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**AN INVESTIGATION INTO MOTORSPORT SPONSORSHIP:
A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF TWO AND FOUR WHEELED
SPONSORSHIP**

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ABSTRACT

The prime objective of the research is to establish why commercial sponsors use motor sport as an element of their marketing communications. A comparison has been undertaken between car and bike racing, as represented by Formula One and MotoGP, to establish any differences in approach.

The initial historical element of the research revealed that motor sport had been sponsored by vehicle manufacturers since the origins of the petrol combustion engine in the late 19th century. Any suggestion that sponsorship of motor sport is a recent, late 20th century science has been dispelled.

The investigation found that the sponsors of top level car racing place major importance on achieving awareness for their brands through media exposure, particularly television. This aim is shared by motorcycle racing sponsors too and a common model is identified.

Where motor cycle racing is specifically concerned the research established that there is an almost identical approach to the usage and application of sponsorship to that in car racing. The only difference being that the wider commercialisation of F1, in which brands outside those intimately involved with automotive industries have made use of motor sport sponsorship, has been around for longer than that in motorcycle racing. The motorcycle sponsors have therefore taken slightly longer to reach the same level of marketing sophistication in a sport which is recognized as having less money overall.

The research reveals that the most important element of the business plan for both types of motor sport relies largely on a business model linked to global television audiences. Such audiences are seen as vital in generating awareness of sponsors and their products. Such plans provide an entirely relevant platform for the initial steps of the AIDA theory (Awareness; Interest; Desire; Action) of product adoption. The research also identifies that this commonality of approach is not entirely accidental as similar promoters have been involved at the top level of both sports.

The research advises that the future of motor sport should continue to involve the application of the latest technologies appropriate to passenger vehicles if it is to continue unhindered. It is suggested that motor sport should become the definitive technological test bed for vehicle propulsion systems that are sustainable and kind to the environment.

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Author's Declaration

In the course of collecting initial data for this thesis two journal articles have been accepted for publication and one conference paper published in conference proceedings. These are acknowledged where appropriate in the text and are listed in Appendix 9. The articles themselves are included at the end of the thesis.

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In Memory of Clive Brooks

Blake Ashwell, John Beavis, John Burtenshaw, Stephen Calver, Dennis Carter, Phil Creed, Janet Dickinson, DORNA, John Fletcher, Alan Fyall, Yeganeh Morakabati, Motorsport Industry Association, Alan Orchard, Barry Pierson, Jim Saker, Maria Seeley, Karen Ward.

“If at first you don’t succeed, try, try and try again”

King Robert the Bruce, 1307.

1.0 - INTRODUCTION

1.1 Rationale

Motorsport is a major global industry. In 2005 the total value of its turnover for engineering and services was £50 billion which relates to 0.23 percent of global GDP (Henry *et al*, 2007, page 11). In the UK the motorsport industry supports 4000 specialist engineering companies which employ 25,000 engineers achieving a turnover of £2.9 billion. The marketing and sponsorship element of the sport employs a further 39,000 people and is worth an extra £1.7 billion (Roberts, 2007). Formula One alone has a turnover of £2.2 billion and is, “*among the richest sports on the planet*” (Sylt & Reid, 2007).

Much of the research into motorsport has concentrated on the technology and science of creating the competition vehicles themselves and relatively little has been undertaken in the public domain on the business element of marketing and sponsorship. This is an oversight as marketing and sponsorship in motorsport is actually the means of funding much of the research, development and operation of those self same competition vehicles. This study seeks to address that omission.

Sponsorship has not always been perceived as a genuine element of marketing communications in contrast to other fundamentals, such as advertising, promotion and public relations, which have been around for far longer and researched in more depth. Sponsorship has historically not received its fair share of interest from academics until comparatively recently when it finally started to achieve legitimacy (Meenaghan, 1991a; Dibb, *et al*, 1994; Adcock, *et al*, 1995; Wilmshurst, 1995; Siegel, 1996; Tripodi, 2001).

To finally cement the fact that sponsorship is now understood to be a core element of the business of motorsport, Henry, *et al* (2007, pages 1 & 2) define the motorsport industry as:

- “*motor*”: meaning the provision (construction and preparation) of cars and bikes;
- “*sport*”: meaning the infrastructure including clubs, circuits, promotion, insurance and so on that is needed to participate in, spectate or view the sport;
- a sport that is part of the leisure and entertainment industry; and
- a marketing opportunity for sponsors.”

1.2 Aim and Objectives

1.2.1 Overall Aim

The overall aim of the research is to enhance the understanding of the reasons for the usage of sponsorship as an element of marketing communications in the context of motorsport and to compare such reasons within both motorcycle and car road racing.

1.2.2 Objectives

The objectives of the research are:

1. To reflect on the assertion that motorsport sponsorship commenced in 1968 with the John Player / Team Lotus relationship in F1 (H1).
2. To explore whether motorsport provides a more successful branding platform in four-wheel as opposed to two-wheeled motorsports (H2).
3. To identify whether four-wheel and two-wheel motorsport sponsors have media exposure as their primary sponsorship motivation (H3)
4. To explore whether there is a positive correlation between the sponsorship aims of two-wheeled and four-wheeled motorsport sponsors (H4).
5. To investigate whether there is a positive correlation between the importance of different sponsorship measurement tools in two-wheeled and four-wheeled motorsport sponsors (H5).
6. To investigate whether there is a correlation between the marketing mix variables employed by motorsport sponsors in two-wheeled and four-wheeled motorsport (H6).

The objectives listed above were translated into the research hypotheses H1 – H6.

1.3 Overview of thesis

Chapter 2.0 explores the business of motorsport historically from its earliest days, which were found to be at the end of the 19th century. A particular focus was the need to address the popular belief that motorsport sponsorship, and specifically that of F1, commenced in 1968 with Imperial Tobacco's Gold Leaf Team Lotus arrangement. It was felt necessary at an early stage to investigate the validity of such claims and the consequent historical element of the thesis has provided an essential foundation for addressing not only this but also the wider propositions and hypotheses. Chapter 2.0 therefore traces the origins of motorsport sponsorship of both cars and bikes from the first evidence of its existence.

Chapter 3.0 examines the literature regarding sponsorship's place in the marketing communications mix. A definition of sponsorship with regard to the business of motorsport is offered and the chapter then continues to examine sponsorship in sport in general before specifically focusing in on sponsorship in motorsport.

Chapter 4.0 explains the methodology by addressing the design of the research and its scope. The population and sample are discussed and the eventual survey methodology explained. The main source of primary information used was a postal survey and the reasons for using this type of survey capture, as opposed to alternative methodologies, are reviewed. Some perceived limitations of the research are outlined.

Chapter 5.0 presents the primary data analysis. In undertaking the analysis a number of research propositions are addressed:

1. Motorsport sponsors use more than one sponsorship support strategy
2. Motorsport sponsors support teams as their major strategy
3. Motorsport sponsors require more than one goal from a sponsorship
4. Motorsport sponsors do not have any priority markets
5. Motorsport sponsors evaluate the effects of their sponsorship
6. Media coverage is important to motorsport sponsors
7. The print media is measured in a variety of ways by sponsors
8. The TV broadcast media is measured in a variety of ways by motorsport

sponsors

9. The wireless media is measured in a variety of ways by motorsport sponsors
10. Motorsport sponsors measure sponsorship by specific indicators
11. Motorsport support is measured by its impact on sales
12. Motorsport sponsors complement their support in a number of ways
13. Public Relations is important to motorsport sponsors
14. Image is important to motorsport sponsors
15. The audience is important to motorsport stakeholders
16. Branding is important to motorsport sponsors
17. Increased revenue is important to motorsport sponsors

In addressing these propositions a body of quantitative data is established which is then subjected to statistical analysis. Similarities and differences between car and motor cycle sponsors are revealed as a result.

Chapter 6.0 brings together the secondary research in chapters 2.0 and 3.0 and then reviews them in the wider context of the findings of the primary research in chapter 5.0 Reflection is provided on the significance and wider implications of the findings and the research's objectives are reviewed. Some suggestions for the future of motorsport are offered and a number of unresolved issues are identified and suggestions made for further research.

2.0 - THE HISTORY OF SPONSORSHIP IN MOTORSPORT

“As the automobile gained in popularity, mankind's inquisitive mind turned to the future use of wheeled transport. Quite naturally, the spirit of competition soon surfaced.” (Douglas & Beighton, 2004)

2.1 Introduction

The sophisticated and dynamic harnessing of competing machines on the 21st century race tracks of the world by global brand managers has evolved from the time the internal combustion engine was first invented.

Competition is described as a basic characteristic of man and originated from the concept of survival according to Darwin's theory of evolution. Simple acts of motion – walking, running, jumping and swimming – have become competitive events (Hilton, 2005, page 9). The competitive nature of the *homo sapien* has previously been expressed through athletics, the racing of horses and chariots as well as sail and steam powered competitions prior to the internal combustion engine's discovery. In the future alternative fuels ranging from solar to hydrogen will continue to provide means of transport and no doubt there will be a demand to make such technologies compete against each other as progress continues. Competition powered by the petrol or gas engine provides the current medium for such activities and is the focus of this research.

The researcher felt it necessary to trace the history of sponsorship within motorsport by a discussion over time that identifies the lineage of the research field whilst placing it in the larger historical context. The causes and consequences of the evolution of sponsorship are identified with a major initial finding being that the sponsorship of both cars and motorcycles followed an almost identical historical model (Fig 2.1), even if some dates do not match exactly.

Once the internal combustion engine had been created the vehicles into which it was to be implanted, following the capitalist model, needed to be marketed. The early vehicle manufacturers identified a desire to promote their primitive machines as being both reliable and fast.

This early concept would be maintained throughout history with, for example, Aprilia’s founder, Ivano Beggio, stating that “the spirit of competition was decisive factors in turning his company into Europe’s second largest motorcycle manufacturer (Aprilia, 2004a).

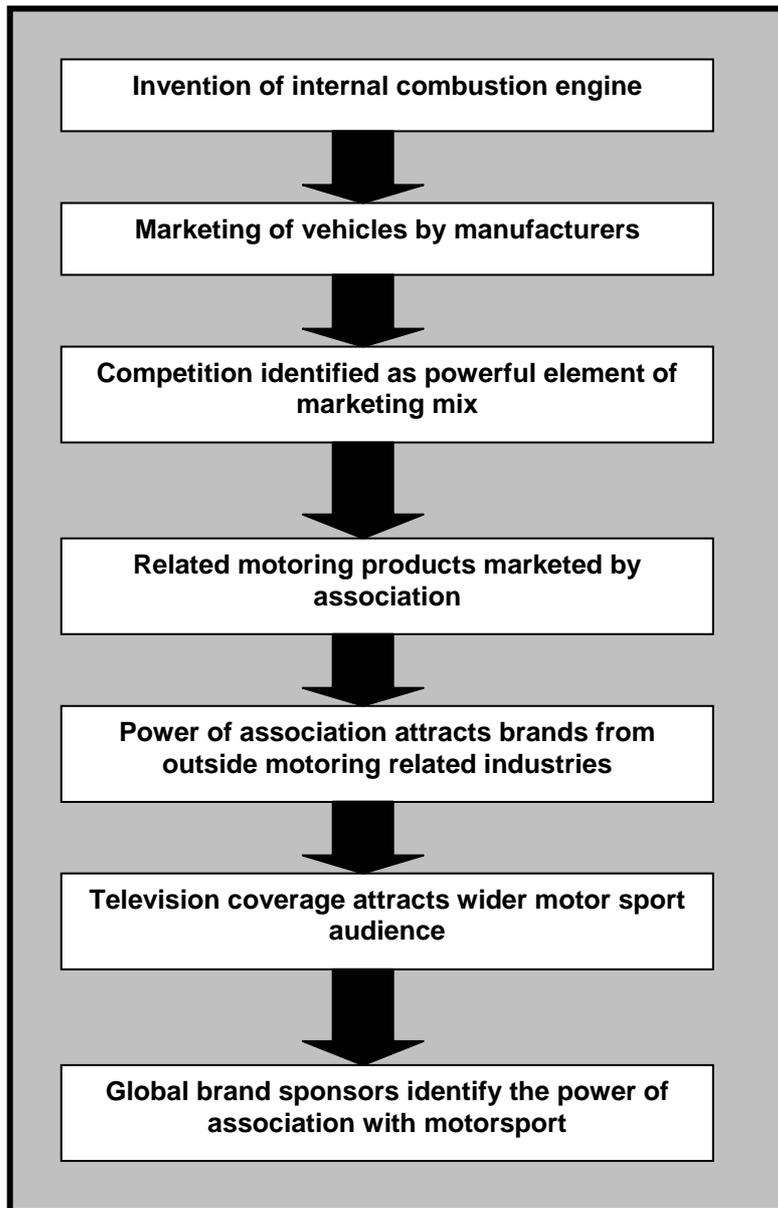
At an early stage competitive events were organised specifically to emphasise the elements of reliability and speed within the marketing mix. The media, then in print form, not only reported such events but also used them to promote their circulations, thus becoming some of the sport’s first title sponsors.

As vehicles evolved the manufacturers realised the benefits of association. Tyre, oil and fuel suppliers started to use association with competition vehicles as a validation for their products.

As media interest in competitive motorsport increased and a wider audience generated, marketing refined too. The benefits of association became apparent to brands that had no obvious link to motoring. The impact of television coverage and its global reach would bring multi-national brands into the sponsorship equation, which is the historical point which has currently been reached.

Fig 2.1

The evolution of commercial sponsorship in motorsport



2.2 The invention of the internal combustion engine

Sponsorship in its widest sense is a concept that originated in Greek and Roman times (Carrigan & Carrigan, 1997) with Quester and Thompson (2001) identifying that the word is derived from the Greek *horigia*.

Image rights and merchandising are first recorded in Roman chariot racing relics on which a charioteer was depicted beside the word *celer*, which is Latin for ‘speedy’. A villa stone was also inscribed with *Prasina Factio* – ‘the Green Company’ – one of four well known chariot teams in the Roman circus (Turner, 2005, page 94).

French inventor de Rochas created an internal combustion engine car in 1862 (five years before German Carl Benz) and went into production in 1890 (Lienhard, 2000).

Early cars and motorcycles possessed combinations of three and four wheels thereby complicating the evolutionary chain. Whichever, in 1888 Edouard and Andre Michelin started their tyre company which equipped the racing Daimler powered Peugeot of 1891 and because, “no petrol driven vehicle had made such a journey before it produced a sales surge, from five cars a year to seventy-two” (Hilton, 2005, page 10). Competition was already driving consumption.

2.3 Marketing of vehicles by manufacturers

The early vehicle manufacturers were creating personal transport products with enormous potential for identifiable markets. Manufacturers such as Carl Benz and Hildebrand and Wolfmüller, the first production two-wheeled motorcycle builder, needed volume sales. Thirteen Duryeas were built in America in 1896 but marketing plans were required. At this time cars and motorcycles competed alongside each other although the first recorded two-wheeled motorcycle race was at London’s Sheen House in 1897 (Le Santo, 2004).

History records that as the wealthy raced horses, “so it made perfect sense to challenge each other using the vehicles that were to replace the horse as their private transport” (FIA, 2004, page 17). The first formal American motor cycle race was in

1895 with the first officially accredited race in 1901 (FIM World Endurance Championship, 2004).

1895 was the date of the first motor race (FIA, 2004, page 17) and by 1898 the Paris to Amsterdam event saw both money and national pride were at stake as the manufacturers used competitive success as a marketing tool (Le Santo, 2004).

The first GP series for motorcycles commenced in 1949 with the FIA World Championship for motor racing drivers would starting a year later. International rally and sports car championships started too in the early 1950s providing manufacturers and their suppliers with the opportunity to promote their successes (FIA, 2004, page 119).

Roebuck (1995a) argued that thirty years later the commercial side of F1 really changed when major car manufacturers returned *en masse* in the 1980s. Renault, BMW and Honda demonstrated that F1 motorsport then “became big business”.

2.4 Competition as part of the marketing mix

It did not take long for the vehicle manufacturers to recognise that to take on their rivals in different forms of direct competition would not only generate favourable coverage in the media but also prove the embryonic technology.

In America the State of Wisconsin promoted a race to “advance the technology” (Donald, 1921) and in 1895 a winning Duryea gained, “priceless prestige and advertising” for the brand and the factory.

2.4.1 The first hallmark event sponsors come from the media

As the automobile gained popularity media magnate James Gordon Bennett Junior - owner of the *New York Herald* and the *Paris Herald* newspapers - established in 1900 a trophy for a competition between nations to boost circulation. Previously (1894) *Le Petit Journal* newspaper (FIA, 2004, page 17) and *L'Auto* publications (Turner, 2005, page 116) had similarly sponsored motorsport events and Wilkins (1996) observed that motorsport had, “a history of heavy sponsorship which pre-dates most other sports” included the magazine '*Velocipede*' in 1887.

2.4.2 The birth of international competition

As an inter-nation competition the Gordon Bennett Trophy triggered national research and development of vehicles, tyres, coils, sparking plugs and electrical accessories.

The Isle of Man became the British centre for automobile competition thanks to favourable legislation permitting competition on public roads. The harsh regime of the island helped research reliable products, and has remained a centre of wheeled sport ever since (Douglas & Beighton, 2004). “A good showing there almost guaranteed success in marketing the winning company's machines to the general public” (Tank, J. 2004).

Following a number of fatalities at events from 1904 all racing in Europe would be on closed roads (FIA, 2004, page 21). The first ever French GP, run at the Le Mans circuit in 1906 was won by a Renault with a Fiat also in the entry. Track signage included Michelin and Dunlop which are still familiar brands today.

The first purpose-built paved race track was built for the British motor industry at Brooklands in 1907 with the Indianapolis Motor Speedway opening in 1909 (FIA, 2004, pages 34-35).

2.4.3 Reliability and Performance

Many of the early vehicle constructors such as the Duryea brothers, Henry Ford (Ford, 2005b), Louis Chevrolet (Motorsport News, 2005a) and Enzo Ferrari (Rendall, 1993) became racing drivers for the same reasons. Renault brothers, for example, became racing drivers because motorsport was "the most effective form of advertising and direct marketing that the brothers could have wished for. An admiring public made their order books fatter with every race" (Renault, 2005).

The Italian Mille Miglia race made, "a sizeable contribution to the technical evolution of the automobile", and, "like the Le Mans 24-hour races....was intended to attract teams from manufacturers keen to display the speed and reliability of their cars (Williams, 2002, pages 37 & 38).

To the present day the automotive industry believes that seeing a product associated with motorsport is regarded by the public as being evidence of both reliability and performance (Waite, 1979). Motorsport has always been heavily dependent upon both manufacturers as well as sponsors as, "their support sets the pace of emerging technologies that find their way into road transport as performance and safety features" (Eastoe, 1994). This link between motor racing and the automobile industry, "has contributed to the advertising and promotion of car manufacturers" (Foxall & Johnston, 1991).

2.4.4 Win on Sunday, Sell on Monday

“When the Minis won the Monte Carlo Rally, that blew their sales sky high, particularly in Europe”.

(Maurice Hamilton, cited in Holbrook, 2002, page 74).

In the United States says that motorsport "allows it to transfer technology from the racetrack to the cars typical consumers might buy" (Byrnes, 1994). Similarly in motor bike racing BSA Triumph says of competition that “the best development is that carried out under proper racing conditions” (Pinchin, 2006, page 14). When motor racing started as a sport it wasn't, "the highly-sponsored media-rich sport-cum-business we see today", but it would be a mistake to believe that it wasn't commercialised. The opposite was the case as the major manufacturers were then involved in racing to 'Win on Sunday, Sell on Monday' as "race success for a motor manufacturer sold road-going production cars" (Nye, 1994). In the early 1950s “Win on Sunday, Sell on Monday” was described as an “American adage”, in sportscar racing (Edwards, 2005, page 68).

Walter Hayes of Ford famously stated that, “the sport can drive the industry, and the industry can drive the sport”, he said. In America this was called, “Win on Sunday, sell on Monday” (Stewart, 2007, pages 312 – 313). In NASCAR in 1949, “manufacturers learned that if they won on Sunday, they could sell their vehicles on Monday” and 46 years later this still applied as the same series presented, “a ripe marketing opportunity for Detroit [the home city of auto manufacturing in the USA] to cozy up to the buying public” (Jones, 2007, page 122).

W.O. Bentley had confirmed this by stating that, “we were in racing ... strictly for business.....competition success was the cheapest way of selling cars” (Cruickshank, 2007). Bugattis too found racing success was good for sales (Saward, 2007, page 38) and acknowledged celebrity endorsement by employing GP drivers as sales people in showrooms (Saward, 2007, page 45).

In the UK in the 1920s the “glamour of racing” was credited as fuelling interest in motorcycling (Anon, 2007, page 52) with Moto Guzzi motorcycles, for example, being promoted through competition with victories boosting, “the company’s fame among the general public” (Moto Guzzi, 2004).

The successes of the Mini Cooper S model in the 1964 and 1967 Monte Carlo Rallies boosted unit sales (Holbrook, 2002, page 74) appears to be confirmed by production figures (Appendix 7). The road going Mini Cooper brand (Cooper being a top F1 team of the time) was simultaneously created along with a subliminal association with motorsport which continues with the current BMW-built Cooper options (Outmotoring.com, 2007). Simms & Trott (2006) agreed with de Chernatony and Dal’Olmos Riley’s (1998) brand differentiation model which highlighted, “the importance of a brand’s history”, in how stakeholders perceive a brand referring specifically to the Mini brand’s motorsport success.

Similarly, 1970s bike racing in the USA racing was described as “Win on Sunday, sell on Monday” being “the catch phrase of US racing” (Pinchin, 2006, page 11) as was bike racing in the 1980s (Ryder, 2002, page 14).

In post Second World War motor racing Mercedes-Benz applied the attitude that motor racing, “had a simple objective which was to sell cars” (Edwards, 2005, page 85). Mercedes has used the “Win on Sunday, sell on Monday” phrase more recently (Rheinische Post, 1998) reinforcing the relationship between success in F1 and sales of production cars (Dransfeld, *et al*, 1999). Indeed Toyota said that, “we go racing to sell cars” and their ambition is to use F1 to assist in, “moving metal at rates greater than General Motors, and so to capture the *numero uno* [car manufacturing] slot” (F1 Racing, 2006a). Renault confirmed the concept but qualified it by saying that, “Formula 1 doesn’t sell cars the next morning – it’s for the next ten to fifteen years” (Rowlinson, 2005c).

2.4.5 International regulation of motorsport helps market vehicles

In 1904 following disputed results the sports authorities of the five countries joined together to create the Fédération Internationale des Clubs Motocyclistes (FICM), today's Federation Internationale de Motocyclisme (FIM). At the same time the predecessor of motor racing's FIA (Federation Internationale de l'Automobile), the Association Internationale des Automobile Clubs Reconnus, was co-ordinating automobiles clubs. In 1929 its first president, Baron de Zulyen, recalled the original historical links of motorsport to vehicle marketing.

“The automobile clubs launched a new industry. The best way of interesting the public was through racing. After each race the enthusiasm of the crowd was enormous and this enthusiasm was translated into millions of orders so that money poured into the coffers of the factories that built these wonderful machines, creating an irreversible movement towards the motor car. The birth of our association therefore worked like a large advertisement campaign.”
(FIA, 2004, page 8)

In 1949 a unified series of individual international races leading to the crowning of one Champion was organised for the first time with the first ever GP World Championship event for motorcycles (Le Santo, 2004). The FIM Road Racing World Championship GP series, now called MotoGP (Sport Network, 2004), just pre-dated the four-wheeled F1 World Championship for Drivers which started in 1950 under the jurisdiction of the FIA (Federation Internationale de l'Automobile) (Atlas F1, 2004).

2.4.6 Post War economic recovery produces fierce marketing competition

Following the Second World War the motorcycle market changed radically. Italy, for example, was ruined with damaged rubble strewn roads. Lacking an efficient public transport system, bicycles were for short distances and cars were an “absolutely impossible dream” (Sarti, 2006). The motorcycle became essential to Italian mobility (Moto Guzzi, 2004) although for some it was seen as “too adventurous” (Sarti, 2006).

Lambretta and Vespa scooters (May, 2007, page 199) were created to provide economic transport for the working class. As most cars were beyond financial reach the tiny Fiat 500 “helped motorise post-war Italy” (Bremner, 2007).

Motorcycling in the 1940s and 1950s was, “regarded as a blue-collar sport” at a time when motor racing, “was dominated by the sons of rich fathers, or more mature drivers”. The latter could buy Ferraris and Maseratis whilst motorcyclists appeared to be, “more grounded” (Stewart, 2007, pages 53 – 54).

2.4.7 The implications of climate change

Car manufacturers have always been associated with motorsport and whilst individual brands have come and gone the perceived ability of motorsport to drive marketing communications and technological progress has been maintained. From the earliest days motorsport has promoted innovation and product reliability (Lane, 1998) and in the mid 20th century, motorsport was also used to develop different fuels and fuel technologies (Coxon, 2008).

Motorsport has always looked at ways of reducing fuel consumption within the equation that the further a vehicle travels on as little fuel as possible the bigger the competitive advantage. It is common sense also that the less fuel carried the lighter the vehicle and the better the competitiveness of the power to weight ratio.

The 21st century’s most pressing agenda for the manufacturers is to be seen to be addressing global warming associated with man-made CO₂ emissions. Personal transport, in the form of the passenger car, has particularly been singled out by politicians for CO₂ reduction.

Whilst some criticise motorsport’s personal contribution to CO₂ emissions in reality it is comparatively small. The total fuel used by a grid of F1 cars in practice, racing and testing over a season is said to be about the same as that used by 55 passenger cars over a year - based on 30mpg/12,000 miles per year average (Sayer & Taylor, 2007, page 18). Logic suggests that MotoGP’s contribution must be much less.

In 1992 FISA (the then motorsport division of the FIA) pressed the F1 constructors to pursue industry-relevant technologies (Spurring, 2007a). By definition this included a response to global warming. In 2006 the FIA was still pushing for research work to address, “the biggest single issue confronting the car industry worldwide”, the reduction of CO2 output (Moseley, 2006).

Sir Frank Williams stated that, “we have to deliver leaner, cleaner and more efficient engines, and we have to use greener fuels.....nothing drives research and development quicker than F1, which is why the major motor manufacturers stay with us. They want to fast-track this technology, they need to sell cars....You will never take away man’s innate desire for mobility, and if you accept that you have to accept that the car will be around for several more decades, at least” (Widdows, 2007).

Echoing such attitudes NASCAR was, “actively pursuing a switch to alternate fuels”. Which of the eight or nine versions that would be picked would be, “determined by the marketplace”, demonstrating that motor manufacturers would play a critical role in the choice (James, 2007).

Motorsport is addressing the technological agenda to counter CO2 emissions. In particular new fuels are being tested such as bio-ethanol and LPG whilst Honda has promoted its myearthdream.com environmental through F1. Hydrogen fuels, hybrid technology and electric propulsion units are all potential possibilities too.

KERS (Kinetic Energy Recovery System) will be mandatory in F1 in 2009. In motorcycle racing is concerned the environment had not been forgotten by the FIM in new regulations in which, “new CO2 emission lawswill also be an important factor” (FIM, 2007).

The need to address outside perceptions of motorsport is needed when it is described as, “the most wasteful, harmful, pointless leisure pursuit on the planet” (The Paddock, 2007d). Whilst the FIA countered this article the perception cannot be ignored.

2.5 Related motoring products marketed by association

Le Mans in 1906 boasted advertising banners, mostly for motor-related products, on the fencing (FIA, 2004, page 28) including tyre manufacturers such as Michelin, Dunlop and Continental which were competing against each other (Hilton, 2005, page 17).

Meanwhile, the oil company Castrol began their extensive motor racing sponsorship in 1908 which continues to the present day. (Waite, 1979).

By 1930 Scuderia Ferrari had been established. The team was partly funded by Alfa Romeo, Pirelli, Bosch and Shell making use of trade sponsorship.

“Ferrari did not invent trade sponsorship..... from such pioneering agreements sprang a wider form of patronage, spreading its reach far beyond the manufacturers of automobile components to embrace multinational companies whose business had nothing to do with cars but who realised the dividend to be achieved from an association with the winners in a glamorous sport with a worldwide audience” (Williams, 2002, page 45).

By the start of the F1 World Championship in 1950, the firms then involved in sponsorship were still entirely connected with the motor industry but their physical presence was almost totally absent from the cars.

Edwards (2005, pages 68 – 69) described the oil companies of the time as having an economic grip on the sport, even if it wasn't as great as the tobacco companies would do. They paid retainers to drivers and, “lost no time in trumpeting success in the press”. Juan Fangio was sponsored with free lubricants by the oil company Lubra in 1949 and his team displayed the name on trucks, clothing and caps. A bonus would be paid to the team for a win (Donaldson, 2003, page 82).

Shell and Pirelli backed Ferrari and Maserati (Walker, 1995) whilst makers of spark plugs, brake linings, shock absorbers and electrical components were also present with some offering bonuses for wins and places. Ferrari was keen to win races in return for, "valuable bonuses from commercial suppliers". Alberto Ascari earned himself and Ferrari, cash from oil, fuel, spark plug, bearings, damper and tyre manufacturers, in addition to starting fees and prize money from the race promoters (Nye, 1994).

Bruce McLaren denied that the 1960s were becoming more commercial. "Today", he said, "we see the tyre companies in, but the fuel companies were financing in a big way then and so were the motor manufacturers". (Manso, 1970). Esso withdrew from F1 sponsorship in 1968 as they were, "unhappy that tyre manufacturers were being given more importance as sponsors". Fearing that other sponsors would follow suit the Commission Sportive Internationale finally lifted their restrictions on commercial sponsorship (Hilton, 2005, page 285).

By the mid-Sixties sponsors wanted their names recognised on the cars. BBC TV decreed that stickers must be limited to 55 square inches in televised races because of its lack of an advertising policy. This size of sticker could not be seen by the TV cameras thereby helping the BBC to maintain its non-advertising position (Walker, 1995). Following a change of senior management at the BBC, the attitude towards sponsorship was relaxed and, larger on-car advertisements were permitted.

2.5.1 Technology advances force change

The Motorcycle World Championship lost several existing manufacturers for 1958 as they abandoned racing for core commercial interests. Moto Guzzi was using a wind tunnel for design and costs were escalating (Le Santo, 2004).

By the 1960s the car was no longer a luxury item and was becoming more accessible to ordinary people worldwide. European motorcycle manufacturers were affected most with their outdated designs, manufacturing processes and management attitudes which the Japanese would exploit in the showroom and on the track.

2.5.2 Professionalism and personalities reinvigorate motorcycle racing

By 1977 bike racing's popularity was in decline. Luckily, Barry Sheene rekindled the sport's popularity and European spectators attendances rose, racing improved and overseas competitors were attracted in. They brought new levels of professionalism, and increased money to the sport.

