across different groups, we calculated coefficient Lambda (8), Goodman & Kruskal tau (9) and uncertainty co-efficient. These directional measures were also used to see the 'strength' and 'predictability' of the "event- brand personality fit" on the recall and recognition. This association has not been found statistically significant for brands Hero Honda and LG but has been found significant in case of Pepsi. If we analyze frequency distribution of recall and recognition responses for the brand Pepsi and LG we find that recall rate is higher in low fit group than in high fit group. Only in case of *Hero Honda* across three 'fit' groups, recall rate is higher for the 'high fit' group than the 'low fit' group but statistical indicators (Lambda (8), Goodman & Kruskal tau (9) and uncertainty coefficient) are not significant at 0.05 level of confidence. For recognition responses, for all three brands, frequency distribution of brand recognition across three 'fit' groups is not very different and statistical indicators are also not significant. These trends also do not support our hypothesis that sponsor identification is biased towards brands whose

personality is more similar to the personality of the event they are sponsoring than when brands have less similarity.

Discussion

The findings of the study indicate that recall and recognition is not higher for brands (sponsors) whose personality is more similar to the personality of the event they sponsor as compared to brands with less similarity.

Although few research papers have talked about event-brand fit on personality dimensions, none have measured this type of fit empirically. A humble contribution of this piece of research is that it has adapted personality-rating scale from social psychology and suggested a measure, which defines personality of events and those of sponsoring brands in specific and standardized form. Future studies can select through pretesting, set of personality traits most descriptive of the personality of the event, from 'Aaker's Brand Personality Inventory'. Whereas Functional and Image similarity has attracted more attention, the discussion of personality related similarity has been scant. This paper will hopefully lead to more empirical measurement of this type of fit, which will enable generalizability of the construct and examine situations in which it is relevant and in which it is not. The paper investigates the effect of 'personality fit' on sponsor identification. Only two studies (Johar and Pham 1999, McDaniel 1999) have addressed the effects of congruence on recall and attitudes by empirical testing. McDaniel (1999) used a schema-based approach to examine the brand/sport match-up effects on attitudes toward the sponsoring brand as a persuasive influence. He only focused on the attributes of sporting events, such as whether the sport is perceived as negative or positive. However, he found no support for his proposition that brands sponsoring more negatively perceived sports such as bowling would have significantly lower post-test attitudes toward the brand than brands sponsoring more positively perceived sports such as hockey or an Olympics team. Event marketing is more concerned with the transfer of the general positive valence the audience has for the event as a whole, to its sponsors. Johar and Pham (1999) tried to explain the brand-event relationship in the context of sponsor identification process. They proposed that "in sponsor identification tasks, consumers rely on semantic overlap between features of the event and those of potential sponsors" (p. 300), and as a consequence, sponsor identification is biased toward brands that are semantically related to the event. They argue that consumers may find a relatedness heuristic especially seductive because it is easy to generate an intuitive explanantion of why there should be a semantic fit between events and sponsors (cf. Nisbett and Wilson 1977). Johar & Pham (1999) also found that sponsor identification is biased towards brands that are prominent. Prominent brands are not only more accessible in memory, they are also perceived as perhaps more plausible sponsors of events that require significant resources. Such a reasoning process is likely to result in prominent brands getting disproportionate credit for event sponsorship, even if less prominent brands also are retrievable from memory. However, Johar & Pham failed to discuss some of their more intriguing findings, such as the fact that 91.5% of the unrelated sponsors compared to 60.5% of the related sponsors were recalled. Obviously such a result is contrary to

hypothesis of relatedness but supports the argument that unrelated or inconsistent fit results in higher recall (Jagre, Watson & Watson, 2001). In contrast with Johar & Pham's findings, our research did not find the recall & recognition of brands with personality more similar to that of the event they are sponsoring any higher, than other brands.

One argument to explain these findings could be that personality is an aspect of image related similarity, as we described in the earlier text, and though important, but is not a very strong predictor of sponsor identification. Relatedness refers to semantic overlap between features of an event and those of sponsoring brands (Johar & Pham). For example there will be high relatedness between the event (e.g., track & filed) and the product category of its sponsor (e.g., sports drink), Soccer World Cup and say Nike or Adidas, Golf Championship and Mercedes Benz as both have a premium image. But relatedness will be low for say Sports event and laser printer category. Functional similarity, wherein product is actually used in the event, for e.g. Seiko the time keeper of Olympics, or direct relatedness in features of the product and the event are very strong cues which appeal to the rational minds of consumers and lead to superior encoding of sponsoring brands. These similarities are very overt and are evident even to a layman who is not interested in event and hence increases the probability of sponsor identification.