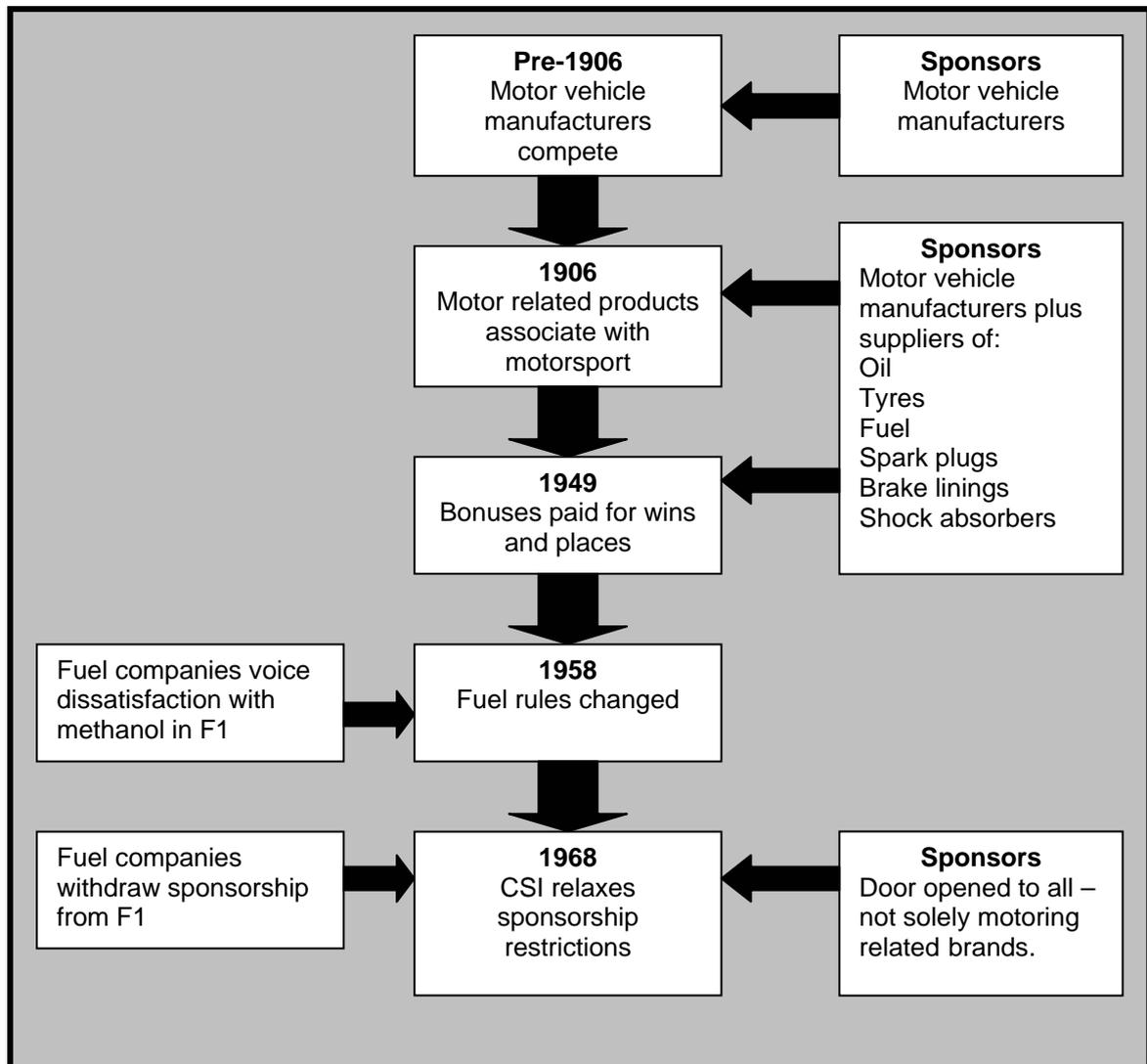
By the 1980s the manufacturers again used the GP series for marketing. Race-replicas were created, with road bikes using the styling and technology of GP machines. MotoGP was now a multinational business (Le Santo, 2004).

In the 1980s Aprilia bucked the trend towards Japanese bikes in Europe when it decided to extend its motorcycle racing activities. The company's image was enhanced at international level, provided an opportunity to verify innovations, stimulated technological updating and created an opportunity for training technical personnel (Aprilia, 2004).

The events that influenced the sponsorship of European motorsport are illustrated graphically in Figure 2.2.

Fig. 2.2

Evolution of sponsorship in European motor racing



2.6 Power of association attracts brands from outside motoring related industries

2.6.1 Tourism-related sponsorship

Tourism and motorsport events have been closely linked since the start of the 20th century. However, it is only comparatively recently academic interest in sport tourism has developed (Gammon & Robinson, 1997; Delpy, 1998; Gibson, 1998a, 1998b; Standeven & De Knop, 1999).

Studies have concentrated on the economic effects of individual sports on host regions in terms of income generation and tourism potential (Turco, 1998; Sofield and Sivan, 1994) and expenditure (UK Sport, 1998a & 1998b; UK Sport, 1999). A clear economic benefit is established from both spectators and competitors. As Gibson suggests, there are three major types of sport tourism: nostalgia sport tourism, active sport tourism and event sport tourism (Gibson, 1998b), and motorsport may be seen as a sport where this model is appropriate.

As far back as 1902 the first automobile racing on British soil was, “part of a campaign to promote Bexhill-on-Sea as a fashionable new resort”. “The local hotels and boarding houses were packed with the curious who had come to witness the spectacle of motor cars racing at speeds in excess of 50mph when the speed limit of the day was a mere 12mph” (Bexhill-on-Sea, 2005).

The two longest running events for cars and bikes in the UK have both deliberately used the word “Tourist” in their titles. Both, which are still running, originated in the Isle of Man and are the RAC Tourist Trophy for cars (1905) and the famous Isle of Man TT (Tourist Trophy) for motorcycles which commenced in 1907. The latter is still a major element of the Manx Tourism offer being co-ordinated by the Isle of Man’s Department of Tourism and Leisure (DTL).

The town of Le Mans sponsored the 1906 Le Mans GP (FIA, 2004, page 31) because it recognised the tourism benefits of such an association:

“Special trains from all over the continent and many private cars conveyed hordes of enthusiasts to the area. Le Mans was en fete for days before the midweek race. Hotels and inns were booked solid for sixty miles around..” (F1 Racing, 2006c).

Similarly, the Monte Carlo Rally of 1911 was devised as a rival attraction to Nice carnival in the hope of attracting wealthy car owners who might stay for the winter in a beneficial climate (FIA, 2004, page 35). In northern France the town of Dieppe “had bid the ACF quite a few thousand pounds to hold the GP there as they hoped for and got quite a flock of visitors for four or five days”. The town’s hotels were full and the casino and cafes well frequented (Darling, 2006). Such events had, and still have, an economic impact on their host cities by generating employment opportunities and fan spending (McDaniel & Mason, 1999).

By 2006 the costs of hosting a F1 event had become so high that governments of host countries were willing to pay in order to advertise their nation for prestige and tourism benefits (F1 News, 2006d). Sylt (2007) revealed that street-circuits are excellent for tourism related motorsports events because, “they focus viewers’ eyes on the host city and its monuments, making it an ideal magnet for tourism”. An example is the Malaysian Government’s support of Singapore, which wanted a F1 race to promote itself as “Asia’s party town” and to “strengthen its allure and promote its metamorphosis into the gambling capital of South East Asia” (Youson, 2006). Indeed the Malaysian Prime Minister confirmed that F1, “has always been a key tool for the government in enhancing the country's image and in the promotion of Malaysia as a leading international tourist destination” (Badawi, 2007). In Singapore the Tourism Board, Land Transport Authority and the Singapore Sports Council worked closely with the race promoter. The CEO of Singapore’s Tourist Board, Lim Neo Chian, predicted that, “The event will give a strong boost to our tourism sector”, he said, “such as hotel, food & beverage, retail, entertainment and even private wealth management companies benefiting from it” (Sport Business, 2007).

2.6.2 The arrival of tobacco sponsorship

During the 1970s F1 attracted much larger finances, particularly from the tobacco companies, "who realised that investment in sport offered a viable and effective means of recouping coverage they were increasingly debarred from achieving through conventional television advertising" (Henry, 1991). Following the ban on advertising cigarettes on British television, Lotus creator Colin Chapman is often championed as pioneering the association between F1 and tobacco in 1968 when the Commission Sportive Internationale lifted their commercial sponsorship and advertising restrictions (Hilton, 2005, page 285). In practice the Rhodesian Cigarette Company Gunston arrived in F1 first at the South African Grand Prix of 1968 with their distinctive livery for the cars of John Love and Sam Tingle.

A race later Chapman paired Imperial tobacco's Gold Leaf brand with Team Lotus which would later evolve into the John Player Special promotion, "which is still associated in many people's minds with the sport some years after it came to an end" (Henry, 1991).

Chapman was seen as having secured F1's first major "outside" sponsor, with the deal dependent upon the cars carrying branding (FIA, 2004, page 127). This landmark in sports sponsorship demonstrated, "the recognition by commercial organizations that at the international level the spectacle of a GP was of enormous public interest which led to the further awareness that the sport could be used for promotional and advertising purposes" (Foxall & Johnston, 1991). Chapman had also started, "the boom which led to the current trend in motor racing sponsorship. He had attracted an outside sponsor..." (Morrison, 1989).

The Gold Leaf Team Lotus sponsorship removed the tradition of racing cars running in national colours. Purists were appalled but in the USA brandstand cars such as the "American Red Ball Special" and the "STP Gas Treatment Special", had been the norm (Howard, 1992). Soon Yardley (the perfumery division of British American Tobacco) sought a more "up-beat image" with BRM and McLaren. In 1974 Yardley was replaced at McLaren by Marlboro cigarettes, a Philip Morris brand in a deal

which endured for twenty-three years (Howard, 1992). Marlboro had actually started their F1 sponsorship in 1972 with Marlboro BRM (Hilton, 2005, page 313).

Marlboro was credited with being the first sponsor to recognise the importance of publicity – or making people aware of (leveraging) their sponsorship. In 1972 in addition to their backing of BRM they allocated additional funds for “marketing projects”. As a result brand recall was much greater than competitors spending larger amounts on advertising. Sponsorship was generating more column inches, which meant more public awareness and more outside interest (Turner, 2005, page 125).

Marlboro would later trial “alibi branding” in the WRC, MotoGP and F1 with a subliminal colour scheme. The technique, which is also known as trademark diversification, consisted of a red barcode which research had shown created a stronger association with the Marlboro brand than simply the plain white chevron previously used (F1 Racing, 2005h).

Marlboro was not alone. In North America Players changed their branding arrangement following the Canadian Federal Tobacco Act and the Quebec Tobacco Act 2003. Physicians for a Smoke-Free Canada (2004) accused Players of using colour schemes to, “evoke the Player’s cigarette brand even though such evocative designs and associations are explicitly banned”.

The wish to maintain F1’s link with tobacco promotion was illustrated by Bernie Ecclestone’s admission with regard to the future F1 calendar:

“There’s been this big push to keep races in which we can run with tobacco branding. According to the law in Italy, for example, we can run branded there – so it means that we keep two races. Same in Germany. So we’ve got races that maybe we wouldn’t have had otherwise” (Roebuck, 2006a)

The EU Health Commissioner, Markos Kyprianou, was concerned that F1 in 2007 in Bahrain, China and Monaco still permitted cigarette branding which he regarded as

undermining EU legislation when the races were viewed on television. He lobbied Ferrari, the FIA and governments, for Ferrari to disassociate itself from “a killing habit”. He saw F1 drivers as role models and celebrity endorsers of products for young people and that the association with tobacco was sending out “the wrong message” (The Paddock, 2007b).

2.6.2.1 The misnomer of the Gold Leaf Team Lotus brandstanding

Numerous researchers and writers have repeatedly stated that the founder of Lotus, Colin Chapman, “first introduced major commercial sponsorship to F1” (Answers.com, 2007) and that Gold Leaf was, “the first commercial Formula 1 sponsor” (GrandPrix.com, 2007a). This is commonly interpreted, particularly in Europe, as the start of the sponsorship of motorsport in general. Even Henry *et al* (2007, page 7) infer a similar suggestion. In practice motorsport sponsorship of teams in Europe had previously been limited to vehicle manufacturers and a small number of supplier companies. The Gold Leaf tobacco brand started a long association between F1 and tobacco money (h2g2, 2007) and the uniqueness of the arrangement was that the product being promoted had no obvious synergy with the sport itself. Such outside commercial sponsorship were common in the USA (Grandprix.com, 2007b). Additionally, Rhodesian Gunston cigarettes had arrived in F1 a race before Gold Leaf but the sponsorship was on a relatively small scale. As Hopkinson (2007) states Colin Chapman had indeed been responsible for bringing large scale outside commercial sponsorship into F1 (Hopkinson, 2007).

This differentiation between sponsorship types is important as sponsorship, in the form of manufacturer and motor industry support, had actually been present since the very start of motor sport. It is a common misnomer that in 1968 Imperial Tobacco was the first European motorsport sponsor with comments including “sponsorship had arrived” and “Lotus sets the ball rolling in F1 sponsorship with their Gold Leaf livery” (Jones, 2006); “Formula 1 took on a new look [in 1968] with the arrival of sponsorship” (Collings & Edworthy, 2002); “The age of sponsorship in F1 had arrived” (Hill, 2001) and “commercial sponsorship hit F1 in 1968” as well as “Advertising Enters F1” (Hughes, 2006, page 42).

Whilst Colin Chapman did indeed introduce a massive change to the outward appearance of racing cars the concept of “brandstanding” was already established. In 1923 Raymond Mays had commenced what was to become a fifty-year motorsport association with the Mumm Champagne brands of Cordon Bleu and Rouge. He named his pair of Brescia Bugattis after the two brands in order to raise the finance to compete in the then high profile British Hillclimb Championship. This has separately been regarded as “the first motor racing sponsorship“(Grandprix.com, 2006) and as, “one of the first-ever motorsport sponsorship deals” (Wheatcroft, 2005, page 125). “It was one of the earliest sponsorship deals in British motor racing circles at a time when the sport was almost entirely for wealthy amateurs” (Motorsnippets, 2006).

The “Eldorado Ice Cream Special” was driven by Stirling Moss in 1958 at Monza (Edwards, 2005, page 127). In 1960 one of Britain's leading hire-purchase finance companies, Yeoman Credit Ltd., funded the British Racing Partnership (BRP) in F1 by creating the Yeoman Credit Racing Team. In 1961 BRP courted United Dominions Trust, which owned Laystall engineering, and UDT-Laystall Racing became a regular competitor. The association of, in these cases foodstuffs, finance and engineering brands, with teams had therefore been established.

2.6.3 Commercial sponsors become commonplace

The relaxation of the television restrictions on advertising on F1 cars was swiftly seized upon by Swiss businessman Jo Siffert of whom, "everyone in Switzerland wanted to have a part of their national hero." In a classic example of celebrity endorsement the first sponsors in this new regime were therefore Hart Ski and subsequently Biostrath - a herbal tonic (Walker, 1995).

By 1968 Jackie Stewart had been dubbed, “the first professional and commercially orientated racing driver”, when he involved Mark McCormack’s International Management Group (IMG) in handling his commercial activities (Stewart, 2007, page 228). In 1971 motor racing was recognised as the major sport receiving sponsorship money, as shown in Table 2.1, But this may really show that motor racing is a much more costly sport to sponsor than, for example, horse racing (Waite, 1979).

Table: 2.1

SPONSORSHIP EXPENDITURE RECEIVED BY SPORTS DURING 1971

Sport as percentage of total sponsorship (%)

Sport	Percentage
Motor Racing	30%
Horse Racing	10%
Golf	10%
Football	5%
Cricket	5%
Tennis	5%
Others	35%

(Source: Mintel as published in Waite
1979)

At the beginning of the 1980s Williams GP Engineering avoided tobacco sponsorship by courting a number of Saudi Arabian sponsors including Saudia - the national airline (Henry, 1991). Such was the perceived attraction of motor racing that by 1987 some 60 new sponsors had come into F1 in Britain since restrictions on motor racing sponsorship had been lifted in 1968 (Edwards,1987).

Barry Sheene is credited with almost single-handedly bringing new types of sponsors to motor cycle racing which, “had previously only entertained the executives of oil companies and spark plug and tyre manufacturers” (Parrish & Harris, page 45). Sponsors from outside motorcycling including tobacco companies in the form pf Marlboro and Lucky Strike complemented the motorcycle manufacturers. French state-owned oil company Elf, Pepsi, Rothmans and the Faberge brands were all present too.

2.7 Television coverage attracts wider motorsport audience

“If Colin Chapman of Lotus was the first to bring outside sponsorship to GP racing, Bernie Ecclestone was the person who saw the commercial possibilities within F1” (FIA, 2004, page 153).

In the first 25 years of the F1 World Championship television coverage was haphazard. In the mid-70s the BBC had avoided F1 television coverage because of tobacco sponsorship and it would take a national hero, in the form of James Hunt's successful 1976 world championship charge, to get them to return (Cooper, 1996). Only in 1978 did the BBC cover every F1 race of the season, and not all of them were live (Hilton, 2005, page 447). It would be several years before all F1 races were covered live.

Until the 1970s the wider British had been disinterested in motorsport. In the print media *The Daily Express* and subsequently *The Daily Mirror* started to take an interest in 1973. Turner (2005, page 124) pointed out the irony that the sport had had to become commercialised before the press became involved rather than today's relationship, “in which high-profile media attention attracts sponsors”.

Back in the mid 1970s Bernie Ecclestone, then Brabham F1 team owner, became frustrated at the way the sport operated. He found an ally in Max Mosley, a founder of the March F1 team, and the concept of the F1 Constructor's Association (FOCA) emerged. This organisation brought unity to the constructors by coordinating circuits, television rights and prize money (Dodgins, 1996).

Mosley, a lawyer who was now working on behalf FOCA, eventually wrote the Concorde Agreement which allowed the FIA to retain control of the sport whilst the commercial element was handed over to a company run by Ecclestone. The sport's television audiences increased during the 1980s and the television income grew (Motorsport News, 2005b).

Ecclestone gradually bought up the TV rights to races from race organisers and he subsequently set up his own production company FOCA TV. By 1985 FOCA TV was broadcasting F1 to more than ninety countries through the European Broadcasting Union (EBU). The EBU then set the fees chargeable to public-service broadcasters (Turner, 2005, page 126). The relevance of the media to F1 was starkly emphasised when Flavio Briatore returned to the sport and said, "What I quickly realised was that F1 had become media- and television-dependent.." (Henry, 2003, page 145).

Having become Vice President of the FIA's promotional affairs in 1987, Ecclestone hired Christian Vogt, who had previously handled the TV rights for UEFA and FIFA in football and the IAAF in athletics. Vogt helped by-pass the EBU by dealing with the new privately owned commercial TV companies that were starting up in the mid 1980s. A new lucrative income stream had been found (Turner, 2005, page 126).

Ecclestone not only generated more money for the sport but he also doubled the amount of airtime received by F1, something that was well received by the sponsors. Qualifying and post-race analysis was now required of F1 coverage and in the end the public service broadcasters themselves by-passed the EBU to deal directly with FOCA TV (Turner, 2005, page 127).

By the 1990s the complex network of constructor organisations, sponsors and manufacturers was pursuing several objectives, "the primary one of which is winning races and transferring promotional benefits to sponsors. The use of the track as a test bed for technical innovation has remained important but is secondary" (Foxall & Johnston, 1991).

By 1997, two hundred and two countries were viewing F1 races giving a total viewing figure of fifty-four billion.

"Like some of Einstein's equations, and the speed of light, it's slightly staggering and very difficult to grasp. More simply advertising in GP racing reached this colossal audience....and advertisers liked that, and the money came in, and the money kept coming in" (Hilton, 2005, page 447).

By the 21st century F1 contained many of the world’s major motor manufacturers. Increasingly their influence manifested itself as a requirement by the teams for access to more of the sport’s television income. The teams and manufacturers received 47% of the TV income whereas Ecclestone’s companies 53%. In 2001 one of Ecclestone’s companies paid the FIA \$313.6 million (about £180m) to extend its control of F1’s commercial rights for another one hundred years. The FIA, now having Max Mosley as its President, became solely a regulator (Roberts, 2005a).

The concept of night races for F1 in the Far East came about to be able to televise them at a time more viewer-friendly for the television audience in Europe. One of the reassurances required was that sponsor logos and colours would still be seen (Autosport, 2007c).

The stark reality of F1, and similarly to MotoGP, is reflected in the following quotation:

“At the end of the day, F1 is built around the TV audience, and it could be argued that it matters little to the casual viewer where a race is held” (Cooper, 2004).

Bernie Ecclestone is well aware of this and he is looking at, “dramatic new broadcasting technology” for F1 which is regarded as “the definitive TV sport”. It is suggested that F1 lends itself to interactive choice. Imagine, says Windsor (2005), “F1’s first Chinese driver starting his debut race, followed by an armchaired Chinese TV audience from the debrief to chequered flag via data analysis, interviews and lighter moments – all in the driver’s language”.

2.7.1 GPWC and GPMA

In a demonstration of their power the major motor manufacturers involved in F1 (BMW, Daimler Chrysler, Ferrari Maserati Group, Renault) formed an alliance in 2001 that threatened the future of F1 as it stood. The GP Manufacturers Association (GPMA), as they were to be known, wanted a fairer distribution of the revenue

generated by the sport. They proposed a new championship, GPWC, which was seen to be major potential rival to F1. Under this banner they entered into negotiations with the commercial rights holder of F1 (SLEC Holdings Ltd) about the future structure of the sport, focusing on four core objectives:

1. To ensure a long-term stable platform for the sport
2. To significantly improve the economic benefits for all participating teams
3. To reach the broadest possible global audience
4. To operate transparently

Following extensive benchmarking of the world's major sport and motorsport events, a group of global experts from sports marketing, motorsport, business and entertainment was brought together with the single goal to create this, “new pinnacle of motorsports. The project team were preparing the ground for a GP racing series that will maintain the strengths of F1, while eliminating its weaknesses. Accordingly, it was stated, the New Series would be built around the interests of the sport's key stakeholders - the public, the teams, circuit owners and other core partners” (GPWMC, 2004).

Eventually the GPWC concept fizzled out as first Ferrari and then the other manufacturers aligned themselves with the existing F1 World Championship when they mutually agreed the sporting regulations destined to be introduced in 2008. The status quo has been maintained.

2.7.2 MotoGP, IRTA and Dorna

“Racing [of motorbikes] at GP level is now a science and racers are the front-line laboratory troops.....nowadays racing is a cold and precise science – a giant, globally televised physics experiment”

(Oxley, 2005, page 22).

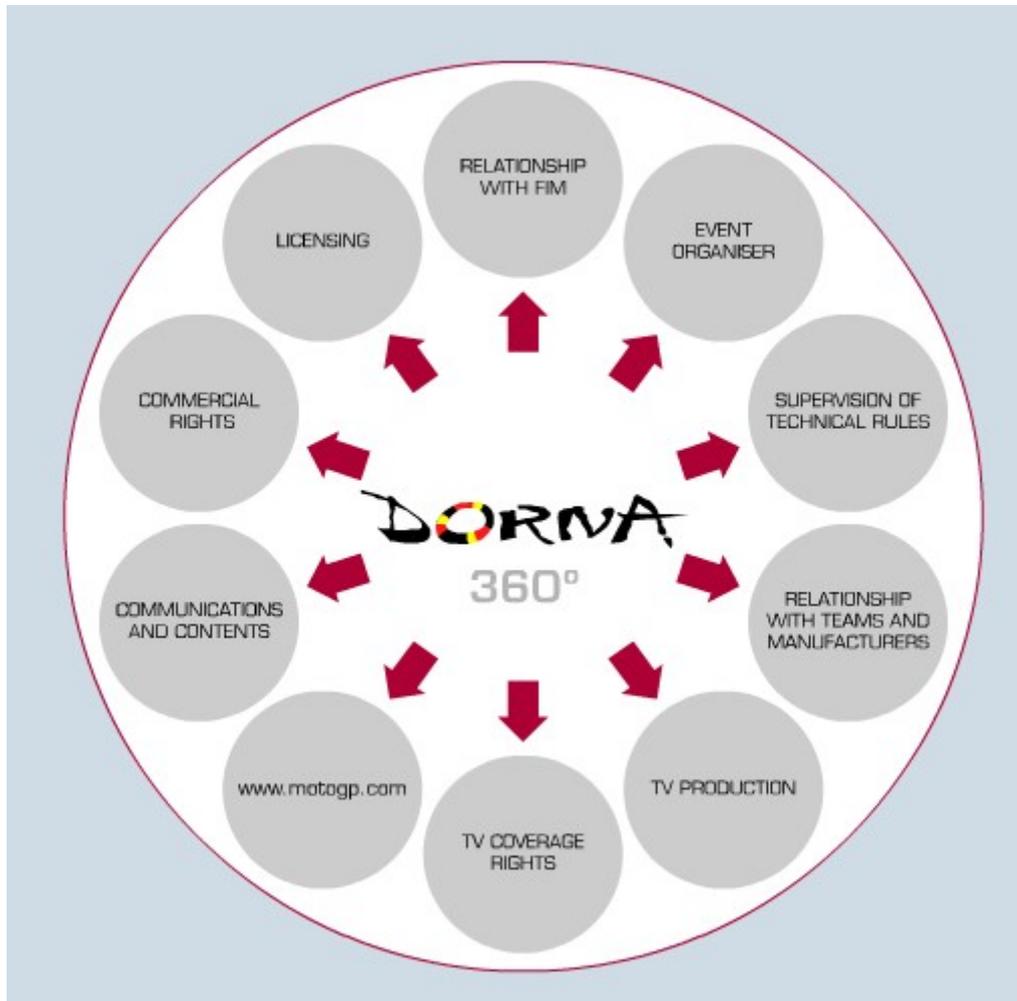
The era of MotoGP was similarly described by Valentino Rossi as being more technology driven than previously thus requiring more finance (Rossi, 2005, page 258).

Where MotoGP is concerned Spanish sports management and marketing company Dorna Sports had become the exclusive commercial and TV rights holder in 1992. This situation had taken ten years to evolve. Back in 1982 the riders in the 500cc motorcycle world championship series had staged a strike at Nogaro - they were concerned about their safety, circuit facilities and payment. Mike Trimby was to work with Franco Uncini and Kenny Roberts to address the situation and as factory teams increasingly competed in the series there was concern about TV coverage and professionalism such as paddock presentation. The International Racing Teams Association (IRTA) was formed and eventually TV coverage was taken back from organisers by the FIM. Bernie Ecclestone had been asked to market the TV coverage which had displeased IRTA which it decided would organise its own championship. An Ecclestone-inspired compromise was found that kept all parties happy and eventually he sold his share of the operation to Dorna which was granted the TV rights in 1992 (Trimby, 2007).

MotoGp, which spawned out of the previous 500cc FIM championship in 2002, is run by the GP Commission, made up of the manufacturers, teams, the FIM and commercial rights holder Dorna. Dorna prides itself on not only negotiating the TV rights for MotoGP but also on producing the TV coverage including live feeds, post-produced programmes, tailor-made signals, on-board technology, timing systems, data processing and graphics for live broadcasts. It additionally provides advertising exposure, promotional and corporate activities, merchandising, commercial rights, corporate hospitality, intranets, webcasts, on-line results and video streaming for MotoGP events. The official MotoGP is their responsibility too (Dorna, 2005). It in effect provides the total media (including new media) requirements of sponsors (Figure 2.3).

Fig. 2.3

DORNA



In the mid 1990s the strategic usage of web sites, such as that offered by Dorna, had been perceived to be a better alternative than digital TV for potential car buyers too. They were able to interact without physically visiting a showroom, as a presence could be created cheaply and obtain quantifiable evidence of the raising of a brand image profile (Dransfeld *et al*, 1999). Web sites in themselves add a high-tech image to a brand, but increasingly not only offer interactive comparisons between prices, performance and features but also between brands. One of the great benefits to the consumer was the opportunity to compare cars (Eisenstein, 1996) but for the

individual manufacturer there was a loss of control of the message on comparison sites.

Increasingly the Internet has been perceived as an important way to communicate with an audience that is seen to be predisposed towards technology. NASCAR's web site, *www.nascar.com*, which hosts replays, race reports, information and an online store is said to be much more interactive than F1's site *www.formula1.com* illustrating, “how poorly integrated F1 marketing is” (F1 Racing, 2005m).

2.7.3 The Implications of television for F1

“We [WRC] will get approximately 700 million viewers during the course of the year on scheduled programming. If you compare our figures, the only other motorsports that exceed it are F1 and MotoGP – which isn't very far ahead at the moment” David Richards (Source: Richard Rogers, 2006a).

In addressing the importance of television coverage to the World Rally Championship (WRC) the promoter and principal of International Sportsworld Communications (ISC), David Richards, a former principal of F1's British American Racing, identified F1 and MotoGP as the motorsport leaders in delivering a television audience. This is of no surprise and the potential for their close co-operation becomes clearer. F1 under the stewardship of Bernie Ecclestone has been keenly aware of the implications of television to motorsport.

In October 1977 Bernie Ecclestone described television as “the big key” to F1's future (Turner, 2005, page 126). The development of the commercialism of motor racing was to become inextricably linked to developments in television broadcasting.

TV coverage of motor racing might appear to be a recent development but the BBC first televised "Roadracing", in the form of the Imperial Trophy from Crystal Palace in 1937 - only a year after the first regular BBC television service had commenced. Silverstone hosted both the first post-war GP to be shown on television - which was a film of the 1949 British GP transmitted in 1950 and the first live TV coverage of a GP

by the BBC in 1953. The first GP to be televised in colour was the at Silverstone in 1971 (Passingham, 1984). The first broadcast of motor cycle sport was by the BBC in September 1947 from Brands Hatch (Parker, 2008).

Max Mosley (1996) admitted that, "...we run it [F1] for 500 million people watching on the TV", thereby revealing the importance of television audiences to the sport's governing body. Indeed Eastoe (1994) said that increasing F1 costs, "would be compensated by increased television revenue" (Daily Telegraph, 1996). These references illustrate just how essential television is to F1, a fact which was also confirmed by Flavio Briatore who said that, "the success of it all [F1] is down to television" (Parsons, 1996b)

Where F1 is concerned the link between television and sponsorship growth has come through the combination of satellite television and the increasing domination of "worldwide mega-brands" such as Sony, Disney, Coke, Nike, Marlboro and Benetton with their huge budgets (David Thomas, 1995). Also, if you were a cigarette company and you were banned from advertising on television and you needed to reinvigorate a brand, "then there's a lot to be said for paying an enormous amount of money to put your colours all over a top GP team's cars, trucks, driver overalls and mechanics' uniforms"(David Thomas, 1995).

By 1983 graphic designers such as Peter Stevens were advising F1 teams on the presentation of their cars and teams with the television audience firmly in mind. At that time most people watched F1 on black-and-white television sets. Colour schemes were researched which did not "wash out" when viewed in monochrome. It was found that Renault had already researched and chosen their predominantly yellow and black colour scheme because it showed up best on TV – it was apparently nothing to do with the company's corporate colours. Before long driver's overalls, team personnel, trucks and equipment were carrying the corporate style along the lines of what had been commonplace in auto racing in the United States (Heseltine, 2005). Indeed team colours continue to be important until the present day. When McLaren, Williams and BAR were competing for Royal Bank of Scotland's sponsorship in the mid 2000s RBS were not looking purely for race success. Their specific goal was "maximum recognition of the RBS logo", the corporate colours being white on a blue

background. McLaren missed out because they wanted the RBS logo to be black on a silver background and after "advanced definition tests" Williams was picked (Stewart, 2007, pages 522 – 523). When ING were looking for the appropriate team to sponsor they went to Renault F1 because the attitude there was, "*let's design the car [its livery] together*". Of the two other teams approached, and subsequently rejected, Ferrari had wanted to retain their red colours and again like the situation with RBS McLaren had wanted ING's logo to be black on silver (Urquhart, 2007).

2.7.4 Justification

"The primary goal for any manufacturer is what value the TV delivers..." David Richards.

(Source, Rodgers, 2006)

Where "world-wide mega-brands" are concerned the fibres division of ICI were "extremely gratified" when they costed the effectiveness for them of F1 television exposure. For an outlay of their £2.5 million in sponsorship they could only have purchased about a minute and a half of television advertising. "On the same basis", they calculated, "a good season of F1 would have cost a staggering £32,400 million to translate into regular television advertising"(Henry, 1991, page 96).

Howard (1992) said that a "victorious" team's sponsorship could pay off in television time at a single GP. He used the example of duels such as those between Ayrton Senna, Alain Prost and Nigel Mansell which would have cost £75,000 in Britain alone. Compared, he said, "to paying \$1 million a minute for a coast-to-coast television commercial in the USA, an investment in F1 can look very good value".