Personality related similarity operates at a deeper level, in the subconscious minds of consumers and may not be invoked at the time of recall. But it can be capitalized upon by marketers to increase the relatedness between the event and their brand along with image and feature related similarity to assist identification by consumers.

Pepsi had the maximum recall in the study. Schema theory of advertising when applied to sponsorship situations can offer some perspective on identification issues. Sports or event sponsorships are used to target consumers who value a sponsored property, for example, the Olympics (Crimmins & Horn, 1996; Schrieber, 1994). Consequently, these audiences are likely to have well -developed schemas related to special events, from attending them in person and/or viewing them on television. Such schemas might also contain product categories that are typically part of fan's sport or event experience (e.g. beer or snack foods). Pepsi has been associated with cricket in India for quite some and are known for cricket related ads and aggressive marketing. They have also been using cricketers in their campaigns. Hence the schema theory might have aided higher recall of Pepsi as sponsor. As part of their event schemas, consumers may also acquire sponsorship memory structures that contain brands or product categories that they come to associate as traditional sponsors through repeated exposure to arena signage or other sponsorship related promotions over time. Therefore it is possible that event schemas create different expectation in terms of the conventions people associate with different sponsorships (McDaniel, 1999). A contributor to the high recall rate for Pepsi could also be the fact that it purchased advertising time on the broadcast channels, which was thrice that of Hero Honda. This increases the prominence of brand and aids retrieval.

Congruity theory can also help in interpreting the findings of this study. Incongruity refers to the extent that structural correspondence is achieved between entire

configuration of attribute relations associated with the sponsor and the event and the configuration specified by the existing schema (Meyers-Levy and Tybout 1989). Information, which is incongruent with prior expectations, will result in individuals engaging in more effortful or elaborative processing resulting in superior recall (Heckler and Childers 1992; Mandler 1982; Myers-Levy and Tybout 1989; Wansink and Ray, 1996). In the situation of consistent fit between sponsor and event, viewers should not engage in elaborate processing. On the other hand, extreme incongruity between sponsor and event should result in the audience getting surprised due to the unexpectancy of the relationship, which in turn would result in the largest amount of elaboration and processing. As each sponsor-event relationship will be processed and elaborated upon to different extents, it is these differences in processing that would lead to differences in recall and attitude (Wansink and Ray 1996).

Low recall rate of 'Hero Honda' the brand with the highest fit with the event personality is consistent with the propositions made by Jagre, Watson & Watson (2001)

"Companies that sponsor events that are completely consistent with viewer expectations (high fit) will have significant lower recall rates than companies that sponsor events that are either extremely inconsistent (low fit) or moderately inconsistent (moderate fit)." (Jagre, Watson and Watson 2001, p. 443)

In order to give context to the study's findings it is important to note its methodological limitations. The study though had almost equal number of respondents across the demographic factors, was based on convenience sampling and particular event and product category. This may be kept in mind before generalizing the findings. The study is based on survey method, which does not leave any scope for manipulation of variables like experimental research. Hence it is difficult to isolate the effects of independent variables like fit, ad spend, ambush marketing, theme of advertising, product category, brand prominence and relatedness on dependent variables like recall and recognition. Moreover the research is based on real event, which posed limitation to the number of brands for which the concept of fit could be measured.

Issues of memory based identification and constructive identification may raise questions as to whether identification is an appropriate measure of the effectiveness of sponsorship communication. Specifically, is proper identification really necessary for achieving the image enhancement objectives that most sponsors pursue? This question requires further investigation. On the one hand, many practitioners believe that proper identification is necessary for higher order goals of image enhancement or increase in sales of sponsors; on the other hand recent studies suggest that learning from sponsorship-type communication may take a more implicit form (e.g., Pham and Vanhuele 1997; Pracejus 1998)

Limitations of research study reported here suggest several avenues for additional research. Our research findings would be more proven from replications using other operationalizations of the event-brand personality construct. Further research should investigate other possible sources of bias in sponsor identification. The impact of event-

brand fit needs to be studied on other parameters of sponsorship effectiveness like image enhancement or transfer and brand preference. An interesting area of research could be to identify the impact of personality of co sponsors on brand vis a vis event personality.