Eastoe (1994) hypothesized that television's role in creating a global motorsport industry had actually arrived in the late 60s and early 70s when improved coverage brought, "the excitement and danger of competition into people's homes." This created a 'phenomenal worldwide interest in motorsport' and when this was combined with the successful promotion by racing authorities such as FOCA it had, "become a media opportunity producing a massive international audience for sponsors."

Eastoe quoted 1993 television figures from FOCA which calculated that F1 had been shown in more than 100 countries, with a total audience of approximately 7 billion, at an average of 440m a race. It was these figures, he said, "that drive the industry as much as the performance figures of the cars themselves." The growth in motorsport interest is interesting when one compares these figures with a 1983 survey of 41 countries which revealed that television viewing figures for motorsport then had topped "935 million viewer hours during 635 hours of broadcasting worldwide" (Edwards, 1987).

To the pleasure of sponsors, by 2006 nearly 10% of the world's population were watching F1 on television according to FOM's Global Broadcast Report. The audience was made up of 588 million unique viewers in 185 territories making F1, "the top-rated annual global sporting series" (F1 Racing, 2007a).

2.7.5 The importance of winning

"In F1 winning is everything"

(Dransfeld *et al*, 1999)

Reference has already been made to the increased television coverage achieved by "victorious" F1 teams "(Henry, 1991, page 96). Keith Wiggins said that it was difficult to generate media coverage when operating, "a new, small and under funded organisation, and that lack of [television] coverage has a direct impact on the ability of the team to attract further commercial sponsorship" (Benson, 1995d). He emphasised that F1 was, "structured specifically to reward success," and he accepted that sponsorship money would go to the teams running at the front because, "what they are effectively buying is TV time, and directors tend to keep cameras pointed at the serious contenders" (Roebuck, 1995e). Verity (2002, page 163) confirmed such sentiments by saying that, "In Formula 1, the skill lies in sponsoring a successful and popular team and in ensuring that the brand identity is placed in visible, on-camera positions".

Eddie Jordan made the point that, "results are everything" (Jordan, 2007, page261) and Dodgins (1995a) said that sponsorship money would only go where there can be seen to be, "the likelihood of a worthwhile return." With the right combination - "you can more or less guarantee that you will run around in front of the world's TV cameras for ninety minutes every other Sunday afternoon." The smaller teams, he said, would only be spotted when being lapped! In turn Renault's chief executive, Carlos Ghosn, is said to regard F1 as a worthwhile investment, but only if the company is winning (Rawlinson, 2005c) whilst the Arrows (1999) F1 Team found that in 1997 the share of the year's television coverage bore a close resemblance to the end-of-season constructors' points. Team television coverage, it was found, was largely dictated by grid and track position. Hilton (2005, page 313) addressed a simple philosophy of motorsport sponsorship by stating that, "the more successful a team became the more attractive they were to major sponsors, and the money from that bought the best people and the best equipment, which brought more success, which brought more sponsorship".

Patrick Faure (2005) said, "our [Renault Group] chief executive Carlos Ghosn has always said about F1 that when you are winning it is an investment and when you are losing it is an expense" whilst engine chief Rob White (2005) also said that, "...it's much easier to justify an expensive activity when it's successful". When Renault and Alonso won the World Championship in 2006 Ghosn emphatically revealed the perceived benefit of winning when he said, "It is an important victory because it justifies the investment Renault has made in F1 and will make in the future....For Renault, this is an investment – and an investment that that aids the growth of the Renault brand and Renault's products. This win brings a lot and it's our job to transform that into a sales victory" (Autosport, 2006c). Mario Thiessen, Motorsport Director of BMW, alternatively said, "if you are not going to win then you get a bad press" (Holbrook, 2002, page 42).

Whilst Holbrook (2002) found that even if a competitor does finish on the podium a perception of, "being seen to be trying is conducive to a positive perception of the brand". Similarly an association with a prestigious championship is also seen to be positive. Alan Hodge (Holbrook, 2002, page 58) of Jaguar observed that,

"In sport you either win or get beaten – there is no honourable second place...It is our belief that whilst Jaguar may not yet be a front-runner in F1, this will only become a danger and create negative perceptions if there are no signs of progress. So long as the team is improving, the perception created will be one of a brand consistently evolving its product offering".

Tony Jardine predicted the eventual sale of Jaguar F1 team by Ford when he made the point that continued poor performances would not be tolerated long-term,

"...the current example is Jaguar who are under performing so badly its embarrassing...Ford will not tolerate much more of this. The poor performance will have a negative effect on the promotion of the product".

(Holbrook, 2002, page 43)

Hamilton (1994) said that where F1 teams are concerned, "awareness through television exposure forms the main plank of any approach to potential sponsors interested in promoting their trademarks." The television exposure, he hypothesized, "beat traditional advertising campaigns hands down. The sponsorship money spent on F1 is small beer by comparison." He went on to say that as far as the teams are concerned, "the quid pro quo is that the team must then carry that identification into range of the television and photo camera lenses." This, of course, means that to maximise the exposure effect the team must be competitive and at the head of the field.

Television audience figures have now firmly become a major means of attracting financial sponsorship to motorsport and are the main measurement by which not only the team's but also the sport's survival is gauged. Henry (1995b) discussed the "confidential" television-coverage figures issued by FOCA TV in 1995. He referred particularly to the "beleaguered" McLaren team, both of whose cars had failed to finish the Canadian GP. The figures revealed that Williams, Benetton and Ferrari had monopolised the total TV air-time with around 1.5 hours each whilst McLaren had only managed 16 minutes of coverage. His point was that McLaren's figures reflected

a lack of competitiveness. Benson (1995c) concurred suggesting that it was not difficult to see from these figures a possible reason for the conclusion of Marlboro's sponsorship of McLaren after 23 years.

Dodgins (1995h) identified that in a commercial context Williams attracted approximately 50 times the coverage of Pacific and therefore if Williams was attempting to sell title sponsorship for, say, £20 million, "on a pro-rata basis, Pacific would be looking for £400,000 for the same space on its car."

Curiously Eddie Jordan revealed a different attitude to Barclay's sponsorship of his team in the early 1990s. It was pointed out to him by the tobacco company's Jimmi Rembiszewski that, "you get more publicity with your car on the crane or having a big accident. If you are going to win, only win very seldom because the fans will always love you" (Jordan, 2007, page 173). Richard Cole (F1, Racing, 2008) found that home races and big incidents produce more television exposure for teams as does on-board footage.

Conversely, losing is a potential problem for sponsors. Dransfeld, *et al* (1999) said that, "brand image can suffer if a manufacturer repeatedly fails to do well, especially if that failure is perceived as being due to the car rather than the driver or the race team".

2.7.6 Television's influence on F1 venues

It has been suggested that the more modern racing circuits are preferred by the sponsors, teams and organisers of F1 because they enhance television coverage. Trends in circuit design have been towards shorter, slower tracks that are not only safer but also more suitable for the TV coverage. Slow circuits are allegedly liked because they help the cameras to pick up advertisers' names and logos more effectively and for longer (Roebuck, 1995f and 1995g). Tremayne (2006) added that the demise of long circuits in the 1970s, such as the original Spa-Francorchamps and Nurburgring, to be replaced by "sanitised little tracks" would make it, "easier to televise races as slow corners and chicanes predominated". In other ways television coverage influenced the organisation of motor racing events and specifically F1. In 1978, for example, sufficient medical helicopters were required to be positioned at

circuits so that races would not have to be stopped and television action interrupted, if one was in use (Stewart, 2007, page 173).

2.7.7 Television's influence on F1 race dates

In 1996 the \$45m FOCA Television facility was created to produce five separate feeds to satellite TV channels. It required seventeen 40ft lorries and it could not be moved between venues and then rebuilt if races were only one week apart. It was therefore expected that future F1 seasons would require at least a fortnight between events (F1 News, 1996a).

Plans for the first F1 race in Singapore in 2008 surrounded it being run after dark and under lights. This was to appeal to the European television audience and to allow it to be broadcast at a more convenient time. Night racing similarly made its debut in 2008 at the Qatar round of MotoGP.

2.7.8 The Digital or Interactive TV "Experiment"

“The very first interactive TV programme in Germany was a F1 race” (Dransfeld, et al, 1999)

The emergence of digital TV in the middle of the 1990s promised improved picture and sound quality and viewer-interaction. Dransfeld *et al* (1999) suggested that the new medium would help European vehicle manufacturers to find new ways to combat Japanese competition by providing the possibility of enhanced marketing, sales and distribution communications. The automobile industry of the time was, though, wary of the new technology (Bruzzo, 1997). They were perceived to be waiting for the medium to mature before committing. Dransfeld *et al* (1999) identified F1 as a potential digital TV medium for car manufacturers as motorsport appeared, “to be highly appropriate for future marketing using new media”.

For the 1996 German GP one hundred German households were the first able to access DF1’s digital service and to select a variety of camera angles of Michael Schumacher’s car (Klanowski, 1996). By July German TV station DSF/DF1 agreed to

a £50 million FOCA experiment to transmit digital F1 coverage on five pay-per-view channels in Germany, Switzerland and Austria. FOCA TV simultaneously supplied race (main feed), pit lane, replay (incident analysis channel), timing (data) and on-car pictures allowing viewers to select the camera angles they preferred. It was suggested that the poorer F1 teams would be delighted with the wider coverage and Harvey Postlethwaite of Tyrrell concurred by saying that, "more balanced TV coverage would induce sponsors to spend money further down the field" (F1 Racing, 1996a).

Canal Plus' Satellite Numerique service offered a similar service in March 1997 (F1 Live, 1996). Canal + was subsequently awarded a similar FOCA contract to broadcast the digital pay-per-view F1 "Supersignal" in more than 70 countries excepting Germany, Italy and the United Kingdom (Motoring News, 1996b). Canal + was to offer the service in 1997 to Latin America as well as Eastern and Western Europe (F1 Live, 1996). At the launch at the 1996 German GP Bernie Ecclestone hinted that eventually all GP coverage might be pay-by-view. 700,000 subscribers were anticipated by the end of 1997 (Ecclestone, 1996).

Having reached agreement with DSF/DF1 and Canal+ it was rumoured that Ecclestone was negotiating in the UK with Sky Television (F1 News, 1996c). As Sky owned 49% of DF1 and planned to launch its own new UK digital service in October 1997 (Freeborn, 1996) it looked well placed. This was particularly emphasised by healthy BSkyB profits attributed to the popularity of boxing on pay-per-view, which it had offered from the autumn of 1996. It was said that a big silent majority of the population wanted pay-per-view" (Daily Mail, 1996).

The importance of the pay-per-view facility was illustrated by Benetton boss Flavio Briatore who believed that the financial security of his team lay in just such a concept. "The business has changed dramatically over the past few years", he said, "but a lot of people in F1 have stayed in the past and you cannot do that. This is more than just a sport or technology now, it is the whole package - entertainment, lifestyle, glamour, everything. We have to go forward and that means things like pay-per-view. We have invested a lot of money in this sport and it is time we got some of it back" (Parsons, 1996b).

Ecclestone had invested £36 million of his own money in 1995 to establish the experiment, which eventually collapsed when insufficient viewers could be persuaded to pay to watch. In the UK the quality of the innovative broadcasts was regarded as poor and it was only offered for a single season (Turner, 2005, pages 131-132).

2.7.9 Virtual Billboards

A concept that has been researched is that of "virtual billboards" where television may digitally underlay an advertisement on television pictures, "while the athlete performs on and around it". The F1 possibility is that different advertisements might be the subject of underlays in different countries thereby tailoring the advertising message to particular audiences, cultures and nationalities. The opportunity to increase sponsorship income is seen as central to the system (Hawkey, 1995). It was publicly acknowledged as far back as 1996 that FOCA Television was experimenting with what it called "virtual advertising" (F1 News, 1996b).

2.7.10 Broadcast Sponsorship

"Broadcast sponsorship" is one of the newer sponsorship activities as the application is described as, "relatively cheap and can reach large audiences with the right deal" (Parker & Wilkins, 1995). A high profile example has been the Cadburys sponsorship of Coronation Street.

Broadcast or programme sponsorship has been referred to as "pseudo-advertising" with Meenaghan & Shipley (1999) referring to Croft Port's sponsorship of the Inspector Morse TV programme. They found little evidence that a multi-dimensional image had been created out of this "topping and tailing" of this broadcast.

TV "programme sponsorship" has not been utilised to its best advantage by advertisers. It is recognised that such "sponsor credits still don't have the sharp edge of spot ads" partly due to the, "disinterest on the part of creatives". One positive motorsport example was Texaco's sponsorship of the programme *Nigel Mansell's Indy Car* (Barratt, 1995). Broadcast sponsorship is perceived as advertising by the BBC so is against the Corporation's Charter.

2.7.11 A conflict of interest avoided

By the 1980s the popularity and commercialisation of motorsport was generating 80% of the income for the FIA. The huge television rights fees attracted the European Commission's interest with regard to the sport's regulator also being heavily involved commercially. As a result the FIA separated its interests in 2000, selling the commercial rights of F1 to Bernie Ecclestone's management company on a 100-year lease (FIA, 2004, page 10).

2.7.12 Mobile phones and digital rights

An omission from F1's last Concorde Agreement was the rights situation surrounding mobile video clips and timing data. When the agreement was drawn up such technology didn't exist. Income from global mobile phone sports clips in 2005 was approximately \$1.3 billion, with Europe accounting for sixty-nine per cent. The anticipated revenue stream, when Asia and the USA make use of the technology, was huge (F1 Racing, 2005j).

2.8 Global sponsors identify the power of association with motorsports

Williams' Steve Herrick maintains that with regard to sports sponsorship F1 is, "in a class of its own in terms of credibility as a global proposition." It is an international sport which is annual, world-wide and attracts on-going interest throughout the year (Henry, 1991). Sponsors are attracted due to its internationalisation which provides worldwide media coverage (Eastoe, 1994). Thomas (1995) said that, "there is simply no other sporting or cultural medium that can compete with that promise". The only sports promotions, "in the same league", said Herrick, "are the World Cup and the Olympic Games" but they both have their limitations. The World Cup only takes place once every four years and because it is not possible to guarantee which countries will compete in the final a sponsorship deal is not being offered but a billboard or perimeter board position offering short-term saturation coverage. The cost involved for being one of eight co-sponsors is similar to a F1 team's annual budget. An Olympic Games sponsor pays \$30 million and whilst they have marketing and promotion exclusivity, banners are excluded from stadiums so a sponsor has to spend extra to gain any benefit. The Olympics occur only once every four years and, "its effectiveness as a tool depends to a large extent on who is going to be taking part" (Henry, 1991).

At international athletics meetings promoters can never positively guarantee the quality of their field. A strong factor supporting F1 is that the competitors have to compete in all 16 races. Promoters and sponsors know that they will have a field of a certain size with all the established stars taking part (Henry, 1991).

Companies operating in the international marketplace may wish to involve themselves in a sports sponsorship that is global or multinational. F1 Global Partner Allianz became involved because they viewed the sport as "an unrivalled platform to really reach global brand awareness" (Deuringer, 2008). Events in several countries obtaining international television coverage are both local and global in their marketing opportunities. Both F1 and World Cup Skiing, for example, "offer the sponsors a series of locally-based events that can, sometimes, be used for audience contact and on-site promotions in addition to hospitality" (Sleight, 1989).

2.8.1. Team Budgets

Motorsport is an expensive sport. Being as technical as it is, on both four and two wheels, enormous research and development is required and travelling is expensive too. When motor racing started these expenses could be covered by wealthy competitors but increasingly the requirement for sponsorship to cover costs has increased.

A contemporary F1 team manager, "must have a keen awareness of GP racing's most precious commodity: money". At Williams the team spent at a rate of half a million pounds each week (Nicholson and Hamilton, 1995). That worked out at £26 million a year and a similar total figure is reached when it is suggested that an ideal F1 "dream team" budget, even when engines and tyres are provided free would be about £29 million (£36.5 million at 2005 RPI figures).

Such a figure is easily reached because the cars are high technology and manufacturing runs are very short. At the moment F1's regulations require competitors to manufacture - design and construct their cars from scratch so second hand sales are not permitted (Eastoe, 1994). When Super Aguri arrived, though, it did provide some debate as they appeared to be using a modified version of the previous season's Honda chassis.

F1 teams require highly skilled staff and modern surroundings and when these costs are added to the logistics cost of moving around the globe the sums add up. Bennett (1995) calculated that a serious top F1 team needed an annual budget of about £26m (\$40m) "to pay for parts, astronomical running costs, inflationary driver wages and the rest".

Cooper (1996) accepted that a F1 team needed "£15 million to be in the ballpark, and considerably more to break into Benetton/Williams territory". Another way of analysing a team budget is to divide the cost of the entire operation by the number of racing and testing miles or laps. The figure so produced for Jordan revealed £750 a

mile, taking into account all overheads. McLaren returned similar figures of £2000 as being the cost of a single lap (Dodgins, 1995e).

By 2006 concern was being increasingly expressed that the cost of competing in F1 was such that only motor manufacturer's budgets could sustain the sums involved. Such expense was said to be unsustainable by the independent teams and they were concerned that the sport might collapse if the manufacturers left.

In 2005 the total annual expenditure on F1 by the teams was estimated to be \$2,808,480,000 (Henry, 2007). Such sums require a return and Jackie Stewart reveals the pressures on drivers when he said that they are evaluated on the basis of how good they are, "at converting that capital investment into a benefit to that investor, sponsor, and team owner". It is implicit that drivers will be expected to convert such investment into results, and media time and exposure (Howell, 2007, page 19).

In 2007 the six major car manufacturers in F1 (Ferrari, BMW, Mercedes, Renault, Honda and Toyota) were believed to be spending between £30m and £150m each on competing. Where income is concerned each team could attract up to £75m in sponsorship with trade support and tyre income being approximately £12.5m (Sylv & Reid, 2007). Such was the concern about the expense of competing in F1 that in the discussion of the proposed new technical regulations from 2011 onwards the FIA set as their first reason for change, "the need to create a healthier commercial outlook for participants by lowering their costs" (FIA, 2007).

Where MotoGP is concerned in 2007 it was estimated that a top team would have a budget of between \$8 and \$12 million and whilst Dorna and the IRTA would pay the teams the majority of the budget would have to come from sponsors (Trimby, 2007).

2.9 Summary

The sponsorship of motorcycle racing has mirrored the historical themes identified within the more documented evolution of the racing of cars.

The journey through which motorsport sponsorship has travelled is illustrated in Fig 2.1. If timings were added to this diagram there would be very little difference between the experience of the commercial sponsorship of racing cars and motor cycles.

The examination of its historical origins has confirmed elements of the business model of motorsport as postulated by Henry *et al* (2007, pages 148 - 153). It has established that motorsport indeed originated in the participating hands of enthusiasts who created a demand for vehicles and their associated components. The consequent consumption led to an audience for publicity and in turn attracted brand sponsorship. A “Consumer-Led Business Model” has subsequently been created by motorsport whereby:

“Motorsport should be seen as a mechanism that allows products and services to develop their brand awareness and associations by utilizing the particular connotations associated with, and provided by, motorsport”.

(Henry, *et al*, 2007, page 149)

This research is concerned with motorsport which is powered by the internal combustion engine and the literature has revealed that the early manufacturers marketed their vehicles by subjecting them to competition. Many of the original innovators were in fact competitors in their own right. Success in competition, as recognised through speed and reliability, was seen as essential to the marketing mix. The influence of the personal transport manufacturer on motorsport was established and has remained ever since.

As a result the concept of leveraging manufacturer awareness in motor cycle racing is still illustrated by teams such as Ducati Corse which has a goal of increasing and

managing the Ducati brand image in racing (Ducati, 2004b) whilst “improving the breed”. “Heritage”, meanwhile, is a prime motivation of Honda which uses the phrase, “Teamwork, innovation, speed. The spirit of Honda Racing for over 40 years”, in its publicity material (Honda, 2004). Honda also make no secret of the fact that they are in racing to prove that their in-house technology is the best so that they can transfer it from their racing bikes to road bikes (Rossi, 2005, page 54).

The fact that competition is an essential element of the marketing mix is emphasised too by Aprilia’s founder, Ivano Beggio. He states that the company’s success has gone hand in hand with its Racing Section in which, “the knowledge acquired by this department and its ‘twin’, the experimentation department, is reflected in important synergies benefiting the activities of the Group as a whole” In showing the importance of competition to the firm he went on to say that, “Aprilia is recognised as leader in innovation and reliability on the world’s roads and racetracks” (Aprilia, 2004a).

Similar endorsements of a racing synergy for manufacturers may be found in the motorsport literature too.

The component suppliers realised the benefits of marketing their products alongside those of the manufacturers very quickly. Whilst the contribution that competition has made to the manufacturers of motorcycles is evident, other commercial businesses, as in motor racing, have made the most of the association. For example, the petroleum company Petronas maintains a vision of becoming a "leading oil and gas multinational of choice" and its involvement in high-profile and prestigious projects such as Foggy Petronas Racing and the Sauber Petronas F1 team is seen by them as an effective way of achieving this aim. Apart from enhancing international awareness of the Petronas brand and the company's activities, and of Malaysia, such sponsorship is also intended to provide the company with what it perceives as a stepping stone to increase technical and technological capabilities in fields related to its core business (Foggy Petronas Racing, 2004).

Television has been used to gain an international reach for the brands involved. F1 showed the way. The single minded approach of Bernie Ecclestone recognised the

power of allowing sponsors to place their brands in front of a global television audience and this has spilled into other forms of motorsport and, indeed, sport in general. A typical global brand sponsor is again Malaysian oil company Petronas whose core business may now be delivered worldwide thanks to global television coverage. It has deliberately strategised its global and regional branding exercise through major sports with the sponsorship of both F1 and World Super Bike teams (Petronas, 2004). That Ecclestone should also have been instrumental in the marketing of the television coverage of what is now MotoGP (Trimby, 2007) indicates the commonality of media approach, and consequentially of business plans, between the two motorsport specialisms. Indeed between 1988 and 1993 Bernie Ecclestone’s companies, International Sportsworld Communications (ISC) and then Two Wheel Promotions, had handled the commercial interests of the FIM’s world motorcycle championship (before Dorna took over) so such commonality is unsurprising (Lovell, 2008, pages 184 – 185)

Television has also emphasised the human interest element of competitors. Whilst Geoff Duke and Mike Hailwood had been great names within the sport, television introduced characters such as Barry Sheene, Carl Fogarty and Valentino Rossi to a much larger global audience. In motor racing Juan Manuel Fangio, Jim Clark, Ayrton Senna, Michael Schumacher and Lewis Hamilton are similarly not only perceived as winners but also as aspirational characters too - facets of a brand which are very attractive to marketing executives. The concept of celebrity endorsement has arrived from other sports as a result.

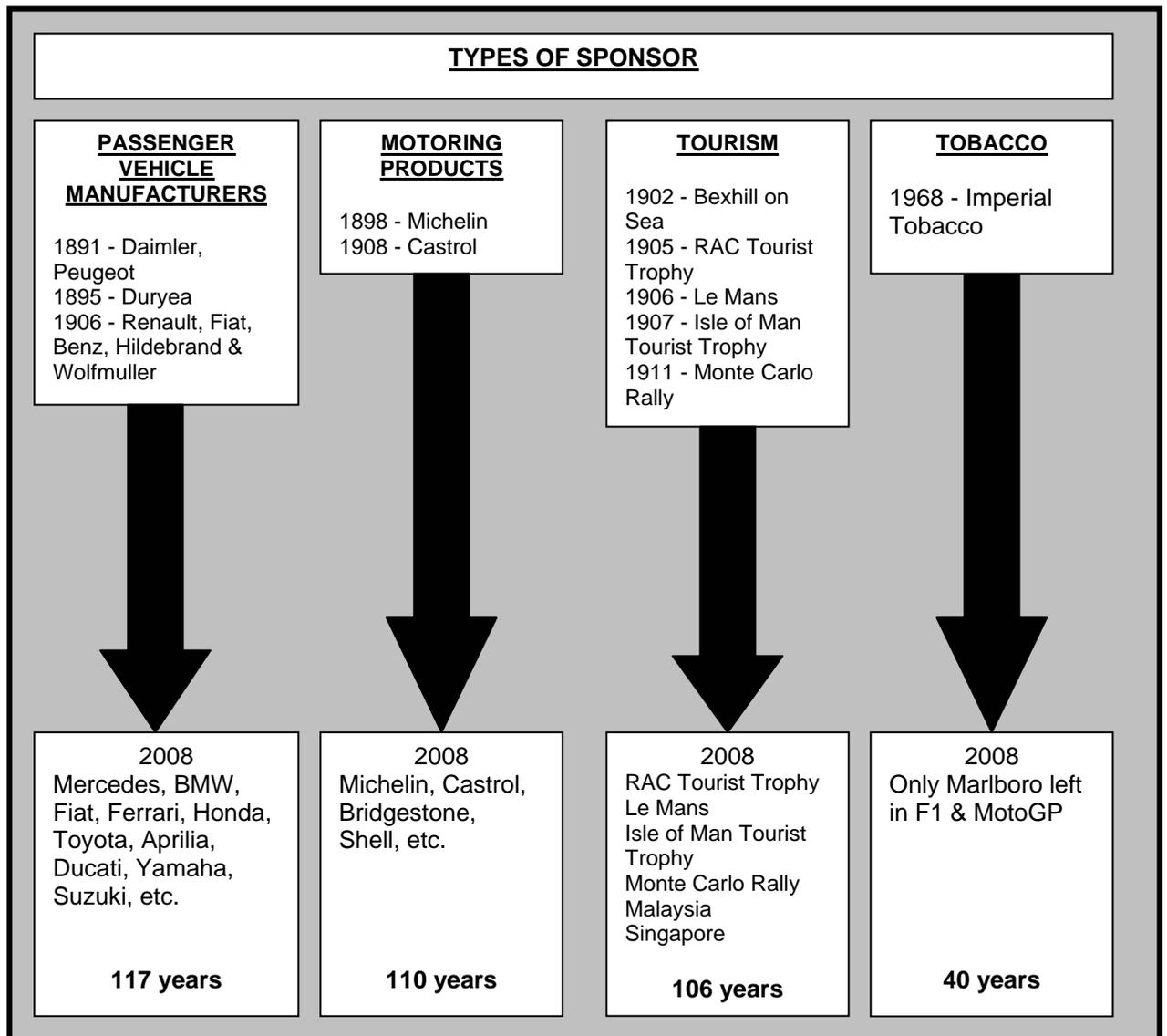
The heritage of motorcycle racing is emphasised by sponsors such as Dunlop which still markets the fact that it is, “the only tyre manufacturer to have been continuously involved in Motorcycle GP since its launch in 1948”. The technological link to the sport is then emphasised when they say that their competition product, “travels from race to road. Which means motorcyclists throughout the world enjoy Dunlop tyres that deliver safety, durability and performance in equal measures” (Dunlop Tyres, 2004).

Various forms of sponsorship have been embedded within motorsport from its earliest days with many of those early participants still represented today. From outside the

motoring related industries and the associated sponsors the tobacco companies that had a big influence for more than thirty years. With the exception of the Philip Morris brand, Marlboro, their day has concluded as worldwide anti-smoking legislation has hardened. The situation is illustrated in Figure 2.4.

Fig. 2.4

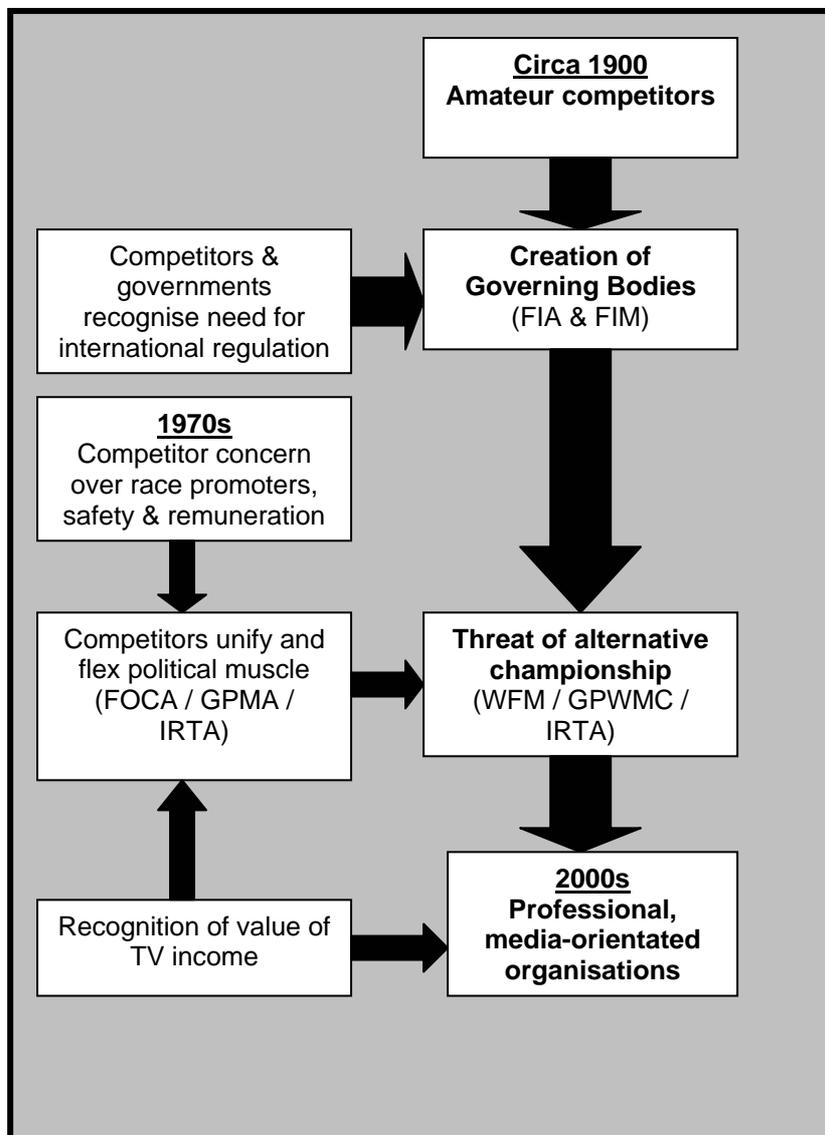
The duration of different types of motorsport sponsorship



Where the organisation of motorsport is concerned history reveals some remarkable similarities, where both cars and motorcycles are concerned, in the evolution from amateur to professional, media-savvy sports. This is illustrated in Figure 2.5. Whilst the illustration covers a century in time some basic steps that have taken place in both sports are revealed. The importance of television to the equation is clear to see.

Fig. 2.5

The evolution of the organisation of motorsport



Motorsport continues to be important in reaching into new markets and emerging economies. During 2000, Aprilia acquired both Moto Guzzi and Laverda. This has been described as laying the foundations for the birth of what is described as an "Italian motorcycling nucleus". Making full use of competition success the company's marketing objective for the short term is to penetrate the strategic markets of both China and India, the two countries that now account for the sale of most of the world's vehicle production (Aprilia, 2004).

A warning, though, is expressed by May (2007, pages 200 – 201) that in developed economies, "the heyday of the motorcycle is in many ways over". He goes on to make the point that, "rising standards of living and lower prices have seen car sales soar and motorcycle sales gradually decline". He hypothesises that much of the world's youth are now making the metaphorical leap from the childhood bicycle straight to the car. He suggests that biking has, in effect, "turned into a middle-aged pursuit".

Henry *et al* (2007, page xi) is more positive in saying that, "motorsport companies are facing the greatest opportunity in their history with the development of new, fast-growing global markets, from which to buy or in which to sell. This opportunity is coupled with a global requirement for alternative, more efficient and less carbon-intensive automotive technologies to be developed".

3.0 - LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 Introduction

In researching the context of the investigation it was necessary to examine a wide variety of literature in a diverse range of fields. Firstly, sponsorship needed to be defined and how it is perceived to fit into the wider marketing communications mix. In particular the literature concerning the potential usages of sponsorship was read. This yielded a number of marketing theories that necessitated that brands, awareness and sponsorship's relationship with advertising and public relations in particular needed to be further contextualised. The attraction of sport to sponsors and sports marketing in general was then examined before the available literature on marketing within motorsport was investigated.

Sponsorship has been studied theoretically and practically with major reviews of Anglo-Saxon sources by Pope (1998) and French research being undertaken by Fuchs (1994). Cornwell and Maignan (1998) undertook a comprehensive examination of the sponsorship literature which was later updated by Walliser (2003).

The research takes place during a time when corporations are continually seeking new marketing communication opportunities (Nicholls *et al*, 1995) with Meenaghan (1995) identifying the corporate need to address public perception and image. Where products and brands are concerned Poiesz (1989, page 46) had found that symbolic associations were becoming increasingly important. This is where sponsorship fits into marketing communication strategies.

3.2 SPONSORSHIP

“Sponsorship is highly prized for its ability to achieve particular communications effects with selected audiences. Where corporate or product awareness is sought, the sponsor will seek linkage to an event or activity which intrudes on societal consciousness thereby ensuring exposure for the brand”. (Meenaghan & Shipley, 1999)

3.2.1 Definition of Sponsorship

So what is sponsorship? In examining the literature it is clear that sponsorship means different things to different people. In the USA, for example, it refers to the commercial backing of a television programme or to a government subsidy. Meenaghan (1983) recognised this confusion and decided that his research sponsorship would refer, "to instances where a company communicates with its target market or with elements of its environment, for commercial ends".

Meenaghan (1984) had found inconsistencies in the definition of sponsorship with Sandler & Shani (1989) agreeing that definitions were ones "of convenience and reflect what specific organisations prefer to consider as sponsorship". Marshall (1995) referred in his research to Meenaghan's (1983 and 1991a) preferred definition that, "commercial sponsorship is an investment, in cash or kind, in an activity, in return for access to the exploitable commercial potential associated with that activity".

Meenaghan's (1983) definition added that, "sponsorship can be regarded as the provision of assistance, either financial or in kind, to an activity by a commercial organisation for the purpose of achieving commercial objectives". However, Hansen and Scotwin (1995) pointed out that this did not explicitly explain that sponsorship is two-sided. On one side sponsoring is a communication activity and on the other a financial act involving payments to those sponsored.

Thwaites' (1995) definition is relevant to motorsport. He modified Otter's (1988) to say that, "sponsorship is buying and exploiting an association with an event, a team, a group, etc., for specific marketing [communications] purposes". The Incorporated Society of British Advertisers (ISBA, 1993) similarly defined it as, "the payment of a fee by a company in return for the rights to a public association with an activity, item or person, where the purpose is the achievement of a commercial objective".

Shaw (1993) referred to The Concise Oxford Dictionary (1984) which described sponsorship as a term which had been given to a firm, which had paid for, "a broadcast which introduced advertisements for its support". Javalgi *et al* (1994) referred to sponsorship as, "the underwriting of a special event to support corporate objectives by enhancing corporate image, increasing awareness of brands, or directly stimulating sales of products and services". Sleight's (1989) alternative definition is, "sponsorship is a business relationship between a provider of funds, resources or

services and an individual, event or organisation which offers in return some rights and association that may be used for commercial advantage". Mintel (2002) supported Sleight's definition as being the most appropriate for their research purposes.

The Sports Council of the United Kingdom (1971) defined sponsorship as, "a gift or payment in return for some facility or privilege which aims to provide publicity for the donor". Meenaghan (1984) tailored this with his defining sponsorship as "the provision of financial or material support for some independent activity, which is not intrinsic to the furtherance of commercial aim, but from which the supporting company might reasonably expect to gain some commercial benefits".

In establishing a definition Shaw (1993) referred to a 1986 leaflet from the Government's Office of Arts and Libraries. This said that sponsorship is "a payment by a business firm.....for the purpose of promoting its name, products or services. It is a commercial deal, not a philanthropic gift". Thwaites (1995) subsequently argued that sponsorship is distinctly separate from philanthropy. Both Meenaghan (1994) and Mintel (2002) prefer to refer to Cause-Related Marketing (CRM) instead of philanthropy.

For the purposes of this research sponsorship ignores altruistic philanthropy, patronage and charitable donations in which the holds little expectation of a concrete benefit (Javalgi *et al*, 1994; Gross *et al*, 1987). Indeed Meenaghan (1983) developed this further by saying that the difference between patronage and sponsorship was that when the former was employed there was no expectation of a commercial return. Glenn & Phellos (1995) describe sponsorship as "big business and the rules of the game are business, not patronage". Mintel (2002) argued, though, that the difference between is sometimes obscured with Armstrong (1988) arguing that if media coverage is the aim then philanthropic sponsorship usually provides much less than commercial sponsorship.

Gardner and Shuman (1987) defined sponsorships as, "investments in causes or events to support corporate objectives (e.g., enhance company image) or marketing objectives (e.g., increase brand awareness)". By 1989 Sandler and Shani described sponsorship as "the provision of resources (e.g. money, people, and equipment) by an organisation directly to an event or activity in exchange for a direct association to the event or activity. The providing organisation can then use this direct association to achieve either their corporate, marketing, or media objectives". Sponsorship may also

be regarded as an element of "promotional licensing", which is defined as, "the acquisition of rights to affiliate or associate with a product or event for the purpose of deriving benefits related to that affiliation or association" (Mullin, *et al*, 1993).

It can therefore be seen that the literature provides a variety of definitions of sponsorship but where motorsport is concerned the most appropriate, because of the specific inclusion of a reference to commercialism (Meenaghan, 1983; Meenaghan, 1991a; Marshall, 1995) and because sponsoring organizations are increasingly focusing on the exploitable commercial potential and bottom-line results (Cornwell, 1995; Gwinner & Swanson, 2003; Hoek *et al*, 1993; 1997; Irwin & Sutton, 1994; Marshall & Cook, 1992; Wilson, 1997) is felt to be that:

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

3.2.2 Sponsorship as an element of marketing communications

Sponsorship is described as being an element of promotion with those using it hoping for a positive impact on a consumer's product purchase decision-process (Crompton, 1996; Gardner & Shuman, 1987). Promotion is an exercise in communication used to inform, educate and persuade or remind potential clients of the benefits offered by a company, its products or services.

Sponsorship has moved from an ancillary role to become the keystone of a marketing strategy (Meenaghan, 1998) in what is sometimes called "sponsorship-linked marketing" (Cornwell, 1995). It has been argued (Crane, 1972; Stanley, 1977; Meenaghan, 1983) that the four basic elements of the marketing communications mix are those shown in Table 3.1 with Lagae (2005, page 13) emphasizing that advertising and public relations are the core elements of sports sponsorship-related marketing communications. Hansen & Scotwin (1995) confirmed that sponsorship is an element of marketing communications.

It would certainly appear from this categorisation that sponsorship contributes to both sales promotion and advertising whilst a relationship with public relations may also be argued. Indeed, it is recognised that in moving consumers through the various

stages of the buying process different elements of the communications mix combine and become complementary (Webster, 1980).

The literature, though, reveals disagreement over where sponsorship actually fits into the marketing communications mix. Van Heerden (2001), for example, discusses whether sponsorship is a variable on its own or whether it is an option integrated within elements of the wider marketing communication mix? A number of marketing text authors do include sponsorship as a legitimate element of the marketing communication mix (Dibb, *et al*, 1994; Adcock, *et al*, 1995; Wilmshurst, 1995; Siegel, 1996; Tripodi, 2001). Some authors take other views with Lancaster & Massingham (1993), Kotler (1994) and Hill (1994) regarding sponsorship as being a public relations function. Both Bennett, *et al* (1988) and Belch & Belch (2001) perceive sponsorship as a sales specialism whilst Zikmund & d'Amico (1996) regard it as being part of image-building and publicity generation.

Waite (1979), Kotler (1980) and Meenaghan (1983) all defined the four conventional forms of marketing communications (excluding word of mouth) as advertising, personal selling, publicity and sales promotion, with sponsorship straddling most of these. They justified this by suggesting that some sponsors in motorsport in particular use sponsorship for advertising and sales promotion effects. Crompton's (1996) research established that sponsoring is especially good for the achievement of positioning. Similarly, the role of sponsorship in the communications mix may be as part of an "integrated package" that can "complement advertising, sales promotion and public relations in developing consumer awareness, formulating attitudes and enhancing the company's image" (Thwaites, *et al*, 1992).

Van Heeren (2001) found that sport sponsorship is not only part of an integrated marketing communications strategy but also potentially an integrative element of the promotion. Sponsorship, he said, supports or is supported by advertising, sales promotion, personal selling, publicity and public relations. Tripoldi (2001) argues that the integration of sponsorship with other elements of the marketing mix makes the whole greater than the sum of the parts. Kuzma *et al* (1992) found that sponsorships were most effective when supported by other elements of the marketing mix whilst Erdogan and Kitchen (1998) identified that some sponsorships failed because they were not supported by adequate advertising, PR and promotional activities.

Table: 3.1
THE MARKETING COMMUNICATIONS MIX

<u>Type of promotion</u>	<u>Source</u>	<u>Message Channel</u>	<u>Receiver</u>	<u>Response</u>
Personal Selling	Firm or Individual	Direct face-to-face contact (salesman)	Individual or small group	Immediate Sales/Service
Advertising	Firm or agency	Indirect by media (TV, radio, print)	Mass audience	Persuade, Inform, Remind, Condition
Sales Promotion	Firm	Direct & Indirect (exhibitions, demonstrations, display)	Specific groups. Middlemen or sales force	Goodwill, Motivate, Inform, Remind.
Public Relations	Unidentified Firm	Indirect	Specific groups or general public	Education and Propaganda

(Source: Field, G.A., Douglas, J & Tarpey, L.X., *Marketing Management: A Behavioural Systems Approach*, Merrill Books, 1966, page 461)

However, Meenaghan (1991a) identified sponsorship to be an element of the marketing mix of product, price, distribution and marketing communications and that sponsorship can either act on, compliment or influence advertising, public relations, personal selling and sales promotion

Sponsorship origins, it is argued, lie within the sphere of corporate communications with sponsors seeking "a spirit of goodwill with the public as a whole, or with employees, clients or suppliers" by associating their organisation, or brand with popular events or activities (Parker & Wilkins, 1995). Sponsorship can effectively reach specific target groups with well-defined messages and it should therefore be regarded as a powerful tool for establishing meaningful communications links (Gardner & Shuman, 1987). Sponsorship may therefore be perceived as an important element of corporate communications.

Table: 3.2
RELATIVE USE OF SLEIGHT'S FOUR MEDIA

<u>Audience</u>	<u>Advertising</u>	<u>PR</u>	<u>Sales Promotion</u>	<u>Sponsorship</u>
Product consumers	+++	++	+++	++
Company staff	+	+++		++
The Salesforce	+	+++	++	++
Shareholders	++	+++		++
Distributors/retailers	+	+++	++	++
Suppliers	+	+++		++
Financial institutions	++	+++		++
Industry/government decision-makers	++	+++		++
The media	+	+++		++
Pressure groups	+	++		+
The local community	+	+++		++

(Source: Sleight, 1989, page 38)

Waite (1979) had identified that sponsorship could have a much more powerful role to play, than is commonly understood. As a means of promotion, "sponsorship can imbue a brand or company with the particular characteristics which the relevant sport or art possess". He identified sponsorship as providing an additional vehicle for communication and as a novel means for targeting particular groups of people. Meenaghan (1991a) added that sponsorship may be used to communicate with a variety of audiences such as the internal public, key decision-makers, and target markets. A typical company may have a wide range of audiences with which to communicate including product consumers, company staff, the sales force, shareholders, distributors, retailers, suppliers, financial institutions, industry and government decision-makers, the media, pressure groups and the local community (Sleight, 1989).

Sleight then went on, as shown in Table 3.2, to indicate four types of media that could be used to reach each of these audiences.

The literature revealed a number of potential markets in which sponsorship may be used and Proposition 4 was designed to particularly test the sample against Meenaghan's (1991a) findings.

Proposition 4: *Motorsport sponsors do not have any priority markets.*

A variety of potential sponsorship markets were revealed within the literature and it was decided to investigate these further for the motorsport sponsor through questions six and seven in the research instrument.

3.2.2.1 Leveraging or activating Sponsorship

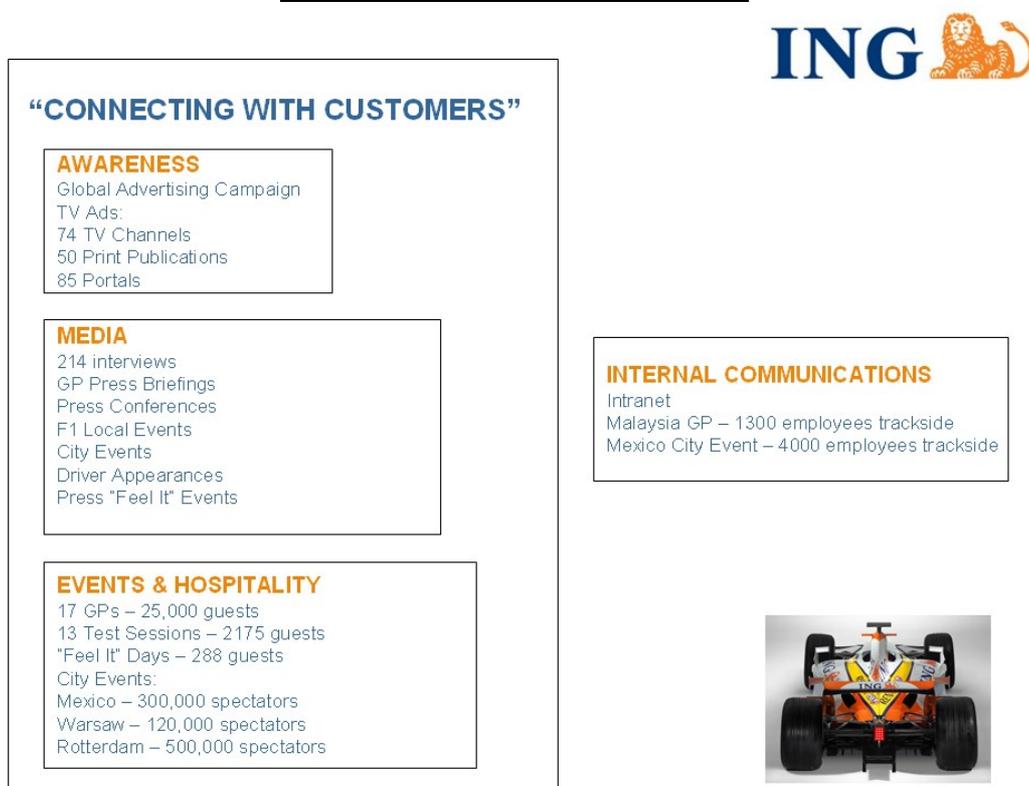
Verity (2002, pages 163 - 165) found that in utilising sponsorship's marketing communication potential there are both "passive" and "active" sponsors. The former are those who, in motorsport terms, select a winning team and then allow the results to attract the television coverage for their target audience – those generally interested in motorsport. The latter, or "active" category, exploit their sponsorship through targeted marketing to all sorts of specific audiences in what is called either leveraging or activation. She recognised that a sponsorship association would be ineffective if it were simply viewed as 'buying' endorsements. She said that, "simply attaching a name to an event or a logo on a shirt does not result in the target consumer being any more aware of the sponsorship or the value statement the sponsoring brand is attempting to make".

The literature refers to the need to allow not only for the "direct costs" but also the "indirect costs" of sponsorship (Sleight, 1989; Otker, 1988; Andrews & Tucker, 1996) such as a marketing budget that might double the cost. Various estimates suggest that between two and three times the cost of a sponsorship should be spent in leveraging the sponsorship (Gilbert, 1998; Heffler, 1994; Meenaghan, 1994; Farrelly *et al*, 1997). A variety of researchers state that for sponsorship to be effective it should be accompanied by significant marketing communications expenditures (Cornwell, 1995; Fahy *et al*, 2004; Meenaghan, 1991a; Quester & Thompson, 2001) and that such activity is needed to achieve multiple corporate objectives including image association (Crowley, 1991; Thwaites, 1995; Hoek *et al*, 1997; Meenaghan & Shipley, 1999). Leverage of sponsorships is not cheap. Farrelly *et al* (1997) established that, "for every dollar spent on sponsorship, an average of between \$1 and \$2 is spent on related activities such as advertising, sales promotion, PR and client entertainment". This was less than Eisenhart (1988) who identified a ratio of \$5 spent on leveraging for each \$1 spent on sponsorship whilst Gilbert (1988) had previously

suggested \$2 for \$1. Crimmins & Horn (1996, page 16) made the overarching point that, “if the brand cannot afford to spend to communicate its sponsorship, then the brand cannot afford the sponsorship at all”. Verity (2002) quoted the ISS which stated that after a sponsorship fee has been paid between 100% and 200% more should be spent on support. Gardner and Shuman (1987) found that most corporate sponsors provided related support to their sponsorships "worth approximately 40% of the base price of the event".

ING were reported to have spent \$65m on their 2007 F1 sponsorship deal with Renault and a further \$75m in leveraging. This was spent on billboards at 14 races, event title sponsorship in Australia and Belgium, worldwide TV advertising, a global print campaign and banner advertising on 70 major web sites including Yahoo and CNN (F1 Racing, 2007c). ING used a policy called “Connecting with Customers” which included the company’s first ever global advertising campaign, associated events and hospitality, city events and internal communications programmes (Conner, 2007). ING satisfies Verity’s (2002, pages 163 - 165) definition of an “active sponsor” and its programme is illustrated in Figure 3.1.

Fig. 3.1
F1 Sponsorship Leveraging (ING)



(Source: Conner, 2007)

Macknight (1993) attributed the loss by a F1 team of a possible \$16 million sponsorship deal with the sponsor not being, "ready to exploit the huge sums of money that were going to be spent". The ineffectiveness of some sponsorship has been attributed to lack of supportive advertising, public relations, point-of-purchase and other promotional expenditures (Copeland, 1991, Copeland *et al*, 1996; Erdogan & Kitchen, 1996; Fahy *et al*, 2004; Farrelly *et al*, 1997). Global F1 Partner Allianz started their sponsorship with team engagement (Williams F1) before adding pit-lane branding and then the global partner programme (Deuringer, 2008).

The leveraging of sponsorship is widely seen in the literature as being essential but there is a case in motorsport that used a different approach. In the World Rally Championship Subaru used competition as the sole platform for all of their marketing. Holbrook (2002, page 41) recognised Subaru's marketing success and quoted Kevin Eason as saying that Subaru "could not have bought that image with advertising". Before their rally sponsorship Subaru "had no profile at all in the UK". The sponsorship was a way of using motorsport," to engineer an image, not just a car" and largely without any leveraging.

Whilst Subaru took its own their own individualistic approach the literature suggests that an integrated approach is much more usual. Thwaites (1995) stated that for some sponsors opportunities existed for make an even greater contribution to their communication objectives by employing a number of additional techniques. Hansen & Scotwin (1995) suggested that related communication activities ensured that sponsorship is fully leveraged by using complementary billboards, signs, press releases, advertising and hospitality. Meenaghan & Shipley (1999) too said that effective sponsorship exploitation is reliant upon support advertising and promotions to leverage the initial investment. The positive effects of leveraging have been demonstrated empirically (Quester & Thompson, 2001; Cornwell *et al*, 2001) with Farrelly and Quester (2003) stating that sponsors must leverage their activities to achieve success.

Sponsorship may be made to work (Parker & Wilkins, 1995; Marshall, 1995) with event hospitality and promotional giveaways, and a creative and proactive press and PR programme (Anon, 1995b). A sponsorship programme should not be passively accepted as an advertising vehicle, but it should be exploited through corporate marketing communications (Griffiths, 1995). Holbrook (2002, page 13) said that given the considerable levels of investment in sponsorship it is, "unthinkable to leave a sponsorship to rest on its laurels" and Tyler (1999, page 20) agreed by saying that,

"sponsors are wise to make the whole sponsorship expenditure part of a carefully orchestrated marketing mix". In F1 Honda and Jaguar used racing imagery in sales promotional materials, dealer communications and tradeshow exhibits along with subliminal references in its advertising (Holbrook, 2002, page 40 & 57).

Thomas (1995) asserted that a motor racing team's involvement with its sponsors should go far deeper than providing a mobile billboard. He emphasized that a sponsor should spend at least as much again on promoting and publicising their sponsorship. In assessing the success of a British Touring Car Championship promotion it has been found that it is necessary to spend another 25% on top of the cost of the sponsorship (Anon, 1995b). A similar concept, although higher in percentage financial terms, was promoted by de Haas who said that whatever is directly spent on sponsorship, a similar amount should be set aside to exploit it (Griffiths, 1995).

Proposition 12 was constructed to test the sample against a variety of sponsorship leveraging strategies.

Proposition 12: Motorsport sponsors complement their support in a number of ways.

The literature had revealed a number of support options that motorsport sponsors could use to enhance their sponsorship support strategy. This was examined by question seventeen in the research instrument.

3.2.2.2 Sponsorship's coded messages, noise and clutter

Crompton (1994) identified that a sponsorship aim is to communicate a message to the target market through transmittable 'coded messages' including written captions, company or brand names, logos and verbal material. Hansen & Scotwin (1995) acknowledged the importance of these coded messages.

Crompton (1994) refers to the concept of "noise", as being a potential distraction to the achievement of a total communications strategy. Noise is defined as the distractions or rival stimuli that distort or take the target market's attention away from the sponsor's coded message. Noise may even lead to an entirely different interpretation to that intended. "In the context of sponsorship," he says, "where the message is incidental to the main event, there is likely to be substantial noise that may cause the message to appear inconsequential and to be ignored". Gardner and Shuman

(1987), meanwhile, feel that sponsorship will continue to grow in importance because it helps sponsors to "cut through the clutter of more traditional advertising channels".

3.2.3 The relationship between sponsorship and advertising

"Sponsorship persuades indirectly. Sponsorship does not try to change perceptions of the brand in frontal assault. Rather, sponsorship improves the perception of a brand by flanking our beliefs about the brand and linking the brand to an event or organization that the target audience already values highly".

(Crimmins & Horn, 1996)

The literature suggests that sponsorship fits within the definition of advertising which is, "a paid for communication intended to inform and influence the public" (Sleight, 1989; Shaw, 1993) and the Incorporated Society of British Advertisers said that whilst they "share the same goal the methods of achieving it are quite different". ISBA states that the placing of logos on racing cars may technically be defined as advertising but in reality it is included as [and is integral to the commercial arrangement] part of a sponsorship package (ISBA, 1993). The two marketing specialisms are seen as complementary elements within an integrated communication strategy (Cegarra, 1994). In the UK the Inland Revenue regards sponsorship as advertising, allowing expenditure on it to be set off against a company's tax liability as money spent "wholly and exclusively for the purpose of trade" (Shaw, 1993). Meenaghan (1991a) too regards sponsorship as being similar to advertising whilst separating it from altruistic charity and patronage. There is agreement that there is little difference between attitudes towards advertising and sponsorship across Europe (Marshall, 1992, page 162).

Robert Fletcher of Rothmans referred to motorsport when identifying the fine differences when he said that, "an advertisement gets people to buy. Sponsorship creates awareness of the company" (Abdoolcarim, 1995) but is fundamentally different from advertising because it persuades indirectly (Crimmins & Horn, 1996). Quester and Farrelly (1998) argue that sponsorship exerts a persuasive influence through a "softer" or less commercially biased approach than advertising. Parker (1991) found a sponsors message to be more readily accepted in the form of patronage. When used to support sports competitors or events sponsorship is felt preferable to "straight" advertising because sport would be "in a worse position without sponsorship" (Shoebridge, 1998). Schreiber (in Levin, 1993) said that sponsorship is deeper than, "how many packages of a product do I sell". Participants

"should logically have a favourable impression of your brand that sticks around for a while".

Hansen & Scotwin (1995) saw sponsorship as "a special kind of advertising" and Meenaghan (1991b) stated that sponsorship achieves objectives, "in a manner similar to advertising" whilst identifying key differences (Table 3.3).

To confirm the content of Table 3.3 both Javalgi *et al* (1994) and Tripoldi (2001) argue that sponsorship differs from advertising in that both the medium and the creative message are not tightly controlled by the sponsor. Sponsorship is separated by the fact that the medium and the creative messages involved lack tight control. Both the ISBA (1993) and McElhatton (1995) cautioned that sponsorship does not provide direct control over the message that purchasing space or airtime can. Indeed sponsorships are usually not handled via the conventional media at all but involve staged events around which advertising might take place (Gardner and Shuman, 1987).

Table 3.3		
<u>A COMPARISON BETWEEN ADVERTISING AND SPONSORSHIP</u>		
	<u>Advertising</u>	<u>Sponsorship</u>
Quantity and quality of coverage:	Advertiser has full control	Beyond the control of the sponsor
Creation of message:	Advertiser creates closely defined message	<i>Mute</i> sponsor delivers a message by association, with a socially intrusive activity possessed of its own personality in the eyes of the receiving audience.
Implementation:	Advertiser has no need for <i>leverage</i>	A sponsor must make use of <i>leverage</i> to enhance the sponsorship at least utilising matching sums of finance.
Audience reaction:	Audience reaction may be cynical	The audience reaction to the beneficial effect of sponsorship may be seen in less cynical terms than that of traditional advertising.
Personal motives:	Personal objectives not normally associated with advertising	<i>Chairman's choice</i> or <i>spouse-driven projects</i> are associated with sponsorship and personal objectives are still largely associated with sponsorship as opposed to advertising.

(Source: based on Meenaghan, 1991b)

Both sponsorship and advertising imagery can be borrowed from an event that communicates the values of the sponsor. The value of sponsorship is that it is untainted in the way that advertising values may be tainted by the admission of persuasion intent. It is the "aura of indifference to commercial gain that makes the message so much more penetrating; it slips under one's defences" according to Mason (1992).

Walliser (2003) and Cegarra (1994) made the point that sponsorship and advertising should be complementary especially where billboards and other supports are concerned (Walliser, 1997). It has been found that sponsor awareness increases when advertising is used too (Eilander, 1992; Du Plessis, 1997; Quester & Thompson, 2001).

The sponsor and the sponsored activity form a symbiotic relationship (Meenaghan & Shipley, 1999) when a sponsor's logo and name are "threaded through the event" and the audience learns to associate the sponsor and the activity with each other. A clear association is created with the activity by using support promotions such as advertising. Meenaghan & Shipley (1999) looked at charitable activity which projects the attributes of caring and concern whilst advertising would be more likely to engender cynicism and consumer disbelief.

Meenaghan and Shipley (1999) refer to advertising needing a "message" and a "media" to combine to deliver brand image values. In sponsorship the two are "inextricably linked" and imagery is delivered by association with activities. McDonald (1990) makes the point that sponsorship does not talk about a company or its products as other promotions do. Sponsorship is indirect and, "tapping into a different area of consciousness". A sponsor becomes an ally, supporting something that you want supported and therefore becoming "your friend and patron".

Sponsorship is seen as, "advertising which gives something back" by Marshall (1991). Otker (1988) saw sponsorship as being different to advertising because it involves activities outside a company's main operations whilst acknowledging the cooperation needed from other marketing communications elements. Amis *et al* (1999) found that sponsorship which is used in a variety of different ways across an organisation will prove more valuable than one that is used to simply forward an advertising message. Furlong (1994) argued that sponsorship is, "a specialised form of advertising", involving highly publicised and attended sports, "such as motor

racing". She argued that without the opportunity to place advertising in public view, there would be no sponsorship.

Oliver (1990) pointed out that many products rely on establishing lifestyle connections for their brands. The ready ability to define and monitor the impact of advertising makes it attractive because it is established, tested and it is known to work. Sponsorship, on the other hand, is a much less precise quantity and is perceived as being on "the outer fringe of advertising" (Glyn Thomas, 1995).

Sponsors receive many of the same benefits derived from advertising (Mason, 1992) with sponsorship being a valuable addition to mainstream advertising (Marshall, 1995). This is because sponsorship is a cost-efficient media buy, it helps advertising to create images and it can influence sales through heightened brand awareness. Consumers can, through advertising, be encouraged to move to the evaluation and trial stages of product adoption with sponsorship building an image for that product and to "give it something unique" (Andrews & Tucker, 1996).

Research has found that sponsorship can generate higher levels of awareness and lead to the association of a wider range of attributes with the brand being promoted than is possible with advertising (Shank, 1999, page 373; Hoek, *et al*, 1997). Indeed, Kim *et al* (1999) quoted Cameron (1994) who's study of publicity and advertising indicated that publicity activities actually outperformed advertising contribution to people's memory, recall, recognition and purchase intention (Cameron, 1994).

Knight said that, "Sponsors should be doing more to communicate the differences between themselves and advertisers to their target audience. If they can't maybe it is because few differences exist" (Performance Research, 2000b).

3.2.3.1 Ambush Marketing

The concept of "ambush marketing" is where an advertiser is not actually a sponsor. Association with an event, it is argued, is not the same as directly supporting the event (Sandler & Shani, 1989) and Meenaghan (1994) define ambush marketing as a "practice whereby another company, often a competitor, attempts to deflect some of the audience's attention to itself and away from the sponsor".

The first identified ambush marketing campaign was that by Nike entitled "I love LA" that although not a specific Olympic sponsor tied the company with the city

hosting the 1984 Olympics. The success of this marketing campaign was seen as the catalyst for the concept of ambush marketing (Shank, 1999, page 373). After the 1992 Olympics ambush marketing was further emphasised when research showed, that 32% of the people thought that American Express was an official sponsor, when Visa had actually paid \$20 million for that distinction (Byrnes, 1994).

3.2.3.2 Broadcast sponsorship, Channel sponsorship and Product Placement

Broadcast sponsorship, or the sponsorship of a specific television programme, is seen to give sponsors extra impact and association, but it is also the target of ambush marketers (Walliser, 2003). The Institute of Sports Sponsorship too raised ambush marketing as a specific risk associated with the increased use of broadcast sponsorship of television programmes (ISS, 1997). As a result Derbaix, *et al* (1994) distances broadcast sponsorship from sponsorship as there is no direct investment in the event itself. In practice research has shown that awareness of a sponsorship increases when supported by broadcast sponsorship (Lardinoit 1998, 1999) to such a level that this may “overwhelm” other marketing messages (Millman, 1995).

This concept will attain extra importance now that in the UK Ofcom have given the go ahead for Channel Sponsorship which is the sponsorship of entire TV and radio channels. Broadcasters, though, will not be allowed to name channels after sponsors and the sponsorship of news programmes will not be permitted.

In motorsport there are examples of products appearing almost subliminally. Since 1984, for example, Mercedes-AMG has provided a medical car for F1 races worldwide and since 1996 a safety car. Similarly the BMW Group supports the MotoGP World Championship by providing the ‘Official Car of MotoGP. 2005 was the seventh successive year that BMW had provided MotoGP organisers Dorna, and IRTA officials, with safety cars. Up to six high performance cars were used throughout the seventeen race season with the race stewards being provided with an X5 4.4i. Additionally two identical specification BMW K1200 R PowerCup race bikes featured as safety bikes on MotoGP grids throughout the season. All of these vehicles are high profile at all Grands Prix and, for example, at the 2005 Chinese F1 GP over half an hour of the race was run under safety car conditions with the Mercedes-AMG safety car gaining considerable television airtime and visibility.