References

Aaker. Jennifer L. (1997), "Dimensions of Brand Personality," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 34 (August), 347-56.

----- (1995) and Fournier, S. (1995), "A Brand as a Character, a Partner and a Person: Three Perspectives on the Question of Brand Personality," *Advances in Consumer Research*, 22, 391-95.

Bartlett, Frederic C. (1932), Remembering: A Study in Experimental and Social Psychology, Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.

Batra, R., Lehman, D. R. and Singh, D. (1993), "The Brand Personality Component of Brand Goodwill: Some Antecedents and Consequences," in *Brand Equity and Advertising*. David. A. Aaker and Alaxender Biel eds. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawarence Erlbaum Associates.

Belk, Russell W. (1988), "Possessions and the Extended Self," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 2 (September), 139-68.

Biel, Alexander (1993), "Converting Image into Equity," in *Brand Equity and Advertising*, David. A. Aaker and Alaxender Biel, eds. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawarence Erlbaum Associates.

Crask, Melvin R. and Henry A. Laskey (1990), "A Positioning-Based Decision Model for Selecting Advertising Messages," *Journal of Advertising Research*, (August/September), 32-28.

Crimmins, J. & Horn, M. (1996). Sponsorship: From management ego trip to marketing success, *Journal of Advertising Research*, July/August 1996, 11-21.

Comwell, T. Bettina and Isabelle Maignan (1998), "An International Review of Sponsorship Research," *Journal of Advertising*, 27(1), 1-21.

Cunningham, M.H., & Taylor, S.F. (1995). "Event Marketing: The State of the Industry and Research Agenda," Festival management & Event Tourism, 2, 123-137.

Digman, John M. (1990), "Personality Structure: Emergence of the Five-Factor Model," in M. R. Rosenzweig and L. W. Porter (eds.), Annual Review of Psychology, Vol. 41, (Palo Alto, CA, Annual Reviews, pp. 417-40).

Epstein, Seymour (1977), "Traits are Alive and Well," in *Personality at the Crossroads*, D. Magnusson and N. S. Endler, eds. NJ, Hillsdale, Lawrence-Erlbaum Associates, 83-98.

Friedman, H., & Friedman, L. (1979). "Endorser Effectiveness by Product Type," *Journal of Advertising Research*, 19, 63-71.

Glass, Arnold L. and David Waterman (1988), "Predictions of Movie Entertainment Value and the Representativeness Heuristic" Applied Cognitive Psychology, 2 (3), 173-79.

Grohs, Reinhard., Wagner, Udo, and Vsetecka, Sabine (2004), "Assessing the Effectiveness of Sport Sponsorships- An Empirical Examination," Schmalenbach Business Review, 56, 119-138.

Gwinner, Kevin (1997), "A Model of Image Creation and Image Transfer in Event Sponsorship," *International Marketing Review*, 14(3), 145-58.

Gwinner, Kevir. and John, Eaton (1999), "Building Brand Image Through Event Sponsorship: The Role of Image Transfer," *Journal of Advertising*, 28(4), 47-57.

Halliday, Jean (1996), "Chrysler Brings Out Brand Personalities with 97 Ads," *Advertising Age*. (September 30), 3.

Heckler, Susan E. and Terry L. Childers (1992), "The Role of Expectancy and Relevancy in Memory for Verbal and Visual Information: What is Congruency?" *Journal of Consumer Research*, 18 (March). 475-91.

Jagre, Emma, John J. Watson and John G. Watson (2001), "Sponsorship and Congruity Theory: A Theoretical Framework for Explaining Consumer Attitudes and Recall of Event Sponsorship," *Advances in Consumer Research*, 28, 439-45.

Johar, Gita V. and Michael T. Pham (1999), "Relatedness, Prominence, and Constructive Sponsorship Identification," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 36 (August), 299-312.

Kahle, L. R., & Homer, P. M. (1985). "Physical Attractiveness of the Celebrity Endorser: A Social Adaptation Perspective. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 11, 954-961.