In MotoGP Segura Viudas Cava and Freixenet Champagne have at various times been sprayed on the podium whilst in F1 Moet et Chandon and Champagne Mumm

have been the official champagne of the F1 podium. Champagne Mumm likes to be associated with, “passion and prestige.....dynamism and the pursuit of perfectionism that typifies the Mumm brand... celebrating the victory of the champion. The whole “commercial opportunity”, of spraying champagne at race end started accidentally when Dan Gurney won the 1969 Le Mans 24 Hours and Jackie Stewart the French GP (Stewart, 2007, pages 200 – 201).

It may be argued that sparkling wine and vehicles are both forms of product placement in what are highly televisual sports. Product placement is defined either as, “the inclusion of consumer products or services in motion pictures for promotional purposes” (Nebenzhal & Secunda, 1993) or as, “the placement of a brand or a firm in a movie or in a television programme by different means for promotional purposes” (d’Astous & Seguin, 1999).

Product placement is a form of broadcast or television sponsorship, and is a marketing activity that has been growing in popularity (Dupaul, 1992). According to Gay (1998) the intention is to use this alternative to traditional TV advertising to gain goodwill by association with a popular programme targeted at a selected audience. It is also a methodology that is used to prevent communication interference from competitors (such as ambush marketing) as well as reducing the effects of “zapping” (Meenaghan, 1991b). It is a valuable source of income to help cover the production costs of a television programme too (Des Roberts, 2004).

According to d’Astous and Seguin (1999) product placement strategies have been generally classified into three main types:

- **Implicit** – where the product plays a passive contextual role – the brand name appears without a clear demonstration of product benefits.
- **Integrated explicit** – the product plays an active role and its attributes and benefits are clearly demonstrated.
- **Non-integrated explicit** – the brand is formally expressed but is not integrated with the contents of the programme. The sponsor’s name may be stated at the beginning, during or at the end of the programme.

Certainly where Mercedes-AMG, BMW and Mumm Champagne are concerned their appearances may be defined as implicit whilst the sponsors of ITV’s 2005 coverage of F1, LG Electronics, is non-integrated explicit.

Pseudo product placements are common in Touring Car racing and the World Rally Championship. Here the vehicles involved outwardly resemble standard road vehicles, even though they are considerably modified both mechanically and for safety. It could certainly be argued that these competition vehicles are demonstrating integrated explicit product placement.

Parker (1991) established that UK consumers are positive towards television sponsorship. Attitudes are important as the literature indicates that these will be enhanced, as will the sponsor's image, if there is a strong link between the sponsor and the sponsored activity (d'Astous & Seguin, 1999; d'Astous & Bitz, 1995; McDonald, 1991; Meenaghan, 1983; Parker, 1991). Dambron (1991) found that the type of television programme has an impact on consumer reactions to product placement with news programmes expected to be objective and free from product placement. D'Astous & Seguin (1999) felt that where sports programmes are concerned the sponsoring is more likely to be linked to the event rather than the programme as perhaps Mercedes-AMG and Mumm illustrate.

3.2.4 The relationship between sponsorship and public relations

Public Relations (PR) is variously described as, “the acts of communicating what you are to the public” (NEJC, 2005), “the business of generating goodwill toward an individual, cause, company, or product” (Motto, 2005) or “the determined, planned and sustained effort to establish and maintain mutual understanding between an organisation and its publics. Public relations is also understood as reputation management” (CIPR, 2005). Sport public relations (Shank, 1999) links public relations is, “the element of the promotional mix that identifies, establishes, and maintains mutually beneficial relationships between the sports organisations and the various publics on which its success or failure depends”.

Although, as Kitchen (1997) observed, sponsorship is largely ignored in the public relations marketing literature some researchers regard it as a function of public relations (Lancaster & Massingham, 1993; Kotler, 1994; Hill, 1994). Lagae (2005, pages 12-13) further describes marketing communications or promotion as, “establishing contact with consumers and organisations to influence their knowledge, attitudes and behaviours in a direction that is favourable for the marketing policy”. In building up trust and goodwill amongst audiences, “public relations (PR) activities are often employed for this goal”.

Corporations use public relations for the identification, establishment and maintenance of mutually beneficial relationships with stakeholders upon which success depends. Stakeholders (Lagae, 2005, page 13) are, “organizations or groups of individuals with whom the organization wants to create goodwill through acts of hospitality and/or press approach”. The relationship and overlap with sponsorship and marketing communications is evident.

The literature that addresses public relations refers to its impact upon publics, audiences and stakeholders. Brooks (1994) divided publics into internal publics, which may be directly controlled by sports marketers, and external publics which are outside their control. She defines external publics as the community, sanctioning bodies, intermediaries and the competition. Internal publics are identified as volunteers, employees, suppliers, athletes and spectators who are associated with manufacturing, distribution and consumption of the sport itself.

Some of the public relations techniques used to target specific publics include the generation of publicity through news releases and press conferences, participation in community events, production of written materials including annual reports and press guides and lobbying, which might include some personal selling (Zikmund & d’Amico, 1993). Shank (1999, page 357) discussed the potential of an integrated public relations and sponsorship plan and how promotion objectives may be achieved when they combine.

Public relations has been confused with publicity in the literature (Van Heerden, 2001) and the difference need to be recognized. Publicity objectives are more short-term whilst public relations objectives are usually long-term. Harlow (1976, page 36) offered a definition of public relations which is quoted in Van Heerden, (2001) that it is, “a managerial function that aims to achieve mutual two-way communication between a firm and its different publics”. Jobber (1995, page 439) defines publicity as, “the communication about a product or organisation by placing of news about it in the media without paying for the time or space directly”.

To further refine the relationship between public relations and sponsorship the literature reveals the concept of marketing public relations (MPR) as defined by Harris (1993, page 12). This is, “the process of planning, executing and evaluating programs that encourages purchase and consumer satisfaction through credible communication of information and impressions that identify companies and their

products with the needs, wants, concerns and interests of consumers”. Henry (1995, page 3) also suggests that MPR is, “a comprehensive, all-encompassing, public awareness and information program or campaign directed to mass or specialty audiences to influence increased sales or use of an organisation’s product or service”. Solomon & Stuart (1997, page 662) stated that MPR supports promotion efforts directly. The overlap of MPR objectives with sponsorship objectives, especially where product purchase decision-making is concerned, is clear.

Public relations need to be handled carefully as the experience of the Ford backed Jaguar F1 team illustrates. Cooper (2006) established that Ford’s return to F1 “inexplicably” using the Jaguar brand “seemed doomed to failure. The result was a directionless programme that lurched from disaster to disaster – a perfect lesson in how to single-handedly harm a reputation through bad PR”. Ford, he said, “managed to foul up their greatest F1 achievement of the past twenty years”. This was when the company failed in his eyes to make enough in PR terms of winning the 1994 World Championship with Benetton. Cooper said that, “The publicity was Ford’s for the taking, but they failed to capitalise on this unique PR coup. It was a master class in how to waste an opportunity”.

Proposition 13: *Public relations is important to motorsport sponsors.*

The literature had revealed the relationship between sponsorship and the parallel marketing communications specialism of public relations. The importance of public relations to motorsport sponsors was investigated by question eighteen in the research instrument.

3.2.5 Reasons for the growth of sponsorship

Sponsorship has grown into a major global industry (Meenaghan, 1998; Meenaghan & Shipley, 1999) and it has an increasing role in gaining entry to emerging markets for brands (Chajet, 1997) being the world’s fastest growing form of marketing (IEG Network, 2001) and in sports sponsorship this has been attributed to a variety of combining reasons.

Comparisons of sponsorship with advertising are numerous. Changing government policies on the advertising of products with an anti-social aura (Meenaghan, 1983) is seen as having been critical. The literature recognises that tobacco manufacturers

banned from advertising on television find the sponsorship of a top GP team's cars makes great sense in return for the exposure received which would not be possible with straight advertising (David Thomas, 1995). The escalating cost of advertising (Meenaghan, 1983; Meenaghan & Shipley, 1999; Otker, 1988), the growing indifference to mass media advertising (Otker, 1988; Grimes & Meenaghan, 1998) and the taxation benefits of sponsorship involvement (Meenaghan, 1983) have been contributory factors too. Both Burke & Edell (1989) and Hughes (1992) identified the additional problem of "wearout" of TV advertisements.

Reasons for sponsoring cross geographical boundaries as in China, for example, advertising in the traditional media has become more expensive and less effective. Event marketing and sponsorship can, according to Fan & Pfitzenmaier (2002), provide firms with a good alternative when combined with integrated marketing communications. "The sponsorship of popular sports, music and cultural events, are effective in forging direct contact with opinion leaders, gathering marketing intelligence and encouraging product trials".

Sponsorship has emerged as a proven and worthwhile promotion and marketing activity (Sandler & Shani, 1989; Meenaghan, 1991a) as inefficiencies have shown up in other media such as clutter (Meenaghan, 1991b). Meenaghan & Shipley (1999) found that cost effective access to markets, its versatility and its ability to achieve a variety of objectives were all reasons for sponsorship's growth. Sponsorship has increasingly been seen to be suitable for corporate image development (Meenaghan, 1983) as new opportunities have increased, thanks to increased leisure time, an increasing event and leisure oriented society and the changing life-style of consumers (Meenaghan, 1983 & 1991a; Meenaghan & Shipley, 1999; Otker, 1988). Sponsorship has additionally been used as a replacement for other forms of funding of leisure activity (Otker, 1988).

As the number of media channels has extended, media coverage of suitable sponsorship vehicles (Meenaghan, 1983 and 1991a; Otker, 1988) has mirrored the need for increasing numbers of attractive programmes such as those created around sport and cultural activities (Otker, 1988). Mintel (2002) stated that, "increasingly media coverage is dictating which sports are sponsored" backing up Crowley (1991) who had found that media coverage was regarded by sponsors as the most important means of exploiting their sponsorship investment.

The greater the interest in a sport, event, club or organisation, the more valuable it has found to be as a sponsorship opportunity along with the profile matching that of the sponsoring company, product or brand (Intel, 2002). The same research went on to state, "simply put, the more airtime a sport receives, the more opportunity for brand / company logo placement and recognition.....Whilst cable and satellite TV cannot deliver the mass audiences of terrestrial TV, they can deliver highly targeted audiences and they also offer more opportunities for TV coverage for more niche sports".

The use of sponsorship by financial institutions to generate media attention has in fact been a key element in enabling their "previous faceless, conservative and unapproachable perception to be replaced by a human face and a modern image by the development of customer awareness at both corporate and brand level" (Thwaites *et al*, 1992). McElhatton (1995) quoted a bank that sponsored six "popular culture" events to focus on people's leisure interests involving televised national events.

3.2.6 Benefits of Sponsorship

There is an acceptance that sponsorship is beneficial from the casual spectator who believes it keeps down the cost of attendance (ISS, 1997) and this is corroborated in most European countries (Parker, 1991). Sponsorship benefits not only large corporations and international events but also small businesses and regional events

Table: 3.4
BENEFITS ATTRIBUTED TO SPONSORSHIP

<u>Benefit</u>	<u>Regarded as most important</u> %	<u>Regarded as also significant</u> %
Public Relations	40	42
Enhancing Company Image	13	48
Specific Brand Promotion	7	15
Press or TV Coverage	5	22
Entertain Clients	7	13
Improving Staff Relations	6	-
Developing Personal Interests in the sponsored activity	-	5
An opportunity for Social Altruism	4	23
Other	18	25

(Source: System Three as published in Waite, 1979)

(Mack, 1999). It also plays a significant role in increasing sales, enhancing corporate image and leveraging employee morale (Dolphin, 2003).

Waite's (1979) research identified the benefits of sponsorship (Table 3.4).

The ISBA (1993) said the benefits of sponsorship are achieving favourable publicity, image enhancement, reaching a highly targeted audience in a responsive mood, increased company and brand awareness and as a central focus for multi-discipline marketing and communications campaigns. This compares with Meenaghan's (1983) broad corporate objectives for sponsorship of using it as a medium for community involvement, to increase public awareness of the company, to alter public perception, to build goodwill among opinion-formers and decision-makers, to reassure policy holders and stockholders, to counter adverse publicity, as an aid to staff relations, to assist staff recruitment, to identify with a particular market segment and to facilitate prospecting for salespeople. Meenaghan (1984) subsequently refined this to increase public awareness of the company, the product, or both to alter or reinforce public perception.

Mintel (1989) stated that the most common objectives of sponsorship are to increase consumer awareness, enhance or change image, improve trade relations and staff morale and to increase the company's sales. Tripoldi (2001) identified that an objective of Ansett Airline's sponsorship of the Sydney 2000 Olympics was to boost staff morale and associated productivity levels.

Crompton (1996) found a number of benefits to business of sponsorship (Table 3.5).

Similarly, Sponsorvision (1997) identified the motives for companies using sponsorship (Table 3.6).

Table 3.6 Why companies sponsor – See Appendix 5.

Marshall and Cook (1992) examined *The Times* top 1000 companies and found that the main reasons for undertaking sports sponsorship were corporate image, covering target audience, potential TV and press coverage. Scott & Suchard (1992) researched 512 businesses in Australia and the two most popular reasons for sports sponsorship there were media coverage and company and product awareness.

Table 3.5

SPONSORSHIP BENEFITS THAT MAY BE SOUGHT BY BUSINESSES

1. Increase awareness:

- a. Create awareness on a new product
- b. Increase awareness of an existing product in new target markets
- c. Bypass legal prohibition on television imposed upon tobacco and liquor product

2. Image enhancement:

- a. Create an image for a new product
- b. Reinforce the image of an existing product
- c. Change public perceptions of an existing product
- d. Counter negative or adverse publicity
- e. Build pride among employees and distributors for the product
- f. Assist employee recruitment

3. Product trial or sales opportunities:

- a. Offer product trial to potential new customers
- b. Induce incremental sales through promotional give-aways, coupon tie-ins
- c. Create on-site sales opportunities
- d. Promote a different use of an existing product
- e. Reinforce the image of an existing product

4. Hospitality opportunities:

- a. Develop bonding with key customers, distributors and employees
- b. Develop in-house incentive opportunities

(Crompton, 1996, page 200)

3.2.7 Reasons for using sponsorship as a means of marketing communication

Sandler and Shani (1993) postulated that there are three objectives for employing sponsorship in sport marketing. These are media, corporate and marketing orientated objectives.

Media objectives surround the cost effectiveness of the medium combined with the ability to reach target markets. The literature identifies that the achievement of media coverage is a major reason for entering into a sponsorship (Abratt, *et al*, 1987) although Marshall (1991) said that where the TV media is concerned this is not the only source of sponsorship awareness, referring to advertising and PR as additional factors. Hansen and Scotwin (1995) made the point that in countries where there is

limited commercial television sponsorship may be the only way in which a company can get its brand name onto the TV-screen.

Controversially, though, Cornwell (1995) and Kuzma *et al* (1993) postulated that media objectives of sponsorship have been largely discounted by both theoreticians and practitioners.

Corporate objectives of sponsorship are mostly image related and have been extensively addressed (Armstrong, 1988; Cornwell, 1995; Javalgi *et al*, 1994; Witcher *et al*, 1991; Yeo, 1989). Research amongst managers of sponsored events has revealed that brand-related and corporate image reasons predominate (Gross, Javalgi and Traylor, 1992). Sponsorship can enhance corporate image but such an outcome is not automatic if consumers held prior negative perceptions (Javalgi *et al*, 1994).

Marketing objectives usually involve brand promotion and sales increases as identified by Irwin and Asimakopoulos (1992) and Mescon and Tilson (1987) amongst others. Fahey *et al* (2004) found that the predominant goal of many sponsors is to achieve corporate or brand-positioning. Brand awareness and brand attitude or brand image objectives are also commonplace (Meenaghan, 1996; Hoek *et al*, 1997; Gwinner & Eaton, 1999). Many researchers have identified a “halo effect” or “rub-off effect” by which a sponsorship may define, enhance or repair their image (Fakey *et al*, 2004, Olivier & Kraak, 1997; Meenaghan, 1991a; Stipp & Schiavone, 1996; Stipp, 1998; Turco, 1995; Nebenzahl & Jaffe, 1991).

Both Quinn (1982) and Levin (1993) gave their independent reasons for entry into sponsorships as shown in Tables 3.7 and 3.8.

Table: 3.7
REASONS FOR ENTERING INTO SPONSORSHIP

Reasons	%
In response to requests from organisations/individuals	25
To develop/maintain the corporate image	20.8
To give a return to the community	12.5
To gain publicity for the company/products	12.5
To be seen as benevolent	8.3
To reflect the interests of management	8.3
To go across the full spectrum of media activities	4.2
To get feedback from consumers	4.2

(Source: Edel Quinn, "Sponsorship as a Marketing Tool", University College, Dublin, 1982 as published in Meenaghan, 1983)

Quinn (1982) polled organisations in Ireland that made use of sponsorship (Table 3.7). Her findings showed broad objectives being targeted rather than specifics. Levin (1993) meanwhile found different reasons for sponsorship (Table 3.8).

Table: 3.8
MOST COMMON REASONS MARKETEERS SPONSOR EVENTS

- Increase awareness of company or product name
- Identification with a particular lifestyle
- Differentiate product from competitors
- Enhance commitment to community or ethnic group
- Entertain key clients; business-to-business marketing
- Merchandising opportunities.
- Shape or reinforce the public's perception of a product's attributes
- Impact the bottom line

(Source: Levin, 1993)

Meenaghan (1983) found that an advantage of sponsorship is that it may offer the opportunity to achieve, "several objectives in a single campaign". Such objectives included keeping the company name before the public, building goodwill among decision-makers and opinion-formers and portraying a socially concerned company to the public. He illustrated his "multiple objective" point by referring to Yardley's motor racing sponsorship which was successfully used to modernise its corporate

image whilst also providing a platform for the promotion of a new range of male toiletries.

Proposition 15: *The audience is important to motorsport stakeholders.*

The literature had revealed a series of potential audiences for motorsport sponsors. These were examined by question twenty-one in the research instrument.

3.2.8 Corporate Hospitality and Relationship Marketing

One aim of sponsorship is to provide consumers with a pleasant experience that can be associated with a sponsor’s name and product. Often corporate hospitality used to leverage this objective. Corporate hospitality involves, “events and activities organized for the benefit of companies that wish to entertain clients, or prospective clients of employees, at the company’s expense” (Baxter, 2000). According to Flock (1999) corporate hospitality is an extension of relationship marketing which may be used to build trust and loyalty, shape or shift client perceptions of corporate identity and to develop favourable “word-of-mouth” perceptions. Irwin (2002) additionally said that corporate hospitality could assist in retaining profitable business, increasing sales from existing customers, win back profitable business and gain new customers. Glyn Thomas (1995) argued that a key reason for using sponsorship is to entertain clients or customers and to engender goodwill. Where engendering goodwill is concerned in a motorsport setting employee association with has been found to create, “a sense of urgency, a role model” (Byrnes, 1994). Carlyle *et al* (2004, page 2) discussed how BAT used its motorsport sponsorship to build relationships and to close deals as well as engendering corporate goodwill (BAT, 2004a). Hosting guests at races and events was intended to help develop relationships with key business contacts in a format described as “tickling the soft underbelly of the decision makers” (BAT, 2004b).

Surprisingly, when Shell’s managers reviewed their sponsorship of Ferrari in Formula 1 in 2000 they held the view that it, “only provided an opportunity for corporate hospitality”. Whilst this was a somewhat naïve assertion it did emphasizes the perceived importance of hospitality (Verity, 2002, page 162).

Where motorsport is concerned the literature reveals that small companies which enter into F1 sponsorship often do so because the owner or managing director is a F1

fan and the arrangement is a means of, "breaching the stout barrier [of exclusivity?] defending the inner sanctum of the sport" (Hamilton, 1994).

Problems often associated with corporate hospitality from the perception of the recipient include the large variety of invitations received by some individuals (Luckhurst, 1998), which makes them more demanding and selective (Chetwynd, 1998). The number of hospitality opportunities is increasing and those who receive invitations are becoming more selective. For example, *Special Events Report* (1990) revealed that in the USA the average trade manager annually received five invitations to National Association for Stock Car Auto Racing (NASCAR) events. Five years previously there would only have been one. The report suggested that the trade manager, "will look for the best package". Another problem is that some invitees will link an invitation with a low-level form of bribery (Chetwynd, 1998), which may make them decline the offer.

Subsequently Crompton (1996) stated that the hospitality side of sponsorship allowed potential customers to spend quality time with a company and its products. McCabe (1989) had already said that, "when you reach prospects who are interested in or are attending an event, they are yours. They are there because they want to be. They're part of the event and in a receptive mood".

Where the logistics of hospitality at races is concerned an illustration of the importance was revealed at Monaco in 1995. There the Williams F1 team hosted, 140 people from Rothmans, 100 from Renault, 20 from Elf, four VIPs from the coffee suppliers Segafredo, a small number from the Reh Group (a German company which owns Black Tower wine) and six chief executives from companies taking a look at GP racing with an eye to future sponsorship involvement. The team rented the top floor of a harbourside apartment block with a view of the circuit and capable of seating forty people for lunch as well as three floors of the apartment block positioned next to the Royal Box (Nicholson and Hamilton, 1995).

3.2.8.1 Exclusivity

Hospitality and motorsport appear to go hand in hand with the concept being used to target both interested new and existing proven customers. Hospitality or guest hospitality refers to opportunities during which the company can make, "face-to-face contact with selected publics in a prestigious social context," in order to strengthen

and personalize relationships with decision makers, trade channels and business associates (Meenaghan, 1983). For prestigious one can, of course, read exclusive.

Both F1, with its *Paddock Club*, and MotoGP's *VIP Village* operate with a similar philosophy of exclusivity. The MotoGP VIP Village gives the opportunity to enjoy the racing in an “exclusive and unique” way (VIP Village, 2005). In F1's Paddock Club™ meanwhile aims to provide, “an opportunity to entertain clients, employees and friends to an exclusive experience” (F1 Paddock Club, 2005). Dorna and IRTA, which operate the MotoGP Village, have taken the concept of exclusivity further by differentiating its offer by providing a separate VIP hospitality area for MotoGP sponsors and their guests from those areas assigned to the 125cc and 250cc sponsors. Improved viewing, parking and function facilities are provided. The reasoning behind this was it had been found that the existing hospitality facilities to be found at MotoGP meetings had not always matched up to the “social cachet that appeals to some sponsors” that is to be found in Formula One (Trimby, 2007).

Garrett (2008) cautions that whilst F1 is very good at serving the corporate audience it has lost focus on the spectators. “Exclusivity”, he says, “is high on aspiration but its pretty low on fan involvement. And high aspiration and low involvement is not enough to sustain the long-term growth of the sport”. Turner (2005, pages 182) said that F1's exclusivity was a problem for Americans who didn't have time for ‘precious’ sports (Turner, 2005, page 182).

3.2.9 Sponsorship and product purchase decisions

Sponsorship objectives may be regarded as being either direct or indirect. Direct objectives operate in the short-term for an effect on product consumption and sales, whilst indirect objectives “ultimately lead to the desired goal of enhancing sales”. Generating awareness, meeting and beating the competition, reaching new target markets, building relationships and improving image are all examples of indirect sponsorship objectives (Shank 1999, page 372).

The AIDA (Awareness-Interest-Desire-Action) concept identifies the stages through which potential consumers may progress before purchasing a product (Crompton and Lamb, 1986; Lamb *et al*, 1992; Crompton, 1996). A hierarchy-of-effects model may

be constructed as originally proposed by Lavidge and Steiner (1961) as shown in Table 3.9.

AIDA stages	Hierarchy-of-effects stages
Awareness	Awareness
Interest	Knowledge
Desire	Liking
Action	Preference
	Intention
	Purchase

(Source: Crompton, 1966, page 202)

Another way of expressing these sequential steps is that the consumer experiences ‘think’, ‘feel’ and ‘do’ when stimulated by marketing communication (Pope & Turco, 2001).

Sponsorship influences awareness, interest and desire. Similarly it influences, where the hierarchy-of-effects stages are concerned, awareness, knowledge, liking, intention and in some situations purchase (Dolphin, 2003). These effects of sponsorship are further illustrated in Table 3.10.

Table 3.10 shows that the process of making a product purchase decision takes place over a period of time and sponsorship may be designed to move a customer from one stage to another. Depending on which stage one is at the application of sponsorship may vary as shown. Verity (2002, page 163) supported sponsorship’s product purchase decision effect when she described what she called “the basic model for any sponsorship” as being, “the same as that for all brand marketing support activities”. She defined these activities as:

1. Build awareness, *which leads to ...*
2. top of mind, positive brand image dimensions, *which leads to ...*
3. brand preference, *which leads to ...*
4. repeat purchase and loyalty.

Table: 3.10
THE ROLE OF SPONSORSHIP IN THE PRODUCT ADOPTION
MODEL PROCESSES

Product Adoption Process		Potential Sponsorship Benefits
Awareness:	an individual becomes aware of the existence of a particular product and acquires some limited knowledge of its attributes.	AWARENESS.
Interest:	more detailed knowledge of the product's benefits are acquired. Interest and preference for it develop or a favourable attitude towards it emerges. A distinctive image of it evolves.	IMAGE ENHANCEMENT. HOSPITALITY OPPORTUNITIES.
Desire:	an appraisal of the product's merits OR is made. If it is perceived to meet an individual's needs better than alternative offerings, then there is a desire or intent to purchase.	PRODUCT TRIAL SALES OPPORTUNITIES.
Purchase action:	this is the culmination of all that OR has gone before and the product is purchased or rejected.	PRODUCT TRIAL SALES OPPORTUNITIES.
Reinforcement:	Consolidate loyalty to product OR	IMAGE ENHANCEMENT. PRODUCT TRIAL SALES OPPORTUNITIES. HOSPITALITY OPPORTUNITIES.

(Source: Crompton, 1966, pages 202 - 203)

Research has shown that consumers are more likely to buy a sponsor's products as opposed to those of a non-sponsor. Where an event is concerned frequency of attendance and education become “significant predictors” of a purchase intention (Daneshvary & Schwer, 2000; Walliser, 2003). Intention to purchase, though, has

been found to be more optimistic than actual purchase (Pope, 1998a; Bennett, 1999), indicating the importance of the point of measurement.

The theory of consumption values (Sheth *et al*, 1991a, 1991b) established that consumers attach different values to product groups and that these affect motivations to purchase. Pope (1988) suggested that where, for example, an automobile is concerned some consumers might purchase for style (a social value) whilst others may look for fuel economy (a functional value).

Sheth (1991a) found that the consumer attaches the following values to a product or an object:

- Functional – perceived utility
- Social – association with social groups
- Emotional – affective or emotional response
- Epistemic – curiosity, novelty or knowledge seeking
- Conditional – circumstance of use

Schiffman and Kanuk (1991) described the theory of consumption values as being both neat and simple. Certainly as far as this research is concerned the range of values attached to objects suggest that sponsorship may well influence purchase decisions, especially by attaching long established values such as performance and reliability to products such as an automobile. Dr Ulrich Bez, CEO of Aston Martin, for example, firmly believed that, “motor racing is the best forum in which to demonstrate performance” (Henry, 2005a, page 126). Should performance be a reason that one might buy an Aston Martin, which seems very likely, then motorsport competition should in theory increase unit sales. One may also associate performance with products too. Renault, for example, has over the years produced products specifically linked to their motorsport participation. The *Renault Clio Williams* was offered as part of their passenger car range in 1994 when their engines also powered the Williams F1 cars. In 2005 the company capitalized on the fact that Spaniard Fernando Alonso was chasing the world championship title by producing the *Renault Megane Sport F1*. Their Spanish sales rose by 10% (Nottage, 2006).

Indeed, Pope (1998) tested the hypothesis that, "those respondents who are aware of sport sponsorship by a corporation will attach significantly higher ratings of all or some of the consumption values relating to the corporation's brands than those who are not aware of the corporation's sponsorship of sport". It was found that the hypothesis was supported and where sponsorship activity was recalled, consumption values were rated highest in the product categories of automobiles, banks, beer and breakfast cereals. Hansen and Scotwin's (1995) research established that in the product purchase process sponsorship might be more efficient for lesser known companies or brands.

Many organizations become involved with sponsorship to increase sales (Turco, 1994; Wilson, 1997) although some sponsors are not sure whether this is actually being achieved. Crimmins and Horn (1996) were more positive when they found that 60% of the US adult population would purchase a company's product if they supported sport in the form of the Olympic Games. Gardner and Shuman's (1987) research indicated that 53% of private individuals felt that sponsorship had made them more likely to purchase a sponsored brand with those over fifty years of age being the most positive. 51% of senior supermarket managers who responded felt that sponsorships increased the likelihood of a consumer buying the sponsored brand. Fisher and Wakefield (1998) established that the greater the identification an individual has with a sponsored group or team the greater their willingness to engage in consumptive behaviours that support that team. Shannon and Turley (1997) had found that more than 70% of their respondents would buy a product or patronize a company when it was advertised at a basketball game. 56% said that they had actually patronized a business or purchased a product because of, "such advertising support for university athletics" (Moore *et al*, 1999). Indicating the power of merchandising Stotlar and Johnson (1989) found that sales of products both advertised and available at the concession facilities at sports events increased by 33%.

Pope (1998) emphasized the importance of knowledge of the way memory is organized in order to understand the relationship between sport sponsorship awareness and consumption values. The literature shows that product information in the memory is predominately stored and organized by brand (Biehal & Chakravarti, 1982; du Plessis, 1994; Nenungadu, 1990) affecting recall but not recognition (du

Plessis, 1994; Lynch & Srull, 1982; Nenungadi, 1990; Singh *et al*, 1988). Pope (1998) makes the connection that the development of consumption values therefore does not occur solely at the point of purchase but through experience, knowledge of companies, brands, prior use and other information inputs.

Many motorsport sponsors rely on television coverage to create awareness of their product. A sobering thought for them is that Dickinson (2000) found that there was no direct relationship between what people see on television and what they consume.

3.2.9.1 Does sponsorship directly affect product purchase decisions?

Whilst sponsorship is credited with producing positive gains in key attitudinal factors that influencing sales (Marshall, 1991) elements of the literature are pessimistic about the linkages between sponsorship and product purchase decisions. Dickinson (2000) is such a pessimist and Steiner (2001), in addressing motorsport, said that, “it is almost impossible to show a direct relationship between one of the fastest moving advertising hoardings in the world and sales at the local car dealership”. Holbrook (2002) points out, though, that despite Steiner’s pessimism huge investment is still made in F1 by the world’s leading car brands which continue to use the sport as a showcase.

Shell, meanwhile, positively established from their GBT data that, “consumers who were aware of the Shell-Ferrari relationship had a higher propensity to purchase from Shell” (Verity, 2002, page 165).

According to Bremner (2006), Ferrari believe there is little linkage between their success on track and road-car sales arguing that F1 is almost invisible in the USA which is the company’s biggest market. By contrast Renault has established that 10% of their potential customers would be more motivated to buy a Renault road car than previously thanks to the company’s F1 presence. In China the figure is higher at 27%, although the company admits that it is difficult to measure the direct impact of a race win in sales figures. Mercedes believes it sells more cars thanks to F1 whilst Toyota “hasn’t quantified the connection between F1 and car sales”. Renault reckon that the global publicity generated by their F1 World Championships of 2005 and 2006 is

very important to them in aim to increase worldwide car sales from 2.5 million to 3 million cars by 2009 (Henry *et al*, 2007 page 136).

Dutch financial services company ING credit their sponsorship of Renault in F1 in 2007 as having directly increased their sales worldwide. The company credits their F1 sponsorship as having directly led to 14,000 new accounts being opened, 15,000 F1 credit cards issued and 1800 car vandalism insurance policies being taken out in the Benelux countries. Conner (2007) said that F1 is, "a machine that generates [sales] leads like crazy.....F1 is a good way to get a foot in the door". The total business created on the back of F1 was 1 billion euros. To back this up she said that through direct linkages with F1 ING's European Insurance businesses had generated 15,000 leads in Hungary, 5,400 leads in Bulgaria and 6,800 leads in the Czech Republic.

Hamilton (Holbrook, 2002, page 38) was certain that the motor manufacturers were sales-orientated when entering into motorsport related sponsorships. They accentuate brand values he says to, "ultimately sell motor cars by strengthening their image by an involvement at the top levels of motorsport and generally creating the impression of them being at the forefront of technology". Hamilton went on to raise the problem of a poor competitive performance on potential product purchase decisions (Holbrook, 2002, page 44). He highlighted both Peugeot's and Yamaha's F1 experience which he felt was, "a perfect example of a manufacturer who suffered as a result of a prolonged period of poor performances".

Ironically, many of the public attempts to prove that sports sponsorship affects product consumption have been carried out by individuals and organizations intent on proving the linkage to be too effective. In reality they would prefer sponsorship to be a failure. Some of these organisations are trying to establish the connection between tobacco advertising and sponsorship and tobacco consumption. Both Physicians for a Smoke-Free Canada and, in the UK, the Action on Smoking and Health (ASH) organizations have been high profile in their attempts to end tobacco sponsorship, particularly in motorsport. ASH, for example, has been at the forefront of such research finding that econometric studies, survey data and tobacco industry

documents confirm, in its view, that a positive linkage between sponsorship and tobacco increases consumption (ASH, 1999).

The US Surgeon General (1989) previously identified a number of ways in which tobacco advertising and promotion could increase tobacco consumption whilst Smeed (1993), on behalf of the UK's Department of Health, concluded that, “the balance of evidence thus supports the conclusion that advertising does have a positive effect on consumption”. The World Bank, meanwhile, found that, “research, such as surveys of children's recall of advertising messages conclude that advertising and promotion do indeed affect demand for cigarettes and attract new recruits” (Chaloupka, 1999).

Charlton *et al* (1997) found that teenage boys who are fans of motor-sport are twice as likely to smoke as those who are not and the UK Department of Health (1999) subsequently estimated that 35% of tobacco promotional expenditure was associated with F1. Whilst the statistics are unrelated the potential for a linkage between product purchase and sponsorship of motorsport is apparent. ASH (1998) postulated that the tobacco companies wanted to market to the young at a time when, “lifelong brand preferences are formed in the early teenage years and that increased visibility for their products could shape these preferences”. ASH went on to make the point that F1 has, “a massive potential to reach the young through both televised events and the spin-off merchandise”.

Physicians for a Smoke-Free Canada (2002a) found that tobacco marketers try to achieve two core goals of developing brand identity whilst entrenching ideas and feelings related to their products. As a result of all cigarettes being essentially the same, tobacco marketers communicate image rather than information. They base their campaigns on a brand's “personality” with, for example, one brand being promoted as “independent and masculine” and another as “glamorous and feminine”. Networks of associations are built up. Following market research into lifestyles and values, nuanced identities are as a result, “fed into each segment's innermost desires”. When a brand's personality is established it becomes an, “emblem of the lifestyle that product represents, or a badge product”. The brand's image then leads on to the brand's personality becoming the consumer's personality. This technique, they said, “works especially well on youth”.

Lovato *et al* (2003) linked exposure to tobacco advertising and promotion being associated with the likelihood that adolescents will start to smoke. Hastings *et al* (2003) analyzed a large number of studies and found that exposure to food advertising influenced children’s food preferences and purchasing and that there was a significant relationship between television viewing and diet. Additionally it was found that food promotion influences children’s brand and category preferences.

Research into the effects of advertising on alcohol consumption has produced mixed results (EU, 2006, page 280). Early survey research produced some evidence of links between alcohol advertising and a greater likelihood of drinking (Aitken *et al.* 1988; Atkin and Block 1980; Atkin *et al.* 1983 1984; Austin and Meili 1994; Austin and Nach-Ferguson 1995; Grube 1995; Grube and Wallack 1994; Wyllie *et al.* 1998a, b). The effects were admitted to be small and none of the studies established significant relationships (Adlaf and Kohn 1989; Strickland 1982, 1983). Further, it was difficult to establish whether the advertisements caused the behaviours, or whether pre-existing behaviours led to an increased awareness of the advertisements.

Where alcohol is concerned Snyder, *et al* (2006) concluded that, “alcohol advertising contributes to increased drinking among youth”. They established that youth who saw more alcohol advertisements on average drank more and that each additional advertisement seen increased the number of drinks consumed by 1%. Alcohol advertising, they concluded, was definitely a contributing factor to youth drinking over time.

Where sponsorship is specifically concerned sponsored events allow tobacco companies to connect the character of their product to the character of the event; “if the event is classy, the product appears classy by association”. Sponsorship of such events also, it is argued, gives companies the image of being good corporate citizens, generating goodwill. It is suggested that, “sponsorship allows tobacco companies both to enhance consumer awareness of their brands through trademark exposure, and to shape the audience’s attitudes, feelings, opinions, and beliefs about those brands at the same time. Down the line, these contribute to increased sales” (Physicians for a Smoke-Free Canada, 2002a).

In identifying a separate source of evidence Steiner (2000) felt pretty negatively that a number of motor manufacturers involved in F1 only remained in the sport as a result of fear of what might happen, “if the association were abandoned and rivals gained an advantage among the 500m viewers and potential customers that make F1 the most watched global sport today”. In practice this is very positive as it indicates that the rivals might be successful in business thanks to their continued sponsorship of motorsport.

If, therefore, there is such positive evidence of sponsorship either maintaining or increasing tobacco consumption then the same marketing communication effects must surely apply to and be readily transferred to similarly promoted products and brands. This confirms Holbrook’s (2002) finding that, “a profile generated through a motorsport campaign could influence the product purchase decision of a consumer”.

Dietrich Mateschitz, the head of Red Bull and in 2006 the owner of two F1 teams, made an important marketing point when he said, “there is not one marketing budget in the world that can bring back a disappointed consumer. If the product doesn’t deliver what it promises, then nothing helps. You will never experience long-term success with a marketing gimmick. The real success comes when the re-purchase rate is good” (Volker, 2006).

Proposition 17: *Increased revenue is important to motorsport sponsors.*

The literature refers to the importance of product purchase decisions as an aim of sponsorship. Question twenty-three in the research instrument addresses the importance of the “bottom line” to the sponsor.

3.2.10 Brands

“The importance of branding as a marketing tool is undisputed”

(Quester and Farrelly, 1998)

The literature reveals a number of definitions of a "brand" and those that follow are felt not only to be contemporary but also to acknowledge the concept of adding value to products or services. A brand is the way in which a product or service is presented and communicated in the market emphasizing its packaging, point-of-sale support, sales literature, PR, advertising, sponsorship; and also, its pricing policy and distribution channels. A product's personality or identity is expressed through a brand which is developed by consumer perceptions of the product and its lifestyle benefits. A brand image will be achieved which reflects the values attached to a particular brand and one of the aims of the marketer is to create brand loyalty which is the consumer's insistence on always purchasing or using one brand rather than another. Brand imagery was originally applied to products but has increasingly been extended to both services and the umbrella corporations themselves (Grier, 1991; King, 1989; Levy, 1990). The literature identifies that a brand is the means by which a company differentiates its products from those of the competition and, through marketing, to protect its position in the market, profitably, over time (White, 1999). A brand is a construct of in-built physical characteristics and functional features combined with intangible values and associations (Lannon, 1994) and where a product is concerned provides functional benefits plus added values that some consumers value enough to purchase (Jones, 1986a). This effect creates brand identification through which consumers feel a brand is part of whom they are. This is especially true of expensive and luxury products. In motorsport such luxury brands might include Ferrari and Ducati, for example. Through its varying elements a brand therefore permits a company to communicate with its consumers.

The term brand is used generically to refer to the employment of marketing imagery (Blackson, 1992; King, 1991; Meenaghan & Shipley, 1999). Imagery and identity need to be differentiated. The identity of a brand consists of elements sent by the brand owner whilst image is what is received by the consumer. Unhelpfully the literature shows that image and identity are often confused at the corporate level (Ind, 1990) and amongst marketing professionals the terms brand equity, brand image and brand personality are often interchangeable (Tauber, 1988, page 26). Marguiles (1977, page 66) clarified the differentiation by saying that, "identity means the sum of all the ways a company chooses to identify itself to all its publics....image on the

other hand, is the perception of the company by these publics". Sponsorship is perceived as being able to assist in both cases.

Meenaghan (1995) suggests that brand image "breathes life into an innate product...endowing it with a distinct personality and human characteristics in the eyes of the consumer". Broadbent and Cooper (1987, page 3) say that, "in order to be successful, images and symbols must relate to, and indeed, exploit, the needs, values and life-styles of consumers in such a way that the meanings involved give added values, and differentiate the brand from other brands".

Meenaghan (1995) refers to (Kotler, 1988, page 197) in stating that brand image may be defined as "the set of beliefs held about a particular brand" and a brand as, "a name, term, sign, symbol or design or combination of them, which is intended to identify the goods of one seller or group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of the competitors" (page 463). Aaker (1991, pages 109–110) defines brand image as "a set of associations, usually organized in some meaningful way". Kim (1990) made the point that the product is physical but that the brand is grafted on by advertising or sponsorship activities. Meenaghan (1995) continues by stating that, "the brand is responsible for creating the magnetic-like aura around the actual product". Brand image is also defined as, "the set of beliefs held about a particular brand" (Kotler, 1988, page 197) or "a set of associations, usually organised in some meaningful way" (Aaker, 1992, page 109-110). Meenaghan & Shipley (1999) makes the point that the physical product itself satisfies the functional benefits sought by consumers while the brand provides the required "symbolism" (Kim, 1990; Meenaghan, 1995). In effect the consumer buys firstly on 'intrinsic values' of perceived product attributes and quality levels and secondly on 'extrinsic values' formed from symbolism (McWilliam & De Charnatony, 1989, page 30). Levy (1959, page 118) suggested that, "people buy things not only for what they can do, but also for what they mean" whilst user self-image is regarded as a key motivational factor in consumer choice (Belk, 1983; Meenaghan, 1995; Sirgy, 1982).

Because consumers receive many stimuli, including those of competitors, the eventual image of a brand cannot be totally controlled by the brand owner. It is argued that sponsorship can go some way to assisting with this difficulty although,

each sponsored activity possesses its own personality, "embodying a unique set of attributes or values in the perceptions of the audience" (Meenaghan & Shipley, 1999).

Advertising additionally drives brand imagery by encouraging beliefs about the functional or intrinsic attributes of the brand and also by adding symbolic emotional or extrinsic values (Meenaghan & Shipley, 1999).

In examining brands it should be recognised that a "brand name" may be any word or illustration that clearly distinguishes one seller's products from another. The association with an effective logo can enhance impact and reinforce the name. The logo is technically known as a "visual metaphor" that contributes to the brand's strength (Biel, 1997). The selection of the correct brand name is important, as it will help communicate attributes and meaning once it is positioned in the mind of the customer. Brands can add to functionality with attributes, benefits, values and personality (Koetler, *et al.*, 1996).

Rossiter and Percy (1997) state that the best promotions in which marketers can engage are those that reinforce a positive attitude toward a brand. Brands can elicit an emotional response from consumers enabling them to express their own self or ideal self, evoking feelings of nostalgia (Belk, 1988; Elliott & Wattanasuwan, 1998). Brands can also become powerful memories connecting with people and places (Olsen, 1995). Consumers focus their purchases on goods they consider not only to be good value (Ambler, 1997) but also because of their symbolic meanings (Belk, 1998; Bourdieu, 1994; Dittmar, 1992; Douglas, 1982; Gabriel & Lang, 1995; Giddens, 1991; Goffman, 1959; McCracken, 1988). It has been suggested that advertising messages presented in surroundings that produce a pleasant emotional response should lead to a liking for the stimulus (Saegert *et al*, 1973).

Brands are of various types but "potential brands" are particularly relevant to motorsport in that they are characterised by a strong communications programme which will communicate a brand's function and psychological values, trigger trial and reinforce commitment (Doyle, 1998). Brands may also be "iconic" in that they become, "an artifact that crystallizes and embodies a set of mental associations far beyond its functionality and immediate environment" (Laverick & Johnston, 1997).

In Japan, for example, the Mini Cooper has achieved icon status and perhaps in F1 Ferrari, more than most teams, is perceived similarly.

A "brand name" is any word or illustration that clearly distinguishes one seller's goods from another and its association of a brand name with an effective logo helps to enhance and reinforce the message (Brassington & Pettit, 1997).

The associations between brands and their images are maintained by visual branding. Visual cues, such as trademark colours, lettering and graphic design combine together to deliver the advertising message long after the trademark name may have been removed; "marketers can effectively advertise their product without mentioning it by name". A "familiarity effect" is generated if a marketing message continues persistently over a period of time and the attitude that, "things encountered frequently are trusted as benign" becomes a psychological effect. Merchandising with the same colours and logos, turns "ordinary consumers into walking billboards" and allows the message to reach venues where promotional access would otherwise be denied (Physicians for a Smoke-Free Canada, 2002a). One such motorsport merchandising plan involved a proposal by BAT to distribute three million toy model racing cars with a Brazilian newspaper (BAT, 1999d).

Valentino Rossi underlined the importance of the visual branding of his MotoGP machines when he said, "the colours must be coordinated and make sense together. The visual impact must seduce the viewer immediately" (Rossi, 2005, page 175).

"Brands are the vehicles by which companies infiltrate other markets...and provide a powerful shorthand for a complex package of emotional and psychological benefits that add value to the products they endorse, and can create icon status" (Avison, 1997). Brands can be regional and global with the growing internationalisation of tastes and buying patterns (Doyle, 1998). Global brands are only really effective for those companies that have organisational structures that are appropriate for border crossing (Raffee & Kreutzer, 1989; Hankinson & Hankinson, 1998). Increasingly mobile consumers will find the same global brands in different countries featuring common brand features such as name, design, packaging and logo (Doyle, 1998).

Renault communications director, Jean-Francois Caubet, revealed such global reasons for his company’s involvement in F1 when he stated that his company wanted to develop the Renault brand in ”F1-friendly territories”, such as China, Australia and South America. In Europe, where the company was, “already a household name”, it wanted to show that its cars were technically advanced, efficient and reliable” (Cooper, 2006).

Physicians for a Smoke-Free Canada (2002b) found that tobacco marketers use sponsorship as a means of establishing connections between each brand and its specific image. They used the findings (Table 3.11) to illustrate the different images of a variety of cigarette brands which enabled marketers to create brand personalities

Table 3.11
Canadian Cigarette Brand Images – 1990s
From Industry Document Descriptions

Players	Export A	Belvedere	Canadian Classics
Independence	Independent	Youth, youthful	Independent
Freedom	Individuality	Cool, hip	Strong, proud
Self-confidence	Confidence	Sociable	Sociable
Youthful	Adventurous	Active	Adventurous
Modern	Exciting	Energetic	Excitement
Masculine	Up to Date	Unpretentious	Young
	Masculinity	Down-to-earth	Outdoorsy
	Virility	Not Rebel	Natural
	Rebellious	Fun	

Successful brands possess a unique character obtained from elements of the marketing mix with their appeal tending to be both rational and emotional (White, 1999). Successful brands meet the functional requirements of consumers and possess the added values that meet their psychological needs, including desirability and quality. A quality product is the foundation upon which all other brand associations are built with research by Moorthy & Zhao (1995) demonstrating that brands play a significant role in forming consumer's perceptions of quality. Branding allows the communication of high quality to consumers, which may lead to higher levels of

advertising, market share and profit (Tellis & Fornell, 1988). Research has variously identified that communication values intrinsic to a brand might be risk reduction, status or group identification (Rossiter & Percy, 1997), familiarity and involvement (Alba & Hutchinson, 1987; Laurent & Kapferer, 1985) or moods and social group membership (de Chernatony & McWilliam, 1990).

A brand association is, "anything linked in memory to a brand" (Aaker, 1991; Dean, D.H, 2004; Low & Lamb, 2000). Associations differentiate brands and can be a competitive advantage. For example, identification of a brand with a celebrity endorser is a recognized association. Barney (1991) said that sponsorship will only create a competitive advantage for a brand if it provides value or enables the creation of value for customers.

Parker (1991) said that before a consumer will purchase a brand they want it to be functional, demonstrating the desired product attributes at the right price, and attitudinal in that it comes from a good company for people like me. According to Doyle (1998) a successful brand demonstrates that it is an "effective product", that it has a "distinctive identity" and that it possesses "added values". A successful brand, in terms of quantity of sales, provides reassurance in itself for the consumer and ensures that the product will continue to exist and provide affordable service backup as well as product improvements (Aaker, 1991).

Brands make products easy to identify, especially if they have a strong visual presence, and may add value through association with, for example, masculinity or femininity, or alternatively through a psycho self-fulfilling effect (Jones, 1986a). Branding may help a manufacturer to segment, differentiate and position a product (Aaker & Myers, 1982) with high level sponsorships being acknowledged as one element of the marketing communication mix. The purpose of marketing is to create a preference for a brand so that consumers perceive it to be superior, prefer it and pay more for it whilst differentiating it from its competitors (Doyle, 1998). The most important element is the creation of a "brand personality" (Aaker, 1996).

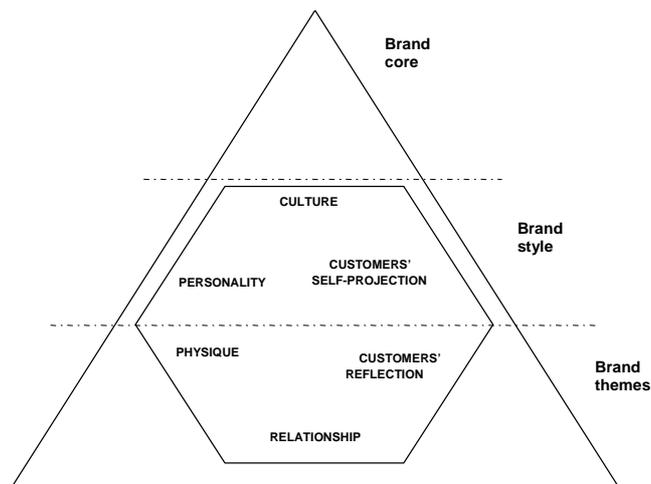


Fig 3.2

Kapferer's Brand Pyramid

"Brand identity" is the message sent out by advertising, which may form part of a "brand pyramid" (Figure 3.2). Kapferer (1994) identified within the pyramid the "brand theme" layer, where the brand communicates through advertising and sponsorship, and the "brand style" layer, which is where its personality and image are conveyed. Themes can include the physical appearance of the product, including the logo, and the relationship expressed which may include glamour and prestige. Biel (1997) argued that brand equity not only includes the financial value to the customer of the brand but also the intangible assets of "goodwill" that results from a favourable image. Keller (1993) found that customer-based brand equity occurs when the consumer is familiar with a brand and holds favourable, strong and unique brand associations in memory. Longman (1998) indicated that good advertising is a major determinant of improved brand quality, although by contrast White (1999) stated that the ability of advertising to achieve "significant changes to sales, market shares or brand attitudes is distinctly limited".

Companies are under continuous pressure to add value to brands (Denison & McDonald, 1995; Knox & Makalan, 1998) and one such concept is that of the "luxury band" (Kapferer, 1997). Additionally, reputable brand names provide consumers with "confidence" and cut through clutter. Jones (1986b) said that brand values derive from experience of use, user associations, belief in efficacy, brand appearance and the

manufacturer's name and reputation. Innovation is a key for brand associations in Japan (Aaker, 1996; Biel, 1997). Advertising and particularly sponsorship, are "used to convey positive images or prestige or success by associating the brand with glamorous personalities" through celebrity endorsement (Doyle, 1998).

Where brand reputation is concerned a specific F1 example is the need for an association with "integrity". When technical espionage was suggested allegedly involving a member of his team it was recorded that, "McLaren boss Ron Dennis had to fight back tears in a news conference on Thursday, so upset was he that his team's integrity had been impugned - integrity is a big thing with Ron" (Benson, 2007). Indeed Coulthard (2007, page 159) made the point that sponsors and manufacturers exert pressure on teams not to become involved in tension and controversy.

The literature identifies that brands are also bought for emotional reasons with vehicles being no exception. Doyle (1998) gives the example that a Mercedes is, "bought to make a personal statement as well as a means of transport". Aaker (1992) identifies the Volkswagen Beetle owner as, "someone who was not into materialism and status symbols". Spandler (1987, page 21) says that "Volvo has safety. Volkswagen has reliability....All of BMW's advertising comes back to four main planks: performance, quality, technology and prestige...Citroen is the quintessential French marque".

Indeed, manufacturers such as Jaguar recognised the power of television in changing corporate image when launching their S-Type model. This model was targeted at a younger age audience than previous Jaguar models with the company's Alan Hodge revealing that F1 helped to shed, "the old-man image of Jaguar and allowed the brand to enter a new market segment" (Holbrook, 2002). The pitfalls of image, though, are illustrated by Jaguar's association with Deputy Prime Minister, John Prescott. Far from providing the ideal celebrity endorsement, Prescott's nickname of "Two Jags" helped to "crystallize [Jaguar's] image as the car of choice of Labour council leaders and overpaid trade union officials". Far preferential was Jaguar's reputation for aerodynamic design and performance established in the 1950s, "and boosted by the racing successes of a young Stirling Moss" (Rufford, 2006).

The marketing manager will try to establish "unique" positioning for their brand (Biel, 1997) with the best promotions reinforcing a "positive brand attitude" (Rossiter & Percy, 1997). The influences of "familiarity" and "involvement" (Alba & Hutchinson, 1987; Laurent & Kapferer, 1985) affect brand attitudes as do "moods" and "social group" (de Chernatony & McWilliams, 1990). "Emotion" too influences the extent of brand recall (Mitchell & Olson, 1981).

False consensus, where individuals assume that their judgments and choices are common and appropriate to those of their valued peers (Ross, 1977), may be applied to a team's or competitor's fan base too. Baron and Byrne (1994) found that false consensus improved memory and recall of a sponsor's messages.

Mid-way through the 2007 F1 season the Vodafone McLaren Mercedes team unveiled a new race paddock facility which they called "The Brand Centre". Thoroughly grasping the concept and importance of brands this had been conceptualised, designed and built, "to present the Vodafone McLaren Mercedes brand to Partners and their guests to enhance their race weekend experience". Designed around networking and marketing communications amongst other facilities this three storey building contained four meeting rooms and "twenty office spaces for marketing and media workers" (McLaren, 2007).

Verity (2002, page 162) looked at the relationship between sponsorship and products and brands and stated that the marketing communications methodology could be used to:

- Increase target market awareness
- Build positive image dimensions
- Brand preference and increased sales
- Block the competition.

Proposition 16: *Branding is important to motorsport sponsors.*

Within the marketing literature the brand, branding and brand image are identified as important elements of the mix. The importance of branding is addressed by question twenty-two in the research instrument.

3.2.11 Awareness

“For a new company or product, sponsorship is an important way to generate widespread awareness in a short period of time”

(Shank 1999, pages 372 - 373)

In identifying how sponsorship may be employed, awareness features heavily in many lists of objectives with Doyle, (1998) saying, "Without building awareness, comprehension and intention to buy, the brand will not leave the manufacturer's shelves". Walliser (2003) identified that most studies of sponsorship indicated that awareness was a key element of the reasons for its use.

D'Astous & Bitz (1995) found that sponsorship investments generally pursue two main objectives: increasing consumer awareness and improving corporate image quoting Armstrong (1988) and Wolton (1988). Research by Phillips International into their sponsorship of the 1986 World Cup found significant impact on both consumer awareness and image (Otker & Hayes, 1987). Giannelloni (1993) identified that sport sponsorship leads to significant increases in perceptions of a firm's dynamism and attractiveness. The literature also found motivations being either “general awareness” by the public of the sponsor (Renner & Tischler, 1977) or associations with specific events and activities (Muller, 1983; Couty, 1994, Easton & Mackie, 1998; Walliser, 2003). Verity (2002, page 162) found that “public awareness of an organisation” is a corporate-related objective of a sponsorship communication programme.

Awareness is regarded in the marketing communications literature as an important element of the consumer's product purchase decision. Sleight (1989) underlined this by saying that unless an audience is aware of a product they cannot make purchasing decisions and White (1999) said that awareness is necessary to aid sales of a brand. Pope (1998) emphasized that consumer awareness of sponsorship activities should benefit the sponsor where consumer attitudes towards the corporation are concerned as well as in terms of the purchase of the corporation's brands.

In analysing what advertising does for a brand, hierarchy-of-effects models are traditionally used such as that known as AIDA (Attention-Interest-Desire-Action) which actually originated in 1898 (Ambler, 1998). Both the AIDA concept (Crompton, 1966 and 1996; Lamb, *et al* 1992) and other hierarchy-of-effects models (Lavidge & Steiner, 1961) have been identified as the stages through which potential consumers proceed before purchasing a product. Advertising works by changing brand attitudes through the AIDA model (Joyce, 1967).

In the literature White (1999) regards the AIDA and hierarchy-of-effects models as a "mistaken-over-simplification" referring to Vakaratas & Ambler (1996) who wanted existing models to take more notice of "experience", "affect" and "cognition". Ambler (1998) additionally wanted "prior experience" and, along with Du Plessis (1998a) a "learning phase" to be taken into account between advertisement and purchase. Miller & Berry (1998) said that the AIDA model was merely stating the obvious. Variations on the AIDA theme have variously been proposed (Vaughn, 1980; Preston; 1982) but it was Achenbaum (1972) who originally identified that "sensory", "evaluative" and "emotional" brand attributes are communicated by advertising.

Emotion is particularly important for brands involved in motorsport and Du Plessis (1998b) emphasised its importance in the way in which memories are laid down and how formative emotion is in decision-making.

Crompton (1996) said that a well-known company with a high level of awareness would not use sponsorship for awareness reasons because effect would be marginal. If, alternatively, a company had low awareness, sponsorship may be effectively used to increase the number of potential customers. Hansen & Scotwin (1995) also agreed that sponsoring is more useful in situations where there is a need for generating increased awareness, than in situations where specific information has to be provided or where the attempt is to modify attitudes relating to the product.

According to Pope (1998) the assumptions underlying sponsorship objectives relating to sales are that:

- Consumers will be aware of the sponsorship activity; and
- Be aware of the sponsoring corporation's brands.

To be aware of a product and to make a purchasing decision there needs to be both recognition and recall. Pope (1998) confirmed that the provision of a stimulus enhances the efficacy of information accessibility and results in higher scores for recognition over recall (du Plessis, 1994; Lynch & Srull, 1982; Singh *et al*, 1988). It has been found that where low involvement products are concerned, such as those found in a retail location, recognition influences the purchase decision. High involvement products, meanwhile, where purchase decisions may be made remotely from home or in the absence of the goods, a recall level of awareness becomes a determining factor (Myers-Levy & Maheswaran, 1991; Singh *et al*, 1988). Pope (1998) established that, “awareness of sponsorship and any possible effect it might have on brand and purchase attitudes – particularly given that sponsors come from a wide range of product categories with varying involvement levels – is best measured by recall as opposed to recognition”.

3.2.12 Recall

To be aware of marketing messages the audience has to be able to recognize or recall the message. The literature regarding recall commenced as long ago as 1912 (Strong, 1912) and continues to the present day to identify the effectiveness of advertising. Quester and Farrelly (1998) identify memory and brand recall as being critical to associative connections between the sponsor and sponsored. Linking favourable feelings, such as emotion and involvement, through association via sponsorship may create a persuasive influence where product purchase decisions are concerned. Emotion is felt to be critical to brand recall (Mitchell & Olson, 1981).

Walliser (1994) found that sponsorship recall is influenced by a number of variables including the conditions of exposure, the product, the message, the target characteristics and sponsorship integration.

An advertiser’s aim is to embed the message in the audience’s long-term memory and in some cases recall can last for a decade or more (Berkman and Dacin, 1985). Crimmins and Horn (1996) identified that recall diminished with time and that the duration of the campaign surrounding the direct sponsorship is critical. Quester & Farrelly (1998) addressed the concept of memory decay being a surrogate indicator of the strength of a brands association with a sponsored sport or event. They used the Australian F1 GP as the basis for their research.

The measurement of recall is either aided or unaided (Bovee *et al.*, 1995) with the latter often producing lower scores than the former (Berkman & Gibson, 1987). Research conducted shortly after Euro 2000 (Performance Research, 2000b) found that during spontaneous sponsorship awareness questioning half of the fans were unable to name any sponsors involved with the tournament. Prompted awareness questioning was better with 85% identifying Umbro, which was a sponsor of the England team.

Turley & Shannon (2000) found that advertisers who invested in advertisements at single games are less likely to achieve positive message effects than those who used season-long packages. The increased frequency of exposure to advertisements yielded the highest impact on recall. This is recognised by marketers as increasing “message frequency” and moving towards “message saturation”, or the frequent presentation of a specific message, often in a variety of media, so that the audience is repeatedly exposed to that message. Tellis (1997) identified “minimalists” who believed single exposure to an advertisement to be sufficient while “repetitionists” argue that repeated advertising is needed to achieve results. Turley & Shannon (2000) state that, “frequent and repeated exposures are more likely to cause sports fans to recall ads and to affect their purchase intentions and actual purchasing behaviour”. They established that, “frequency of exposure to the ad is the independent variable which has the largest impact on recall”. They advised advertisers to consider long term commitments, possibly for several sporting seasons, for their ads to achieve

maximum levels of recall and effectiveness. McDonald (1991) stated that long-term sponsorships may do much to enhance corporate image. Meenaghan and Shipley (1999) urged caution as they established that perceived over-exploitation of sponsorships reduced the level of goodwill accorded to the sponsor. Benveniste and Piquet (1988) suggested that continuous sponsorship is likely to have more impact because it takes time to become a credible sponsor. Similarly Gilbert (1988) argued that sponsorship benefits are likely to increase with time. Meenaghan (1983), though, cautioned that there may be a gradual decrease in interest in a sponsor over time and highlighted the novelty value of a one-shot sponsorship. Graham's (1998) research, making use of the Cadillac PGA Golf Tournament, questioned consumers' long-term ability to recall even title event sponsors whilst Stotlar and Johnson (1989) found that seven out of ten sports spectators correctly identified advertisers at various sports venues.

Stotlar and Johnson (1989) also caution that in the sport situation the message that it is hoped will be recalled should involve limited copy and be restricted to a brand or company name, trademarks and possibly a major selling claim. This is because, “viewers are unlikely to process product specifics or other detailed information” (Moore *et al*, 1999).

The literature does identify a difference between recall and recognition. Recall is regarded as a measure of memory but recognition is not (Lucas, 1960). Recall scores are more objective and therefore seen as being more trustworthy than recognition scores (Turley & Shannon, 2000).

In analysing the impact of their sponsorship investment in F1 Arrows (1999) identified that the respective impacts of advertising and sponsorship are dissimilar. They factored into their evaluation the recognition that an individual's capacity to recall a sponsor's name is inversely proportional to the number of sponsors present at an event. This recognized the concept of distracting “noise” and “clutter”. When calculating “advertising equivalency” of television broadcasts (see 3.12.16) they consequently built in a correction factor (Table 3.12).

Table 3.12

Recall Correction Factor

Number of Sponsors	Recall of Sponsors
1 – 2	80%
3 – 5	70%
6 – 10	50%
11 – 30	30%

(Source; Arrows, 1999)

3.2.13 Selection of a suitable sponsorship

It was felt necessary to examine the literature concerning sponsorship selection, as this would reveal the perceived aims and objectives of sponsorship from the sponsor’s angle.

The Australian Football league (AFL) is, according to Street Ryan Research (1998) “the most prominent [sponsorship] property in the Australian marketplace”. They based their finding on specific indicators (attendance; TV audience; media attention; members; fan loyalty and socio-economic impact) that are used by sponsors when assessing a sponsorship prospect.