Kahneman, Daniel and Amos Tversky (1973), "On the Psychology of Prediction," *Psychological Review*, 80 (4), 237-51.

Kamins, M. A. (1990). "An Investigation into the match-up hypothesis in celebrity advertising: When beauty is only skin deep," *Journal of Advertising*, 19, 4-13.

Keller, Kevin Lane (1993), "Conceptualizing, Measuring and Managing Customer based Brand Equity," *Journal of Marketing*, 57(1), 1-22.

King, Stephen (1989), "Branding Opportunities in Financial Services". in Advertising and Marketing Financial Services Conference.

Kliene, Robert E., Susan S. Kliene and Jerome B. Kernan (1993), "Mundane Consumption and the Self: A Social-Identity Perspective," *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 2 (3), 209-235.

Landon, E. Laird (1974), "Self-Concept, Ideal Self-Concept, and Consumer Purchase Intentions," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 1(September), 44-51.

Lannon, Judie and Peter Cooper (1983), "Humanistic Advertising: A Holistic Cultural Perspective", conference paper.

Levy, Sidney J. (1959), "Symbols for sales," Harvard Business Review, 37(4), 117-24.

Loftus, Elizabeth F., J. Feldman, and R. Dashiell (1995). *The reality of illusory memories*, in Memory distortion: How minds, brains and societies reconstruct the past, D.L. Schacter et. al., eds. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 47-68.

Lynch, J. & Schuler, D. (1994). "The Match-up Effect of Spokesperson and Product Congruency: A Schema Theory Interpretation," *Psychology & Marketing*, 11, 417-445.

Malhotra, Naresh K. (1988), "Self-Concept and Product Choice: An Integrated Perspective," *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 9, 1-28.

Mandler, George (1982), "The Structure of Value: Accounting for Taste," in the 17th Annual Carnegie Symposium on Cognition, Margaret S. Clark and Susan T. Fiske, eds., Hillsdales, NJ: Erlbaum, 3-36. Martin, James H. (1994), "Using a Perceptual Map of the Consumer's Sport Schema to help Make Sponsorship Decisions," Sport Marketing Quarterly, 3 (3), 27-33.

McCracken, Grant (1989), "Who is the Celebrity Endorser? Cultural Foundations of Endorsement Processes," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 16 (3), 310-21.

McDaniel, Stephen R. (1999), "An Investigation of Match-up Effects in Sport Sponsorship Advertising: The Implications of Consumer Advertising Schemas," *Psychology and Marketing*, 16 (2), 163-84.

McDonald, Colin (1991), "Sponsosrhip and the Image of the Sponsor," European Journal of Marketing, 25 (11), 31-8.

Meeneghan, T. (1994). Ambush marketing-Immoral or imaginative practice? *Journal of Advertising Research*, 34 (5), 77-88

Meyers-Levy, Joan and Alice M. Tybout (1989), "Schema Congruity as a Basis for Product Evaluation," Journal of Consumer Research, 16 (June), 39-54.

Millman, Ivor (1995), "Broadcast Sponsorship- The Viewers' Views-What Does it Do for Sponsors?" in Seminar on Advertising, Sponsorship and Promotions: Understanding and Measuring the Effectiveness of Commercial Communication. Amsterdam: ESOMAR, 125-45.

Misra, S. & Beatty, S.E. (1990). "Celebrity Spokesperson and Brand Congruence: An Assessment of recall and effect," *Journal of Business Research*, 21, 159-173.

Nicholls, J. A. F., Sydney Roslow and Henry A. Laskey (1994), "Sports Event Sponsorship for Brand Promotion," *Journal of Applied Business Research*, 10 (4), 35-40.

Nisbett, Richard E. and Timothy DeCamp Wilson (1977), "Telling More than We Can Know: Verbal Reports on Mental Processes," *Psychological Review*, 84 (3), 231-59.

Park, Bernadette (1986), "A Method for Studying the Development of Impressions of Real People," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51, 907-17.

Petty, R. E., Cacioppo, J. T., & Schumann, D. (1983). "Central and Peripheral Routes to Advertising Effectiveness: The moderating Role of Involvement," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 10, 135-146.

Pham & Marc Vanhuele (1997). Analyzing the memory impact of advertising fragments, *Marketing Letters*, 8 (4), 407-18.

Plummer, Joseph T. (1985), "Brand Personality: A Strategic Concept for Multinational Advertising," in *Marketing Educators' Conference*, New York, Young and Rubicam, 1-31.

(2000), "How Personality Makes a Difference," *Journal of Advertising Research*, 24 (Decemer/January), 27-31.

Pracejus, John W. (1998). An inference based model of building brand equity through sponsorship, Doctoral dissertation, Marketing department, University of Florida, Gainesville.

Rosch, Eleanor and C. Mervis (1975), "Family Resemblances: Studies in the Internal Structure of Categories," Cognitive Psychology, 7 (4), 382-439.

Roslow, Sydney, J. A. F. Nicholls, and Lucette B. Comer (1993), "Measuring Place-Based Media: The Cooperation Challenge," Marketing Research, 5 (1), pp. 34-39, 1993.

Rumelhart. David E. and Andrew Ortony (1977), "The Representation of Knowledge in Memory," in *Schooling and the Acquisition of Knowledge*, Richard C. Anderson, Rand J. Spiro, and William E. Montague, eds., Hilladale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Schacter, Daniel L., Kenneth A. Norman, and Wilma Koustaal (1998). The cognitive neuroscience of constructive memory, *Annual Review of Psychology*, 49, 289-318.

Schreiber, A. (1994). Lifestyle and event marketing: Building the new customer partnership. New York: McGraw Hill.

Sirgy, Joseph M. (1982), "Self-Concept in Consumer Behavior: A Critical Review," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 9(December) 287-300.

Sirgy, M. Joseph, Dhruv Grewal, Tamara F. Mangleburg, Jae-ok Park, Kye-Sung Chon, C.B. Claiborne, J. S. Johar and Harold Berkman (1997), "Assessing the Predictive Validity of Two Methods of Measuring Self-Image Congruence," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 2593), 229-241.

Stangor, Charles and David McMillan (1992), "Memory for Expectancy-Congruent and Expectancy Incongruent Information: A Review of Social and Social Developmental Literatures," *Psychological Bulletin*, 3 (1), 42-61.

Stipp, H., & Schiavone, N.P. (1996). Modeling the impact of Olympic sponsorship on corporate image, *Journal of Advertising Research*, 36, 22-28.

Stotlar, D. K. (1993). Sponsorship and the Olympic Winter Games," Sport Marketing Quarterly, 2, 35-43.

The Wall Street Journal (1998), "Public Is Confused on Plympic Sponsors," (February 18) B8.

Tuan Pham, M. (1992). "Effects of Involvement, Arousal and Pleasure on the Recognition of Sponsorship stimuli," *Advances in Consumer Research*, 19, 85-93.

Wansink, Brian.and Michael L. Ray (1996), "Advertising Strategies Increase Usage Frequency," *Journal of Marketing*, 60 (10), 31-46.

0Table-1 Descriptive Statistics (mean scores and standard deviations) on 10 personality traits for all four brands (N= 527)

S.	Personality	10	ICC		osi	Hero I	londa	L	G
No.	Traits	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Ì	Honesty	3.13	1.04	2.84	1.15	3.48	1.05	3.27	1.05
2	Exciting	3.97	1.02	3.43	1.13	3.45	1.04	3.14	1.01
3	Reliable	3.14	1.02	2.98	1.10	3.61	0.99	3.44	0.98
4	Cheerful	3.73	0.99	3.58	1.03	3.33	0.97	3.27	1.00
5	Successful	3.80	0.95	3.71	1.09	3.83	0.97	3.61	1.00
6	Tough	3.39	1.09	2.74	1.17	3,47	1.04	2.98	1.06
7	Young	3.56	1.06	3.69	1.13	3.48	1.04	3.04	1.09
8	Daring	3.33	1.11	3.10	1.23	3.46	1.03	2.86	1.08
9	Confident	3.57	1.03	3.47	1.16	3.57	0.99	3.43	1.06
10	Glamorous	3.86	1.14	3.83	1.16	3.38	1.07	3.41	1.08

Table-2 Differences between brand personality mean scores of three Sponsors' brands from mean scores of ICC brand