Where UK audiences are concerned, Witcher *et al* (1991) established that different types of sponsors had varying objectives. Arts sponsorship was generally favoured by those wanting to achieve objectives relating to community relations whilst sport was preferred as a medium of communication with the buying public. Brooks (1990) established what she called "the athletic platform" that comprised four components upon which a sponsorship programme could be based. These are the athlete, event, sport and team. A company in pursuit of its marketing communication aims or positioning, she said, could use any one of these. Sleight (1989) offered the criteria shown in Table 3.13 as examples of those that could be chosen for an evaluation procedure for selecting sponsorship.

Table 3.13 Evaluation Criteria: See Appendix 5.

It has been suggested (Amis *et al*, 1999; Hamel & Prahalad, 1994) that a sport sponsorship agreement should ideally yield a perceived customer value of the product or service, defined by cost advantage, it should differentiate the sponsor from its competitors and the sponsorship should be extendable into different areas.

Major companies and corporations have recruited specialised staff to select, plan and administer sponsored activities (Mescon and Tilson, 1987; Marshall, 1991). The literature does reveal that some sponsorships have been selected "intuitively" or on "a chairman's whim" rather than on any firm quantifiable criteria (Parker and Wilkins, 1995; Slack & Lloyd, 1996.). Thwaites (1995) said that the rationale for sponsorship involvement "is not always based on commercial logic" and Sleight (1989) made the point that sponsorship choices "are still made on the basis of the senior management's personal interest rather than demonstrable marketing benefits". Thatcher (2000) found that 72% of companies cited the personal preferences of senior management as "an important determinant" in their choice of corporate hospitality activity. As an illustration, Winnett (1997) suggested that Vodafone's sponsorship of the England cricket team "was helped by avid cricketers on the Vodafone board".

Otker (1988) warned that sponsor selection should be based on, "facts and figures (such as the image and target group of the activity, number of participants and visitors, media coverage, expected TV audiences and the sponsorship activities of competitors) rather than on a gut feeling". Van Heerden (2001) acknowledged "gut feel" sponsorship decision making but that the decision should be based upon relevant marketing theories, constructs, contexts and paradigms. McElhatton (1995) revealed that a major bank selected a sponsorship because "gut instinct is an important factor". Crowley (1989) agreed that sponsors often fulfill personal objectives whilst Levin (1993) noted that sponsorship selection had been because "the CEO likes golf, sponsor a golf tournament" but that his is now unacceptable because of the finances involved. In referring to intuitive sponsorship Meenaghan (1991b) explained that in the early days of sponsorship there was little quality information upon which to make selection decisions and Hansen and Scotwin (1995) referred to the "personal interest on behalf of the company owner or manager" as being a reason for sponsorship. Such attitudes triggered Crimmins and Horn's (1996) paper entitled, "Sponsorship: from management ego trip to marketing success" in the *Journal of Advertising Research*.

In the corporate decision-making process sponsorship use is a strategic choice (Gilbert, 1988; Mescon & Tilson, 1987; Otker, 1988) because it requires resources to achieve organisational objectives whilst also needing an organisation to meet the pressure and demands of its environment (Haley, 1991). Slack and Lloyd (1996) agreed that sport sponsorship enables the achievement of corporate objectives but found that, "rarely in studies of sport sponsorship has there been anything more than a cursory consideration of the way owners and managers make strategic choices about

what they will sponsor". They found that sponsorship decisions were usually made by one person and the personal preferences of the owner/manager were a significant factor.

3.2.13.1 Sponsorship and Synergy

The literature describes an important link between the sponsor and the sponsored activity as "synergy" or affinity (Hermanns *et al*, 1986; Puttmann, 1991; Thwaites, *et al*, 1998). This is important to recognise as McDonald (1990) had cautioned that an ill thought-out sponsorship could have no effect or could generate negative effects. There is recognition that the sponsorships that stand the most chance of success are those that combine a high level of synergy and fit between event, brand and target market and complement the product's perceived profile (Parker & Wilkins, 1995; Andrews & Tucker, 1996; Tripoldi, 2001). For example, Dean (2004) found that in NASCAR racing automotive products demonstrated an appropriate "fit" or synergy for creating brand associations. Synergy may alternatively be described as the "match-up hypothesis" which states that, "the more congruent the image of the endorser [sponsor] with the image of the product being promoted, the more effective the message" (Shank, 1999, page 301; Kamins, 1990). McDonald (1990) said that usually what a sponsor requires is "some desirable enhancement of image" through image transfer. Dean (2004) postulated that NASCAR racing fans responded positively to brand associations because of image transfer (Gwinner & Eaton, 1999; McCracken, 1989) where such associations transfer a "meaning" from the NASCAR product including the characteristics of speed, competition and excitement. Conversely, Verity (2002) found that a weakness of much sponsorship is, "the tenuous link" between the sponsor and its property.

Synergy exercises an influence on consumer absorption (Marshall, 1995; Kim, 1993) with Otker (1988) finding that the success of a sponsorship is maximised when there is a perfect marriage between the target groups of the company and of the sponsored activity. When sponsorship synergy is logical, natural and easy to understand exploitation becomes more logical, natural and easier. Sponsors should select events where the participants are actual or potential brand purchasers where there is a 'fit' between the profiles of the product user and the activity follower (Anthony, 1969). Hansen and Scotwin (1995) said that the effects achieved depend on the association between the sponsored and the products being sponsored. They highlighted Ford and its backing of motorsport as an illustration of "the direct association between what is being sponsored and the product".

Horner (2005) said that Red Bull Racing’s F1 team would attract sponsorship partners from brands aligned with Red Bull’s philosophy of, “youth, excitement, passion and fun”. Conversely Oracle transferred its Benetton F1 sponsorship to a rugby team on finding that 60% of its target market followed rugby (Mansell-Lewis, 1997).

Sleight (1989) found that a successful sponsorship depended on knowing the audience that it is intended to reach and marrying that objective with the type of audience the event can deliver and communication with a person through sponsorship increases with their level of interest in the sponsored activity (Parker (1991). Meenaghan (1991a) advised that the selection criteria for a sponsorship should include the ability to fulfill objectives, coverage of the defined target audience in terms of demographics, geographic location and life-styles, the leverage coverage of the target audience in terms of participants, on-site fans and media coverage, and the costs associated with the sponsorship programme.

3.2.14 Sponsorship Strategy and Objectives

Otker (1988) said that potential sponsors "must develop a sponsorship strategy in which the place of sponsorship in the marketing [communications] mix is described" and that the objectives must be defined and costed.

Table: 3.14
OBJECTIVES OF SPONSORSHIP

<u>Objectives</u>	<u>Agreement (%)</u>	<u>Rank</u>
Press coverage/exposure/opportunity	84.6	1
TV coverage/exposure/opportunity	78.5	2
Promote brand awareness	78.4	3
Promote corporate image	77.0	4
Radio coverage/exposure/opportunity	72.3	5
Increase sales	63.1	6
Enhance community relations	55.4	7
Entertain clients	43.1	8
Benefit employees	36.9	9
Match competition	30.8	10
Fad/fashion	26.2	11

(Source: Kitchen 1993)

Many factors affect sponsorship objectives such as area, activity, industry and company size (Copeland *et al*, 1996; McCook, *et al*, 1997) whilst manufacturers are the most likely to seek media coverage and publicity with service sponsors being more interested in employee morale (Quester, *et al*, 1998). Small businesses are likely to want to give something back to the community (Mack, 1999; Walliser, 2003). Table 3.14 illustrates how sponsorship is perceived to work by Kitchen (1993).

Van Heerden (2001) identified that, "sport sponsors set a wide range of objectives" whilst Diment (1996) deemed the golden rules of a sponsorship strategy to be brand fit, clear objectives, establishing the focus of sponsorship opportunities and evaluation. The true cost should be estimated and formalised with a contract and details of performance measurement.

The necessity for a well defined sponsorship contract was graphically illustrated in F1 in 1997 with the swift collapse of the Lola/MasterCard "reciprocal marketing" experiment following an alleged "misunderstanding" over the finances (Benson, 1997b). A properly defined contract might well have prevented such a situation.

The achievement of sponsorship benefits depends upon setting clear objectives, careful planning, employing the relevant expertise, accurate budgeting and strict cost control (ISBA (1993). Gardner and Shuman (1987) defined sponsor's goals and objectives of sponsorship as being to associate their company name or brand with activities or causes of critical importance to particular target groups, reach affluent consumers, who are hard to reach through traditional media, and to create an experience that appeals to all the senses.

Head (1988) advised potential pro-active sponsors to get to know their target audience, to understand their interests, and then to identify and build a suitable sponsorship. The cost and value in sponsorship are not necessarily related but success depends upon planning, effort and imagination. Table 3.15 is an introductory guide for a sponsor.

Table: 3.15
CHOOSING A SPONSORSHIP

<i>Characteristic of potential sponsorship</i>	A <i>Score out of 10 pts</i>	B <i>Weighting</i>	C <i>Total</i>
Potential television coverage.....	X4	/40	
Natural Link with sponsor's product or service.....	X3	/30	
Potential press coverage.....	X3	/30	
Identification of audience with sponsor's selected targets.....	X3	/30	
Benefit to sponsor's staff relations.....	X3	/30	
Aptness to sponsor's previous record in sponsorship.....	X2	/20	
Aptness to corporate image.....	X2	/20	
Geographical links with sponsor's business.....	X2	/20	
Chairman's personal interest.....	X1	/10	
Benefit to sponsor's current community relations activities.....	X1	/10	
Potential advertising exposure.....	X1	/10	
		Total score (out of 250)	
		(Source: Head, 1988)	

A sponsorship agreement should include a commercial checklist of issues to be addressed to ensure that both the sponsor's and the sponsee's requirements are fulfilled to help deliver an enduring relationship. The contract will bind the parties together by identifying the returns. Glynn and Phelops (1995) produced a commercial checklist for potential sponsors and their priorities included viability, goals, cost, the product offered and when to pay.

The Institute of Sports Sponsorship (ISS, 1997) says that, "there is no simple formula that can identify the right sponsorship for a company. Product and sport should obviously be compatible and both partners should feel comfortable with each other". It suggested a list of topics including brand building or corporate awareness, building corporate or brand image, support for other marketing activity, fostering of goodwill, media exposure and an analysis of alternative consumer communications.

An evaluation of the Dow brandstanded Dow Classic tennis tournament identified that the main success criteria were, in order of importance, the appropriateness of the forum for *entertaining* business customers, the generation of *awareness* of the Dow name, the extent to which the event enhanced Dow's *image* in the market place, the *fit* between the image of tennis and that of Dow, the degree to which it had built *goodwill* in the Midlands area, the extent to which it built *morale* amongst Dow

employees and the degree to which it provided a *showcase* around which Dow could *recruit* graduate staff (Smith, 1990).

3.2.15 Measurement and evaluation of the effectiveness of sponsorship

Patton (1982, page 15) defined evaluation as, “the systematic collection of information about the activities, characteristics and outcomes of programs, personnel, and products for use by specific people to reduce uncertainties, improve effectiveness, and make decisions with regard to what those programmes, personnel, or products are doing and affecting”. Watson (1997, page 284) said that a definition falls into three groups, “The commercial, which is a justification of budget spend; simple effectiveness, which asks whether the programme has worked in terms of output; and objectives-effectiveness, which judges programmes in terms of meeting objectives and creation of desired effects”. Sponsorship effects to be measured could be exposure, attention, cognition and behaviour (Hansen & Scotwin, 1995).

Verity (2002, page 162) found that a “disciplined process of research, evaluation and business case justification” of sponsorship had been slow to emerge, “because there has been no standard unit of measurement and evaluation”. She quoted Research International (1999) which had found that, “no rigorous method currently exists”, for the evaluation of sponsorship activity. Reiling (1983) said that, "sponsorships are no different than a direct-mail piece or an ad campaign in that you have to look at the effectiveness of any marketing you undertake".

Advertisers seek a sales response and a profit contribution from their campaigns (Gold (1992) which suggests that a total communications strategy needs to generate sales and that this is usually a company's expectation of its sponsorship investment (Crompton, 1994; Javalgi *et al*, 1994). It is argued that measuring sponsorship effectiveness by sales figures is highly problematic. Other elements of the marketing mix have to be allowed for, such as residual effects of past advertising (Bennett, R, 1999). Mercedes-Benz recognise that through sponsorship they have attracted a younger market but, because they operate a multi-fold marketing strategy “it is impossible to say what part F1 [sponsorship] plays” (Steiner, 2001). Honda finds it very difficult to evaluate the objectives of their sponsorship of F1, which is largely to create excitement around the brand. In fact Paul Ormond said that, “I don’t know of anyone who has devised a measurable way of evaluating that sort of thing” (Holbrook, 2002, page 65). Honda carries out random monthly attitudinal surveys to identify the general public’s perceptions of the brand but most answers relate to

motorbikes. Establishing the effect of sponsoring on sales is difficult to identify because of other factors although there have been dramatic increases in product sales attributed to sponsorship (Rajaretnem, 1994). Alan Hodge outlined efforts to evaluate a F1 campaign saying that Jaguar had a “sales tracking system” that it applied to all new car sales. This involved an international team of research specialists trained to ask questions about what attracted the customer to the Jaguar marque, including questions relating to the company’s F1 presence (Holbrook, 2002, page 56).

Farrelly *et al* (1997) discuss a comprehensive sponsorship evaluation process that involves measures such as tracking brand sales pre, during and post event, and the development of price and advertising elasticities which enable the comparison of sponsorship campaigns. Pope (1998) found that evidence exists for accepting sales increase measures as a means of evaluating the impact of sponsorship although Grdovic (1992) stated that the monitoring of sales is unlikely to provide reliable results because they are usually explained by a wide variety of factors, many of which do not interact. Some research that claims direct links between sales and sponsorships has in the past lacked the necessary control mechanisms to justify the findings (Rajaretnam, 1992).

ING depends completely on evaluation to justify their sponsorship of Renault F1. The company tracks new business created, in the form of how many new accounts have been opened, and the press generated. The company regularly surveys 16,000 people along 15 criteria in 19 different markets in one of the most comprehensive motorsport sponsorship evaluations undertaken (Urquhart, 2007a). After one year it was revealed directly attributable business increases of 1 billion euros (Conner, 2007).

Proposition 11: *Motorsport support is measured by its impact on sales.*

The literature had revealed a variety of opinions concerning the potential for measuring the effectiveness of a motorsport support/sponsorship programme through its impact on sales. This was examined by question fifteen in the research instrument.

In examining public relations Noble (1999) identified that a more sophisticated evaluation analysis than was then available was required and that, “there is no simple, single solution to the problem of public relations evaluation”. Tixier (1995, page 19), had already established that much evaluation was simplistic with pressure building for a proper justification, saying that, “if the communications function is to be

considered a managerial one, it must refine its instruments of measure. To exist and survive, it is important to prove that it is both useful and beneficial”.

With companies increasingly spending large sums on sponsorship one would believe it automatic that effectiveness would be highly researched, justified and evaluated but the literature does not confirm this. Holbrook (2002, page 14) found, “a general apathy among marketing managers about quantifying the success of their campaigns” and Mullin *et al* (2000, page 261) quoted Mike Scarlett of Ford in Canada, as saying that, “...we very rarely track the performance [of sponsorship] versus our objectives”. Lagae (2005, page 215) was concerned that intuition and personal interpretation were still evaluation measures with the European Sponsorship Consulting Agency finding that 32% of sponsorship decision-makers did not allocate money to research and 48% spend less than 1% of the rights fee on research (Kolah, 2003, pages 84 – 88). Van Heerden (2001) found that sports sponsors had a tendency to focus on media coverage and awareness measurement tools for evaluation. Pope (1998) raised the possibility, previously researched by Javalgi *et al* (1994, pages 48 – 49) that, “individuals who are responsible for sponsorship may be reluctant to examine its effects because of possible career risk, especially, as the amount of money devoted to sponsorships increases”.

Sponsorship effectiveness can be measured by exposure, communication and commercial results (Lagae, 2005, page 215) but as long ago as the late 1970s Waite (1979) identified that, "marked disparities are observed between the effects claimed for sponsorship and the incidence of these claims being supported by evaluation" and valuation measures associated with the wider marketing mix were not always as rigorously applied to sponsorship (Thwaites, 1995). Mullin *et al* (1993) said that in sports marketing there was a major shortfall is the lack of data collection with Bolger (1984) finding that out of eight major corporate sport sponsors only two analysed return on sponsorship investment, cost per exposure or any standard advertising response calculations. The other six were content to rely on anecdotal data. Schreiber (1994) referred research that showed that nearly half of companies engaged in sponsorship made no attempt to evaluate the results. Sponsorship has been said to be "notoriously difficult to evaluate accurately" and is, "probably the hardest marketing discipline to assess accurately" (Sponsorship News, 1996a). In one example only 33% of 140 UK sponsors attempted to evaluate their sponsorships (Witcher *et al*, 1991; Hoek *et al*, 1997; Dolphin, 2003).

Such was the lack of a standard sponsorship evaluation methodology that Shell's brand team devised their own (Global Brand Tracker - GBT) which measured awareness against preference and purchase behaviour (Verity, 2002, page 165).

Where possible sponsorship should be evaluated over a long period of time (Armstrong, 1998; Wright, 1988; Parker, 1991) with Parker (1991) finding that spontaneous awareness of sponsorship might initially be very low but in the long-term effects could improve indicating that it takes time for a consumer to connect a corporate image or brand with an event.

Quester and Farrelly (1998) identified an evaluation should recognize the importance of emotion and involvement in brand association which otherwise might miss the sponsor/audience connection. Potential sponsors should address whether they should be involved in sponsoring, what kind of sponsorship is best for them, what is going to be achieved that cannot be achieved from other elements of the marketing mix and afterwards, did it work? (Muir, 1996).

It is possible to evaluate the effectiveness of a sponsorship either by monitoring directly what is being done or, the effects of what is being done such as awareness, understanding motive and impact (Johnson, 1990) and impact is the most used measurement of sponsorship (Walliser, 2003). McDonald (1990) found that few sponsors went beyond evaluating awareness, familiarity and favourability whilst Smith (1990) found that it is important to identify the objectives and criteria for evaluation. The five main measurements are the level of media coverage and exposure gained, the communications effectiveness of sponsorship involvement, the sales effectiveness of sponsorship, the monitoring of guest feedback and a cost-benefit analysis (Meenaghan, 1991a). The strength of a brand's association with a particular sport or event should be a measured (Quester & Farrelly, 1998) and attitudinal and direct market effects along with the impact on stock prices could be used to measure sponsorship pay-off (Kover, 2001). Stipp and Schiavone (1996) preferred to examine attitudes towards sponsorship, perceptions of the quality of leverage advertising and the visibility of the campaign.

Sponsorship programmes can take place without research according (Muir, 1996) but he admitted that without it success could not be measured. He stated that a "benchmarking" and "tracking" programme should address such issues as the correct identification of the sponsor with the event, awareness of the product and brand,

perception of the brand relative to its competitors and perception of various attributes associated with the brand.

McElhatton (1995) referred to the "myth" that sponsorship cannot be evaluated. A strategy was outlined whereby impact recall and image creation could be used as successful criteria. Recall has been identified as being able to predict sales (Blair, 1988; Haley, 1990) but a problem has found to be the exact timing of the evaluation (Zielske, 1982; Fenwick & Rice, 1991). Franzen (1994) warned that advertisement forced recall percentages could be as low as 50% after 24 hours. Marshall (1991) pointed to the lack of awareness of research methods and the costs of research as a reason why there wasn't widespread use of measurement techniques. He also said that, "it is possible to isolate and quantify the effects of any element of the marketing mix".

Both Otter (1988) and Crompton (1994) agreed that the type of measurement used to evaluate sponsorship should be governed by its objectives. The point was made that objectives should be selected in terms which can be measured long before the sponsored event actually occurs.

Proposition 5: Motorsport sponsors evaluate the effects of their sponsorship. The literature reveals a variety of attitudes towards the evaluation of sponsorship programmes. It was decided to test the actual situation through the use of question eight in the research instrument.

3.2.16 Media Analysis

"Nobody can directly attribute sales to success on the track, other than through the mix of exposure in the media, ad campaigns based on on-track success, and the use of success as a platform for a complete communications campaign".

(Tony Jardine, cited in Holbrook, 2002, page 70)

Although described by Lagae (2005, page 215) as a crude evaluation tool for the effectiveness of sponsorship awareness and by Verity (2002, page 162) as being "relatively crude", media analysis has been extensively used. Technically this is a measurement of what is known as "media reach" or the number of people exposed to a given media message. Quantitative media exposure measurements such as content

analyses have also been used for a very long period of time (Haus, 1993; Holloway; 1992; Lindenmann, 1983; 1997; Tortorello, 1990). The more recent qualitative and quantitative computer-based “Delahaye Analysis” (Holloway, 1992; Kim *et al*, 1999) of press coverage has been used to examine, “the number of articles and impressions across a variety of criteria”. Kirban (1983) argued that where public relations is concerned practitioners have traditionally focused on the evaluation of outputs including numbers of clips, total air time, audience reached and hours expended.

Sponsorship has to increasingly be justified by a measured tangible return (Sandler & Shani, 1989; Cornwell, 2000) and typically television exposure costed against the equivalent time for advertisements. Sponsors like to see at least \$3 in equivalent air time for every dollar spent (Levin, 1993; Lane, 1994) and one such costing (Hansen and Scotwin, 1995) found that the title sponsor received an estimated \$5.2m value from four hours of exposure. In marketing terms, though, does this actually mean anything?

Sponsorship should be measured against positive media coverage, television exposure generated, radio promotions and the amount of air time they generate, "sell-ins" or the amount of a product bought with and without the promotion and "brand liking" which the positive set of associations that surround a product (Schreiber, 1994). Television and press coverage measurement against equivalent advertising costs is a common calculation (Allen, 1990; Sparks, 1995)) but this only measures the quantity of publicity received as opposed to impact and effects of exposure (Meenaghan, 1991a). Quester and Farrelly (1998) queried the whole concept of evaluating sponsorships in the same way as advertising stating that, “an obvious shortcoming of this method is that such measures of exposure may or may not translate into a change in consumers’ perceptions and consequently little is usually gained from using them for performance evaluation purposes”.

Marshall (1995) valued sponsor logos on TV by timing the amount of exposure and dividing it into 30 second units and then calculating exposure value as 30-second advertising spots during the equivalent broadcast. A more sophisticated method is to cost per thousand viewers or per rating point of the exposure as if it been bought as advertising (the sponsorship fee divided by the total audience). This calculation can be unreliable, as it relies on a hypothesis that 30 seconds of exposure of a sponsor logo is the same value as a creative 30 second spot. Consequently sponsors often discount the basic value calculation by 75%-80% to reflect the difference in quality of the two types of exposure. A television exposure methodology has been used by F1

teams (Arrows, 1999). This firstly involves the recording of television coverage to include live broadcasts, highlights and general reports such as news programmes. Television audience data is collected from sources such as Nielsen, Barb and Gfk. The recordings are then monitored and the appearances of sponsors chronometered with the source being noted. An "appearance" is defined as the sponsor's name appearing on screen in full and being clearly readable for at least one second. The data is then analysed, interpreted and evaluated into "advertising equivalency", which is a value calculated against the Cost per Thousand (CPT) of advertising on the same television channel to one thousand individuals for thirty seconds.

In advertising target audience rating points (TARPS) are an accepted measure of the processing and acceptance of the message. In sponsorship terms the number of impressions, otherwise known as "opportunities to see", performs a similar role (Harris, 1993) but is not regarded by some as, "a distant indicator of actual consumer perceptions", and therefore unreliable (Quester & Farrelly, 1998). Such media measures assume that sponsorship works in the same way as advertising but some of the literature suggests that any linkage with the consumer purchase process is flawed (Rossiter & Percy, 1997). Instead, they say, linkage of a company name with a sponsored event to enhance image is more reliable.

McDonald (1991) identified that pre- and post-event surveys are used to establish the levels of awareness, familiarity and persuasion of sponsorships but Parker (1991) stated that more continuous tracking is preferable. Rossiter and Percy (1997) advocate tracking research, having been critical of existing methodologies, whilst sponsors generally need to do a lot more than just to display their logo at an event (Kim, 1993). He cautioned that calculating sponsorship value around the time a logo appeared and then estimating the media value is imprecise and that what was needed was "a much more assertive statement of connection".

Sports Marketing Surveys (2006) state that, "The first element of any sponsorship is to ensure that it gains exposure through the relevant media" especially television. Sponsorship justification frequently uses an analysis of television recordings taking into account announcer mentions, display of logos on cars and stadium signage. Usually this does not take into account less obvious brand displays such as the appearance of a red and white Marlboro colour scheme on a car with blurred logo (Teinowitz & Jensen, 1995). Dietrich Mateschitz, the owner of Red Bull F1 conversely made it plain that he wasn't, "overly interested in number-crunching, in

counting how many seconds of television or how much published material we receive (Volker, 2006).

Crimmins and Horn (1996) suggested that "visibility" is totally different to "impact" where the consumer is concerned. Visibility is measured by timing how long a sponsor's logo is on screen, the value of which can only be estimated. Visibility of a logo is not as valuable as the equivalent advertising time which is completely controlled by the advertiser. Byrnes (1994) too argued that comparing the appearance of a logo with that of a dedicated advertisement isn't possible and Quester and Farrelly (1998) queried the assumption that consumers' cognitive processes triggered by sponsorship messages are the same as those experienced from advertising messages. They argued that qualitative evaluation methodologies are more relevant in identifying sponsorship connections than quantitative. In using tracking research for evaluation purposes Rossiter and Percy (1997) argue that one should ask which events a sponsor has sponsored, instead of who was the sponsor of a specific event, to establish the connection and the causal relationship that contributes to consumer purchase decisions.

Research into billboards at sports events by (Nebenzahl & Hornik, 1985) found them to be a high-reach, high frequency medium viewed by a large audience including television viewers. They increase brand awareness but unaided recall was relatively low with aided recall showing better results but the static secondary background message was not considered to be a substitute for television commercials. Moore *et al* (1999) investigated the impact of "Jumbotron", or giant video screens as well as rotational signage systems at sports stadiums. Screens were found to be a, "significant component of a stadium's servicescape which can increase the satisfaction of fans". (Satisfaction is one of the critical audience emotions referred to in Section 3.3.5.) Firms with the most exposure on the rotational systems, which increase the number of static advertisements that can be exposed during an event, were more readily identified by the audience. Both Stotlar & Johnson (1989) and Moore *et al*, (1999) found advertising in sports stadiums to be ideal for products that appeal to sport spectators as, "the majority tend to notice advertising" and sponsors are keen to show their advertisements to the captive stadium audience (Deckard, 1994; Zoltak, 1995). In addition exposure of advertisements to the fans physically present in the stadium a television audience is sometimes likely to be exposed to them too (Cuneen & Hannan, 1993; Pope & Voges, 1997; Stotlar & Johnson, 1989).

There is not unanimity in the literature on the effectiveness of advertising in sports stadia. Crimmins and Horn (1996) cast doubt on sports fans actually noticing logos with Pokrwczynski (1994) finding they needed eight to twenty times more exposure than a television commercial for the same result although the length of time of exposure to a captive audience may have been overlooked (Turley & Shannon, 2000). Such events hold potential consumers as metaphorical captives and the potential to expose them to multiple marketing communication messages. Research into such environments is “cognitively complex” (Turley & Shannon, 2000) and has addressed different captive situations including students in classrooms (Brand & Greenburg, 1994), airport terminals and bus and subway stations (Turley & Shannon, 2000). The literature shows that consumers react to, and are influenced by, the atmosphere they are in. Recall is aided by repeated advertisements over a prolonged period of time, even though they may be in the background. Repetition may also occur when multiple events are visited.

Wright (1981) established that audiences find it difficult to remember advertisements when there are distractions such as come from an exciting game or a packed stadium which is a “high involvement medium” (Nebenzahl and Hornik, 1985). Turley and Shannon (2000) recognised that consumers do recall some of the advertisements in a sports arena, with frequency being important although they may not recognise the brand as a sponsor (Crimmins & Horn, 1996). They went on to define "persuasive impact" (Table 3.16).

Table: 3.16								
<u>DEFINITION OF PERSUASIVE IMPACT</u>								
Persuasive Impact	=	Strength of the Link	X	Duration of the Link	X	Gratitude Felt due to the Link	+	Perceptual Change Due to the Link

One survey of American Football sponsorship totaled the number of stories and lineage in newspapers and magazines across the country which yielded “impressions” equivalent to \$1 million in advertising (McCarthy, 1991). This used the theory postulated by Marshall (1995) that the press may be valued by the formula which

analyzes the number, size and context of sponsor mentions in editorial and photos and multiplies this up by the advertising cost per column centimeter. This is sometimes called "opportunity to see" (Sponsorship News, 1996a).

In evaluating sponsorship at the message channel stage Crompton (1994) calculated the value a media coverage by the duration of television coverage, including both verbal and visual mentions, the duration of radio mentions and the extent of press coverage as measured in single column inches. One calculation yielded 2.02 billion impressions for the sponsor of a professional tennis sponsorship (Lohr, 1988). The definition of an impression used an equation calculating a sports photograph appearing with a sponsor banner in a newspaper with a circulation of one million as one million impressions (Crompton 1994).

Muir (1996) calculated clear signage sightings on TV by assuming that each was worth one second of airtime and these were then costed into 30 seconds at the relevant advertising rates. He accepted that signage exposure was not the same an equivalent TV advertisement but that TV exposed signage is worth something, "otherwise we would not be so keen to have our sponsored event on television".

Previously Otker (1988) warned that it wasn't realistic to expect elements of a sponsorship to have a significant influence on the awareness or image of a company. Indeed, David Weinstein said that simply putting a sponsor logo on a car alone would not translate into sales and that generating impressions was not enough. He said that the sponsor had to generate other emotions and attitudes. He criticised racing car paint schemes that because of "clutter" had reached such a saturation that they did not register with viewers (Byrnes, 1994).

Parker and Wilkins (1995) found that the drawback with analysing media coverage is that such methodologies often related back to corporate objectives alone separating the sponsorship from other marketing or brand led communications activities. They suggested that to evaluate the effectiveness of sponsorship, research needs to focus on target markets, measure the message(s) communicated, evaluate the impact on the brand and to assess the relationship with other media. Additionally, Muir (1996) suggested that measures should be used including the media audience in terms of size and composition, the number of occasions a logo is exposed to the camera, how many clear sightings there were of the logo and which exposure was most frequent and valuable. After an informed discussion with the television director these measures would lead to the best location for the logo, identification of how many broadcast

interruptions there might be, how many cameras would be used, where cameras should be sighted and the types of shots to be used.

Proposition 6: *Media coverage is important to motorsport sponsors.*

The literature indicated a perceived importance of media coverage to motorsport sponsors and it was felt necessary to establish whether this was true or not, through questions nine, nineteen and twenty-four in the research instrument.

The literature reveals a number of potential sponsor attitudes towards the various elements of the media which led to a number of propositions that were addressed by corresponding questions within the research instrument.

Proposition 7: *The print media is measured in a variety of ways by motorsport sponsors – Question ten.*

Proposition 8: *The TV broadcast media is measured in a variety of ways by motorsport sponsors- Question eleven*

Proposition 9: *The wireless media is measured in a variety of ways by motorsport sponsors- Question twelve.*

Proposition 10: *Motorsport sponsors measure sponsorship success by specific indicators- Questions thirteen and fourteen.*

3.2.17 The lack of research into sponsorship outcomes

In the 1980s academic researchers paid little attention to sponsorship (Meenaghan 1984; Gardner & Shuman 1987; Sandler & Shani, 1989). Gardner and Shurman (1987) found the business world to be seemingly disinterested too with the general attitude being that sponsorship worked but that, "very little hard data is collected to assess the effectiveness".