S.	Personality		ICC-Per	osi	IC	C-Hero l	Honda	ICC-LG		
No.	Traits D ₁ t Signific		\overline{D}_2	t	Significa	\overline{D}_3	T	Significa		
	<u> </u>			ance			nce			nce
1	Honesty	0.29	5.21	0.000**	-0.35	-6.50	0.000**	-0.14	-2.72	0.007**
2	Exciting	0.55	9.62	0.000**	0.53	9.17	0.000**	0.83	14.61	0.000**
3	Reliable	0.16	3.04	0.003**	-0.47	-8.35	0.000**	-0.29	-5.26	0.000**
4	Cheerful	0.16	2.94	0.003**	0.40	7.38	0.000**	0.46	8.28	0.000**
5	Successful	0.09	1.71	NS	-0.02	-0.47	NS	0.20	3.92	0.000**
6	Tough	0.65	9.84	0.000**	-0.08	-1.30	NS	0.41	6.49	0.000**
7	Young	-0.14	-2.58	0.010**	0.08	1.47	NS	0.52	8.45	0.000**
8	Daring	0.23	3.73	0.000**	-0.13	-2.29	0.023*	0.48	8.14	0.000**
9	Confident	0.10	1.88	NS	0.01	0.19	NS	0.14	2.51	0.013*
10	Glamorous	0.03	0.53	NS	0.47	8.05	0.00**	0.45	7.53	0.000**

Two-tailed significance for t-values; ** (P < 0.01), * (P < 0.05), NS (not significant, P > 0.05)

Table-3 Wilcoxon matched-pair sign test for testing significance of overall difference between perceived personality characteristics of ICC and its sponsors' brands

S.	Personality	ICC-Pepsi			ICO	C-Hero H	onda	ICC-LG			
No.	Traits	D ₁	Ranks (+)	Ranks (-)	$\overline{D_2}$	Ranks (+)	Ranks (-)	D_3	Ranks (+)	Ranks (-)	
1	Honesty	0.29	8		-0.35		6	-0.14	`	1.5	
2	Exciting	0.55	9		0.53	10		0.83	10		
3	Reliable	0.16	5.5		-0.47		8.5	-0.29		4	
4	Cheerful	0.16	5.5		0.40	7		0.46	7		
5	Successful	0.09	2		-0.02		2	0.20	3		
6	Tough	0.65	10		-0.08		3.5	0.41	5		
7	Young	-0.14		4	0.08	3.5		0.52	9		
8	Daring	0.23	7		-0.13		5	0.48	8		
9	Confident	0.10	3		0.01	1		0.14	1.5		
10	Glamorous	0.03	1		0.47	8.5		0.45	6		
	T-value			T= 4,			T= 25			T= 5.5	
				P<0.05			NS			(P<0.05)	

(N=10, critical T-Value for 0.05 level of significance = 6)

(a) Recall and Recognition Data for Selected Brands included in the questionnaire

Table-4

S.	Brands	Free R	ecall .	Recog	nition	Product/Service
No.		Freque	Percen	Freque	Percent	Category
		ncy	tage	ncy	age	
1	Pepsi	402	76.28	437	82.92	Soft Drinks
2	LG	344	65.28	395	74.95	Consumer Electronics
3	Hero Honda	222	42.13	376	71.35	Motorbike
4	Reliance	129	24.48	315	59.77	Telecommunications
5	Coca Cola	121	22.96	111	21.06	Soft Drinks
6	Samsung	114	21.63	157	29.79	Consumer Electronics
7	South African	95	18.03	298	56.55	Airlines
	Airways					
8	SET MAX	54	10.25	443	84.06	TV Channel
9	Air Sahara	38	7.21	152	28.84	Airlines
10	Kawasaki Bajaj	34	6.45	91	17.27	Motorbike
11	Videocon	31	5.88	59	11.20	Consumer Electronics
12	TVS	28	5.31	85	16.13	Motorbike
13	BSNL	25	4.74	88	16.70	Telecommunications
14	Hutch	24	4.55	130	24.67	Telecommunications
15	Mountain Dew	24	4.55	76	14.42	Soft Drinks
16	Airtel	19	3.61	55	10.44	Telecommunications
17	Thums Up	7	1.33	31	5.88	Soft Drinks
18	LML	5	0.95	12	2.28	Motorbike
19	BPL	2	0.38	9	1.71	Consumer Electronics
20	Air India	1	0.19	22	4.17	Airlines
21	British Airways	0	0.00	18	3.42	Airlines
22	Zee	1	0.19	10	1.90	TV Channel
23	ESPN	3	0.57	63	11.95	TV Channel
24	DD	2	0.38	61	11.57	TV Channel

(b) Comparative analysis of free recall and recognition data for ICC Sponsors and Competitors' brands

S. No.	Sponsor Company's bran	d		Competitor's brand				
	Brand .	Frequence	•	Brand	Frequency (Actual responses)			
		Recall	Recognit		Recall	Recognition		
1	Pepsi	402	437	Coca Cola	121	111		
2	LG	344	395	Samsung	114	157		
3	Hero Honda	222	376	Kawasaki Bajaj	34	91		
4	South African Airways	95	298	Air Sahara	38	152		
5	SET MAX	54	443	DD/ESPN	(2+3) = 5	(63+61) = 124		
6	Hutch	24	130	Reliance	129	315		

Table-5 Association between Brand Personality Fit (based on 'distances between personality ratings' for the event and the sponsors' brands) and Free Recall/Recognition of Sponsors' brands

(Percentage distribution of recall/recognition responses given in parentheses for each 'fit' category)

(a) Pepsi

S.	'Fit'	Free Rec	ree Recall			tion		Statistical	Test Value	
No.	Category	Recall	No	Total	Recog	No	Total	Test	(Significance)	
			Recall		nition	Recog nition			Recall	Recogni tion
1	High Fit	121 (69.54)	53 (30.46)	174 (100)	134 (79.3)	36 (20.7)	174 (100)	Chi-Square	8.21 (P<0.05)	2.33 (NS)
2	Moderate fit	159 (80.30)	39 (19.70)	198 (100)	168 (82.8)	34 (17.2)	198 (100)	Lambda 8	0.000 (NS)	0.000 (NS)
3	Low Fit	95 (81.90)	21 (18.10)	116 (100)	100 (86.2)	16 (13.8)	116 (100)	Goodman & Kruskal tau 9	0.017 (P<0.05)	0.005 (NS)
	Total Sample	375 (76.84)	113 (23.16)	488 (100)	402 (82.4)	86 (17.6)	488 (100)	Uncertainty Co-efficient	0.015 (P<0.05)	0.005 (NS)

(b) Hero Honda

S.	'Fit'	Free Rec	all	Recognition				Statistical	Test Value	
No.	Category	Recall	No	Total		No	Total	Test	(Significance)	
			Recall		Recall	Recog nition			Recall	Recogni tion
1	High Fit	72	86	158	108	50	158	Chi-Square	0.837	1.57
		(54.4)	(45.6)	(100)	(68.4)	(31.6)	(100)	Π^2	(NS)	(NS)
2	Moderate	89	125	214	157	57	214	Lambda 8	0.000	0.000
	fit	(58.4)	(41.6)	(100)	(76.4)	(26.6)	(100)		(NS)	(NS)
3	Low Fit	43	63	106	79	27	106	Goodman &	0.002	0.003
		(40.6)	(59.4)	(100)	(74.5)	(25.5)	(100)	Kruskal tau 9	(NS)	(NS)
	Total	274	204	478	344	134	478	Uncertainty	0.001	0.003
	Sample	(57.3)	(42.7)	(100)	(72.0)	(28.0)	(100)	Co-efficient	(NS)	(NS)

(c) LG

S.	'Fit'	Free Rec	Free Recall Recognition			ition		Statistical	Test Value	
No.	Category	Recall	No	Total	Recog	No	Total	Test	(Significance)	
			Recall		nition	Recog nition			Recall	Recogni tion
1	High Fit	105 (66.9)	52 (33.1)	157 (100)	112 (71.3)	45 (28.7)	157 (100)	Chi-Square Π ²	5.049 (NS)	0.371 (NS)
2	Moderate fit	133 (64.9)	72 (35.1)	205 (100)	160 (71.1)	45 (21.9)	205 (100)	Lambda 8	0.000 (NS)	0.000 (NS)
3	Low Fit	85 (68.0)	40 (32.0)	125 (100)	94 (75.2)	31 (24.8)	125 (100)	Goodman & Kruskal tau 9	0.005 (NS)	0.001 (NS)
	Total Sample	323 (66.3)	164 (33.7)	487 (100)	365 (75.2)	121 (24.8)	487 (190)	Uncertainty Co-efficient	0.009 (NS)	0.001 (NS)

Table-6 Demographic profile of respondents

(a) Age

Age Group (years)	Sample
15-25	181
25-35	190
35-45	156
Total	527

(b) Gender Distribution: Male = 285, Female = 242 (Total = 527)

(c) Education

Qualification	Sample
Undergraduates	75
Graduates	207
Post-graduates	143
Professionally qualified	98
Total	523

(d) City

	July	
S.	City	Sample
No.		
1	Delhi	50
2	Mumbai	147
3	Chennai	99
4	Kolkota	54
5	Bangalore	54
6	Hyderabad	47
7	Ahmedabad	23
8	Lucknow	53
	Total	527

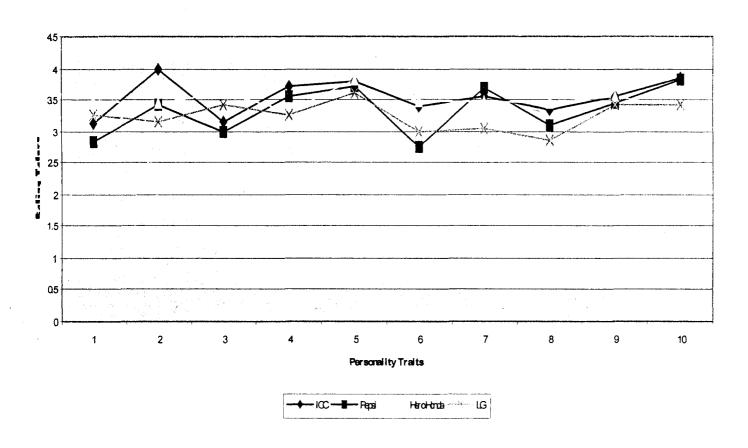
(e) Match viewership data as reported by respondents

Average number of matches viewed by an average respondent = 16.5 matches (Match viewed means watching the Live TV telecast of the match for average 2 hours duration)

S. No.	Number of matches	Number of respondents
1	0-10	246
2	11-20	119
3	21-30	69
4	31-40	33
5	41 and above	44
	Total	511

Chart-1

Brand Personality Profiles for all four brands (ICC, Pepsi, Hero Honda and LC)



Personality		
Traits		
1	Honesty	
2	Exciting	
3	Reliable	
4	Cheerful	
5	Successful	
6	Tough	
7	Young	
8	Daring	
9	Confident	
10	Glamorous	

Exhibit-1

A press release from attorneys of International Cricket Council for India

(Source: The Times of India, Wedneday, February 19, 2003)

The Times of India

Wednesday, February 19, 2003 9

CAUTION NOTICE

Notice is hereby given that our Clients, ICC Development (International) Ltd. ("IDI"), are the worldwide Intellectual Property Rights owners of the following Corporate logo and Cricket World Cup logo:



International Cricket Council



Our Clients own and control all commercial rights in the ICC Cricket World Cup South Africa 2003, presently being held in South Africa. Zimbabwe and Kenya ("the said Event"). For the said Event, our Clients have appointed the following Official Sponsors/Commercial Partners ("Sponsors/Partners"):

Pepsi	Hero Honda	LG Electronics
South African Airways	Hutch-Orange	Standard Bank-South Africa
Toyota-South Africa	South African Breweries	MTN
SET MAX	Doordarshan	

Our Clients wish to inform the public that only the above Sponsors/ Partners have been permitted to associate themselves with the said Event and/or conduct schemes/contests offering tickets/packages to the said Event. In the interest of public, our Clients wish to inform that association in any manner with the Event and/or use of tickets as prizes in schemes/contests/lotteries/competitions by any party other than the Sponsors/Partners is expressly prohibited as per the rules and regulations laid down in respect of the said Event and amounts to an act of ambush marketing.

Through

Sen - Oberoi

Attorneys-at-Law

A-18, Chittaranjan Park, New Delhi - 110 019 Tel. (+91-11) 26-22-92-30, 26-43-27-55, Facsimile: (+91-11) 26-43-58-96