Despite increased investment in sponsorship and a need for justification very few efforts were devoted evaluating the results of sponsorship (Sandler & Shani, 1989). Penzer (1990) supported this view by quoting the director of consumer influence operations at General Motors who had said that, "If cuts in our ad budgets are made, the first thing to go is events sponsorship, because nobody knows for sure what they

are getting". Marshall (1991) pointed out that where the corporate hospitality element of sponsorship was concerned hardly any research had been carried out which measures its value. It was suggested that those responsible for sponsorship may in fact have been reluctant to examine its effects either because of possible "career risks" or to fulfill personal objectives (Sedmak, 1989). Some organisations have even entered sponsorship without preparing any strategy at all because it was perceived to be "flavour of the season" (Thwaites, Lynch & Ilhan, 1992).

McDonald (1991) found that tracking measures had been used to measure sponsorship but Cornwell (2000) said that overall these investigations were inconclusive. Mintel (1989) identified that there was a lack of any worthwhile evaluation methodology being used but that those companies that did evaluate their investment were usually in a position to make strategic business decisions at the correct time. Meenaghan (1991b) had said that because there was little sponsorship research evidence there was a need to move towards a greater understanding of how sponsorship actually worked. A more rational management approach based on the results of scientific analysis should be taken. He also said that research activity had been, "extremely limited, much of it privately commissioned and unavailable to facilitate the cumulative learning process". Because of commercial secrecy McCarthy (1991) agreed that the exact benefits of sports events had always been a problem. Meenaghan (1991a) observed that there was a need to develop an effective measurement of the value of sports events. Shani *et al* (1992) confirmed the lack of sponsorship research to enabling its value in sports marketing or to provide guidelines for improving its use. There was "enormous potential for future research in exploring the relationship of brand promotion with the sponsorship of other sports events, such as....auto races" (Nicholls *et al*, 1994).

Very little published empirical work examined sponsorship impact (Javalgi *et al*, 1994) which Hansen & Scotwin (1995) put down to the complexity of differing measurements needed to isolate the effects of sponsorship from wider marketing activities. Many measurement methods were cursory and over-simplistic according to Crompton (1994). Gwinner and Swanson (2003) found that despite the importance of sponsorship activities its academic research continued to be limited confirming the previous findings of both Abratt *et al* (1987) and Ferrand & Pages (1996).

In examining the evaluation of corporate hospitality Champ (1996) found that accountability had become increasingly important although Thatcher (2000) identified that only 34% of companies evaluated their events against marketing

objectives. Bennett (2003) established that 48% formally tracked post-event sales to attendees, which was much higher than previous research. Those companies most satisfied with corporate hospitality activities used market research and adopted a strategic approach (Bennett, 2003).

3.2.18 Sponsorship Summary

Sponsorship is a core element of the marketing communications mix. It can contribute to corporate communications and be used to reach an internal public, key decision-makers and target markets amongst others. Sponsorship has a positive image and produces a wide variety of perceived benefits including increasing public awareness or alteration of the public perception of a company and its products and brands. It provides media benefits and may influence product purchase decisions through awareness and image enhancements. Sponsorship is different to advertising although the advertiser has more control over their projection in the media than a sponsor and is potentially more persuasive. Reasons for entering into a sponsorship include the stimulation of awareness, the entertainment of clients, engendering goodwill and achieving media coverage and synergy between the company and the sponsored activity is seen to be important for success. Potential sponsors recognise the indirect costs particularly of leveraging. Intuitive and idealistic selection of sponsorship has occurred but increasingly evaluation is necessary to establish if specific outcomes have been achieved. A sponsorship strategy with defined objectives must be put in place.

3.3 SPONSORSHIP IN SPORT

3.3.1 Introduction

Sports have long been viewed as an effective vehicle through which products can be promoted (McDaniel & Mason, 1999; Howard & Crompton, 1995) with Meenaghan (1991b) suggesting that whilst sponsorship can be traced back to Roman and Greek time it was actually early 20th century radio in the that originated its current use. Roman patriarchs had sponsored gladiatorial games to win public esteem (Ukman, 1984b) and in 1861 Spiers and Pond sponsored the first England Cricket Tour of Australia before sports outfitter John Wisden underwrote "*The Wisden Cricketers' Almanac*" in 1893. Coca-Cola first sponsored the Olympics in 1928 and Gillette baseball in 1910 (Sleight, 1989). In the 1950s President Eisenhower asked Mutual of Omaha to sponsor the first presidential physical fitness program (Lazarus, 1984). Meenaghan (1991b) claims that today's commercial sponsorship only evolved in the late 1960s – around the time that Colin Chapman was widely credited with introducing tobacco sponsorship to F1 with Players' Gold Leaf Team Lotus. Athletics sponsorship was formalised at the 1984 Los Angeles Olympics (Schlossberg, 1991) with sport being recognized as big business. By 1999 sport was the eleventh largest industry in the USA (Shannon, 1999) whilst in 1995 approximately 75% of all sponsorship involved sporting activities (Thwaites, 1995).

3.3.2 The attractiveness of sport to commercial sponsors

*"Sport is a treasured art form sought by millions worldwide
every day...presenting dramatic moments valued by the masses"*
(Pilson, 1996)

Sport's attraction to commercial sponsors is because it "transcends all barriers. Social, national, ethnic or economic differences count for little amongst true fans of sport: the language of excellence and achievement on the field of play is the same for everyone" (ISS, 1997). Sponsorship has become one of the intrinsic elements of business involvement with sport (Glenn & Phelops, 1995) because the association of brands or products with a sport a sponsor can target the widest possible market with the minimum need to change the message. Equally with so many sports it is possible to segment communications to reach particular groups of consumers. Rothmans admitted to being involved in sport sponsorship because they were able to carefully

selected specific sports to reflect the right image for each of their individual brands (Andrews & Tucker, 1996).

Sport "sponsorship allows a company to deliver its message to consumers who are relaxed, in a state of mind and in an environment that makes it likely they will be receptive" (Crompton (1996). Involvement in sports generally transfers the image values of being healthy, young energetic, fast, vibrant and largely masculine (Meenaghan & Shipley, 1999). These images could transfer positive image connotations inherent in the event or individual athlete to the sponsor's corporate or brand image (Quester & Farrelly, 1998). Sponsors believed that what was good for sport would also be good for their brands whilst others sponsored because of a fear that a competitor could do well by their association with a popular event or sport.

In China the sponsorship of sports events had been found particularly effective in reaching the opinion leaders and innovators, and establishing favourable links between and audiences and a sponsor's brand image (Fan & Pfitzenmaier; 2002). Liu *et al* (1998) had found considerable synergy and correlation between sports sponsors and business. Alberts (1995) and Novelli (1990) similarly highlighted how businesses have been able to improve efficiency, human resources and profits through the implementation of sporting skills and management techniques into their particular organisations.

3.3.3 Sport Marketing

"Sport's ability to have its promotional expenditures underwritten by corporate partners through sponsorships, tie-ins (joint advertising or promotion), or trade-outs (i.e., quid pro quo - reciprocal trading or bartering of services without direct payment) is unequalled in any other segment of the economy"
(Mullin, *et al*, 1993, page 21).

Van Heerden (2001) said that, "sport sponsorship is an element of the marketing communication mix as well as the sport marketing mix", and that, "sport marketing should be regarded as an application field of marketing." In 1978 the term "sports marketing" was created by *Advertising Age* for those activities of consumer and industrial product and service marketers who were using sport as a promotional vehicle (Mullin, *et al*, 1993). They defined this phenomenon by saying that "sport marketing consists of all activities designed to meet the needs and wants of sport

consumers through exchange purposes. Sport marketing has developed two major thrusts: the marketing of sport products and services directly to consumers of sport, and marketing of other consumer and industrial products or services through the use of sport promotions". It is the latter which is the sector of sports marketing most often utilised in motorsport and the sector which this research most often addresses. Amis *et al* (1999) believe that sport sponsorship should be considered an important resource in helping companies achieve competitive advantage.

Sleight (1989) had found that sport sponsorship was popular market because of inherent advantages. Thwaites, Lynch and Ilhan (1992) and Thwaites (1995) developed this by stating that sport has, high levels of visibility, the ability to capture a full range of demographic and psychographic segments, the scope to target either mass markets or specific niches, the capacity to cross national boundaries and the ability to break down cultural barriers whilst also having the attraction of television coverage with low production costs and providing all round family entertainment. Mullin (*et al*, 1993) said that, "sport has an almost universal appeal and pervades all elements of life". They quoted Coakley (1986) in stating that sport's appeal is because geographically it is evident in every nation on the earth and has been an important part of most civilisations. Additionally, the demographics of sport means that it appeals to all segments, whether young or old, male or female, blue collar or white collar. Finally, socioculturally sport is associated with every element of leisure and recreational activity.

Mason (1999), amongst others, said that professional sport differs from other businesses because of its ability to sustain monopolistic bargaining for broadcasting rights and stadium lease arrangements (Daly, 1977; Noll, 1974). Mintel (2002) identified sport's pre-eminent position as the main vehicle for UK corporate sponsorship was because there were not only a wide range of sports on offer but because of high media coverage of sports. Also, because so many sports are international, widespread geographic coverage could be achieved by sponsoring events and teams.

The Institute of Sports Sponsorship's definition says that, "sports sponsorship is a partnership between business and sporting organisations and individuals that seek to achieve benefits for both parties. By entering into a sports sponsorship agreement both sport and business seek to influence and motivate third party groups who are spectators, participants and consumers" (ISS, 1997).

Thanks to sport marketing financial backing of sport has grown into a global industry with USA and UK sport proving to be the most popular recipients (Thwaites, 1995). The ISS (1997) said that estimations of the size of the sponsorship market were "notoriously unreliable" due to reluctance to reveal sponsorship budgets. Despite this the UK sports sponsorship market grew from an estimated £50 million up-front expenditure in 1981 (Parker and Wilkins, 1995) to £421 million by 2001 (Mintel 2002). Mintel (1989) established that all the forms of UK motorsport - motor racing, motor cycle racing, rallying and karting - attracted "easily" the most sponsorship money in 1987 with 34% of the total. It was both the diversity and the high cost of competition equipment that accounted for this figure.

In the UK football and motorsport dominate sponsorship expenditures (Marshall & Cook, 1992) with the two attracting 45% of all sponsorship monies (Carrigan & Carrigan (1997). Although the top sports, attract the bulk of sport's sponsorship smaller sports lose out because of the lack of media coverage as this dictates which sports are sponsored (Mintel, 2002).

3.3.4 The Sports League Product

Mason (1999) said that, "professional sports leagues provide a unique environment for marketing decisions and processes to occur, in a number of markets and at a number of levels". He particularly identified the power of sports teams uniting into a league (or championship) to produce a league product. Sport leagues were created to provide spectator entertainment but are now sold to four distinct groups. Firstly, fans who attend games follow them on television and in the media and who purchase related merchandise. Secondly, leagues are sold to the media and television in exchange for the programming rights, and thirdly the communities that build facilities and support local clubs. Lastly, sport leagues are sold to corporations that help increase ticket sales, purchase teams outright and provide sponsorship revenues.

Professional sports leagues initially relied on ticket sales and gate money to survive financially but the literature shows that television and media revenues have become increasingly important (Bellamy, 1988; Chandler, 1991; Harris, 1986; Horowitz, 1978; Rowe, 1995). Whilst league-related merchandise is part of the equation (Burton, 1996; Gorman & Calhoun, 1994; Steinbreder, 1992) income for leagues from corporate sponsorships are established as a major source of finance (Cousens & Slack, 1996; Grimm, 1993; Hofmann & Greenberg, 1989; Schaaf, 1995). The USA is particularly noted for the backing of host communities' stadiums (Baim, 1994;

Euchner, 1993; Ozanian *et al.*, 1995; Shropshire, 1995) whilst memorabilia industries have also become more established (Osterland, 1994; Williams, 1995).

Euchner (1993) postulated that thanks to sponsorship sport has “commodified” whilst also becoming “delocalized” as television in has made sports less attached to specific places. Mason (1999) agreed with delocalization by stating that, “fans of professional sports can follow the exploits of their favourite teams or leagues despite the fact that they may be operating out of cities in other parts of the world”. He went on to say that satellite television, the Internet and other technological advances will hasten the process of delocalization.

Of particular relevance to motorsport championships should be the literature that suggests that the sports product is the league or championship rather than the independently owned clubs or teams (Goldman, 1989; Grauer, 1983, 1989; Gray, 1987; Jacobs, 1991; Roberts, 1984, 1985; Rosenbaum, 1987). Mason (1999) suggests that leagues may either operate as a single business entity or as a joint venture or cartel with independently operated franchises. The franchises or teams must work together to create the league or championship product which would be a series of games or races with an uncertain outcome (Sutton & Parrett, 1992; Whannel, 1992). F1 should note that according to Goldman (1989) the league product can only be produced if the competing teams agree to the conditions in which the games are scheduled and governed.

3.3.5 Sport and emotion

“Ferrari are the greatest race team and company, commanding universal respect, with tradition, culture and the emotion of a country behind them.....” Jean Todt (Zapelloni, 2004, page 206).

The emotion referred to is that of patriotism, which is one of many potential “message appeals” used by the sports marketer because it reflects a desirable quality in media messages that make products appear attractive and appealing. Many global sports are dedicated competitions between nationalities when national teams are fielded in events such as the Olympics, cricket or association football. To take advantage of patriotism is not a new concept as motor racing cars originally sported national colours. In the 1950s the British motor industry had used the national pride generated by “British Racing Green to sell cars (Edwards, 2005, page 68).

Such is the long term association with historic colours that Ferrari still races in Italian red and McLaren Mercedes in silver. Germany's original racing colour was white but became silver and their cars were known as the "Silver Arrows". Today's McLaren Mercedes F1 cars are partly silver in colour encouraging emotions associated with patriotism and heritage. Dr Walter Kafitz said that "racing in countries without a motorsport tradition isn't sustainable. They don't have teams to identify with, and don't have drivers.... real heroes are always men and not machines. Michael [Schumacher] is the one the crowds come to see (Youson, 2006). Mumatz Tahinicioglu, the organizer of the first F1 and MotoGP races in Turkey, reinforced patriotism when he said that, "hosting the GP is like a huge advert for our nation – and we want to do that in a way that makes everyone in the nation proud" (Holder, 2005). Patriotism is the major element A1GP which is known as the "World Cup of Racing" with cars being entered by national teams. When Dr Vijay Mallaya created the Force India F1 Team he outlined the effects of patriotism as he explained, "When we announced that the India flag would be part of the team colours, there was an explosion of excitement romping through the country" (The Paddock, 2007c).

Current F1 teams have been criticized for not differentiating themselves sufficiently by only concentrating on results, rather than what their brands could offer emotionally. The only compelling 2005 F1 brand on an emotional scale was said by Henry (2005a, page 165) to be Ferrari. Verity (2002) found that Ferrari offered a sponsor such as Shell the values of dynamism, success and passion amongst the "emotional values" associated with the team. PC manufacturer Lenovo deliberately selected sport (F1, Olympics and NBA) as a platform for brand building because, "brands are all about emotion and passion". Sport cuts across countries, cultures and demographics and, "resonates with people across the board" (Urquhart, 2007b).

Sports events provide an emotionally charged environment where advertisers and sponsors hope that excitement and affiliation with teams or individual competitors will transfer to their product or organisation (Schlossberg, 1991; Turley & Shannon, 2000). The literature refers to the atmospherics of the situation affecting the way people process advertisements but specific research concerning sports events is limited as the existing atmospheric literature mainly addresses in-store retail situations (Woodside & Waddle, 1975; McKinnon *et al* 1981; Patton, 1981).

The complex environment of a sports arena provides many stimuli which compete for the audience's attention (Turley & Shannon, 2000) with atmospherics which

influence behaviours and attitudes including the emotions of satisfaction (Wakefield & Blodgett, 1994) and pleasure (Wakefield & Blodgett *et al*, 1996).

Research undertaken at the 2000 British F1 GP indicated that 38% of fans felt that F1 sponsors have "more interest" in their customers, whilst a similar question asked in the USA yielded a result of 63%. Thirty-two per cent of British fans personally benefited from corporate sponsorship whilst the equivalent for the USA was 59%. The positive F1 feelings, particularly of the Americans, revealed that the latter would "almost always" or "frequently" preferentially choose sponsor's products. The comparative figure for the British fans was 29%. The emotional loyalty to F1 was identified here, but why the difference? American fans had the attitude that, "sponsorship makes the race possible" and sponsors in that country, unlike those in Britain, were complimented for constantly telling fans why they sponsor, what they are doing as sponsors and how fans can benefit as a consequence of their sponsorship (Performance Research, 2000a).

Sports fans are tied emotionally to their favourite teams and wish to identify with success (Cialdini *et al*, 1976) by basking in the reflected glory (BIRG). They are more likely to BIRG when their team was winning as opposed to losing (Wann & Branscombe, 1990). Ashforth and Mael (1989) refined this by saying that fans connectedness led them to experience the team's "failings and achievements" as if they were their own and they enhance their self-esteem (Hogg & Turner, 1985; Tajfel, 1978). Self-esteem is engendered through the team's positive achievements (Wann & Branscombe, 1995) with Zillman and Paulus (1993, page 604) establishing that sports fans are, "more intense, more obtrusive, and more enduring than other forms of entertaining social activities".

Fahy, *et al* (2004) said that there is evidence that consumers worldwide use both sport and art association as a form of self-expression and many sponsorships are created to maximise this association in their marketing (Burton *et al*, 1996; Mullin *et al*, 1993) with research showing that sports enthusiasts demonstrate more positive attitudes towards advertising than those less interested (Burnett *et al*, 1993).

According to Hansen & Scotwin (1995) "general interest" in the area sponsored as well as 'positive evaluation' of the sponsored event generates increased awareness. Sport itself is an activity which holds great "interest", much of which is emotional, whether this revolves around individual players, teams or nationalities. If this interest coincides with the target market sponsorship will enable a brand to establish itself as

more relevant to the audience [potential consumer] by establishing it as being "for people like me" (Marshall, 1991). Olympic sponsors AT&T described sports events as having, "an emotional, high-impact appeal" (Levin, 1993).

In another interpretation of emotion, sports associated with high levels of adrenaline rush, such as that produced by danger, like motor racing, are more popular with younger age groups (Mintel, 2002) and will therefore be potential recipients for sponsorships aimed at this market. The literature suggests that emotion, as a mood state, affects information processing and produces an enhanced association with the sponsored brand by virtue of improved recall (Gardial & Biehal, 1991; Gardner, 1985). A positive attitude or mood state has been found to transfer to the sponsored brand (Mitchell & Olson, 1981; Ray & Batra, 1983).

Actual involvement in the sponsored activity may also enhance information processing (Kroeber-Riel, 1979; Shimp, 1981) with emotional involvement producing greater attitude-behaviour consistency in brand purchasing (Berger, 1992; Berger & Mitchell, 1989). The stronger the attitude (association) created the more likely it is that recall will occur at a later date (Burke & Edell, 1989) although some sponsorship research showed that excessive involvement was actually detrimental to recall (Walliser, 1994).

Sports Marketing Surveys (1998, page 10) found that emotion was created by sport, in this case F1, on television. F1 viewers used the adjectives exciting, dynamic and hi-tech whilst also admitting that motorsport "makes good TV viewing". Whannel (1992) said that, "sport offers a utopia, a world where everything is simple, dramatic and exciting, and euphoria is always a possibility....Sport entertains, but can also frustrate, annoy and depress. But it is the very uncertainty that gives its unpredictable joys their characteristic intensity". The uncertainty of the outcome of a game's outcome has an appeal to the consumer who experiences a sporting event as "a hedonistic experience in which the event itself elicits a sense of drama" (Madrigal, 1995). In F1, for example, the largest television audience in 1997 was for the final race of the season when the drivers' championship was still to be settled (Arrows, 1999).

The motor manufacturers involved in F1 specifically recognise the power of emotion with, Peter Ball (General Manager for Marketing and Communications at Toyota Motorsport Group) justifying his company's involvement by saying that, "In Europe, the research has shown there are plenty of practical reasons to buy a Toyota, but not

so many emotional ones” (Bickers, 2001). Wolfgang Reitzle (Chairman of Jaguar Cars) concurred when he said, “There is an excitement and passion about F1 racing, which closely matches the emotional appeal of Jaguar” (Beck-Burridge & Walton, 2001).

3.3.5.1 The national hero

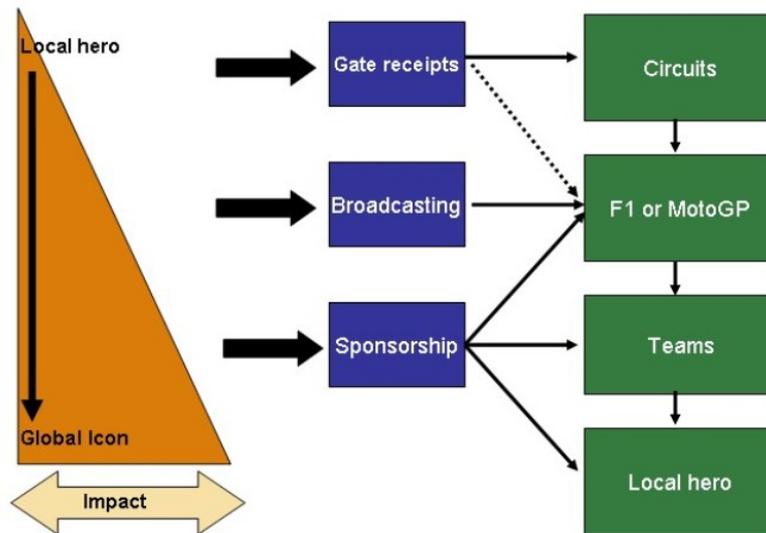
Patriotism may be articulated as general backing for a national team, particularly in team sports, but may also be expressed in individual sports as support for competitors who are perceived as national standard bearers. Emotionally they become elevated to national heroes.

Brazilian Emerson Fittipaldi was credited with, “mobilizing the passionate support of many millions of his compatriots” and he was described as one of the great trailblazers of motorsport, “sowing the seeds of Brazilian ambition” as he became a national hero (Stewart, 2007, page 258). In later years Ayrton Senna’s backing from John Player Special was said to have revitalized the tobacco brand in Brazil (Carlyle *et al*, 2004) giving it a younger image that was more dynamic, human, credible and international (Robertson & Hoylebrand, 2004).

Switzer (2007) refers to “local heroes” saying that they underpin their sports with the ability to increase revenues including gate receipts, broadcasting and commercial (largely sponsorship and merchandising). He referred to American golfer Tiger Woods’ ability to transcend national boundaries, cultures, genders and race as well as footballer David Beckham who earned Real Madrid £300 million in sponsorships and merchandising. Michael Schumacher turned Germany into, “the largest F1 broadcast market” and in MotoGP Valentino Rossi has sustained, “unprecedented levels of TV viewership in Italy”. Rossi’s influence was illustrated by the fact that in 2000 only two MotoGP races in Italy achieved a TV audience of more than 4.5 million but a year later when Rossi was World Champion this became ten races. In MotoGP “fans want to see.....home-grown heroes, and the brands want to see them wearing their logos” (McCullagh, 2008a). A model of the potential financial impact of local heroes is shown in Figure 3.3.

Fig. 3.3

Potential financial impact of local heroes



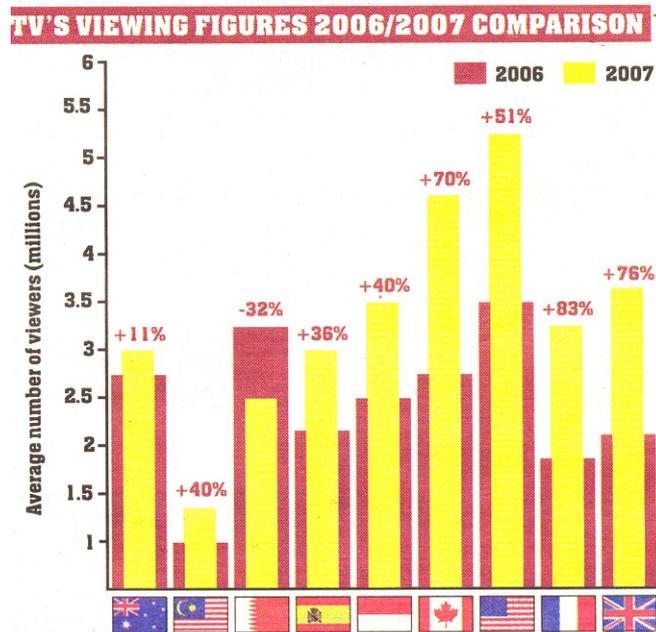
(Source: Adapted from Switzer, 2007)

In 2007 British motor racing was boosted by Lewis Hamilton who became a major F1 player in his first season and missed out on the World Championship by a single point becoming a national hero. The Motorsport Industry Association identified that his, “impact on public awareness – both inside and outside the sport – had been sizeable”, as he had, “caught the imagination of a new generation of young people throughout the UK”, and this was anticipated to bring new competitors into motorsport to create more business for the UK’s motorsport industry (Aylett, 2007). He was credited as having increased the cumulative attendance at the 2007 British F1 GP to 207,000 (Switzer, 2007).

National heroes help considerably in achieving that media coverage as such was Lewis’ success that UK television viewing figures increased dramatically (76% rise on the previous year) and attendance at the British GP was a record. 80,000 spectators attended qualifying which was 2,000 more than on race day the previous year. In fact ITV experienced large audience increases for most of the 2007 (Figure 3.4) which was described with headlines such as, “TV figures sky-high on the back of Lewismania” (Roberts, 2007b).

Fig 3.4

ITV's viewing figures 2006/2007 comparison



(Source: Motorsport News, July 11th 2007, page 3)

Lewis Hamilton's effect on enthusiasm for motorsport was based primarily on the emotion of patriotism as well as the fact that he is first black F1 racing driver and he has been compared to Golf's Tiger Woods in that respect.

A national hero's media coverage impact is not a new as Dransfeld, *et al* (1999) said that, "national support for personalities has a huge impact on [TV] viewing figures". In 1997 cumulative television audiences increased in Germany and Italy in direct response to the competitiveness of Michael Schumacher and the Ferrari team, in France due to Jacques Villeneuve's prominence and in Japan when Japanese driver Shinji Nakano raced for Prost. Conversely audiences dropped in the UK due to the absence of a British title challenger (Arrows, 1999). In MotoGP competitor nationalities are approached in a similar way as the championship regards riders of differing nationalities as a way of expanding the popularity in those countries (Trimby, 2007). Indeed Manel Arroyo of Dorna says for MotoGP that, "If we can create national heroes, the people will follow.....MotoGP is like F1 that without doubt, the home drivers create the interest" (Dickinson, 2008).

Patriotism has boosted television audiences in specific countries. When Briton James Hunt became F1 World Champion in 1976 this is recognised as having directly prompted BBC TV's increased coverage of the sport, whilst Alan Jones similarly

encouraged Australia's Channel 9 in his championship year of 1979. Emerson Fittipaldi had had a similar effect on TV interest in Brazil back in the early 1970s (Hughes, 2006, page 58). National representation is important in the WRC for television coverage as demonstrated in 2006 when it was revealed that, "ITV will not produce their own programme because of the lack of a British driver in the WRC this year" (Motorsport News 2006).

Spain's television viewing figures rose by between 45% and 60% in 2005 (Nottage, 2006) as Spaniard Fernando Alonso battled for the World Championship with eight of Spain's ten most watched television programmes that year being about F1 (F1 Racing, 2006b). Spain also became the fourth-largest F1 viewing population worldwide in 2005 (Nottage, 2006) with Alonso's competitiveness encouraging Spanish insurance company Mutua Madrilenia to invest £1.5m in the Renault F1 team. That company then moved with Alonso to McLaren where became the sixth most recognised firm in the sport in Spanish (Sylv & Reid, 2007). Alonso was credited with helping the Spanish GP to achieve the highest total attendance of any 2007 F1 race weekend of 340,000. Eleven of the top 50 sports audiences on Spanish TV in 2006 were for F1 races whilst the success of Spaniard Dani Pedrosa encouraged Spanish broadcaster TVE to renew its contract for MotoGP (Switzer, 2007).

In 2005 evidence showed that, "the television audience in any given country is dictated by the performance of their local hero" (F1 Market Report, 2006). Conversely, Michael Schumacher's retirement from F1 was blamed for a slump in German TV viewing figures which was said to be responsible for a 30% drop in viewers of the 2007 Australian GP over the previous year (Autosport, 2007b).

3.3.5.2 Association with success

Another of the emotions generated by sport is the pleasure derived from and the wish to be associated with "success". Sleight (1989) outlined that this boosts ticket sales and concluded that sports marketing thrives on "winners". "Failure" was blamed for the cessation by Tetley of their England cricket sponsorship (Winnett, 1997). Holbrook (2002, page 40) cautioned that Jaguar was not prepared to use F1 imagery fully in its advertising campaigns until the team were performing consistently well.

Whannell (1992, page 200) said that, "While there are clearly aesthetic pleasures in merely watching a sport performance, the real intensity comes from identifying with an individual or team as they strive to win". Mason (1999) went on to say that it is

this phenomenon that that has helped to make sport, “a vehicle for the promotion of corporate interests”. McDonald (1990) warned that a sponsor's need for success might affect the perception of the sponsorship. Resentment could set in if sponsorship goes to a team or individual who have already reached the top - because the success and publicity commanded yields the quickest return to the sponsor. This is particularly relevant to motorsport sponsors, as many are attracted by the television coverage achieved by the successful front-running teams. Indeed Ron Dennis, chief executive of McLaren International, illustrated the relevance when he admitted that his company basically deals in media exposure on behalf of its investors. McLaren were pitching for the same budgets as the advertising agencies and therefore it had to do as good a job (Howard, 1992).

The “winner” philosophy also transfers to event sponsorship. Ho’s (1995) found that most consumers regarded Olympic sponsors as “the best” in their particular industry and a positive impact on corporate reputation was suggested to be a result. Miyazaki and Morgan (2001) found that Olympic sponsors drew upon the image and aura of the Olympics to market themselves as “leaders in their field”.

Pham (1992) examined audience involvement with sports events and specifically arousal and pleasure generated by recognition of embedded sponsorship stimuli. This showed that involvement with a soccer game had a curvilinear effect on the recognition of embedded billboards. Arousal in reaction to the game had a negative effect and pleasure did not have an expected positive effect. Nebenzahl & Hornik (1985) regarded the effectiveness of billboards at sports events to be questionable. A football match provides an exciting atmosphere and close identification with a team so spectators are more predisposed to “accept influence” and as they are present out of personal choice visual images are more likely to be retrievable from memory than those observed in less emotional environments (Bennett, R, 1999).

Marshall (1995) asked whether people had tried to buy products made by Olympic sponsors and the results showed that 19% had. When the same question was asked in Brazil about World Cup sponsors 45% of respondents this time in agreed. It was deduced that emotion is powerful in the purchasing decision - particularly where the choice between two brands is evenly balanced. This contrasts with other research which found that Olympics and World Cup fans were unlikely to buy products based on sponsorship (Byrnes, 1994).

Pham (1992) acknowledged that stimuli triggered by sponsorship on sports billboards, player's shirts or on racing cars, which are close to the "centre of involvement" may be affected in a different way by the criteria of involvement and arousal. Pham said that, "in a racing context, it is possible that stimuli on the cars, provided that they are visible, may actually benefit from the increased focus of attention created by high involvement and arousal".

Hansen and Scotwin (1995) cautioned that sports games might be so exciting, "that very little mental capacity is available for processing information concerning billboards, signs on players". Other researchers (Batra *et al*, 1990; Goldberg & Gorn, 1987) have found that in the context of a TV commercial there is a relationship between positive moods generated by the accompanying programme environment and the effect of the advertising. It is suggested that, "since sponsoring tends to occur in positively evaluated environments, such mood effects may play a role in the explanation of the effectiveness of sponsoring".

Sport sponsorship is seen as an opportunity for sponsors to reach consumers through their "hearts and minds" (Nicholls & Roslow, 1999; Dolphin, 2003) which embraces their emotions. A core marketing competence is therefore the ability to design sponsorship communications that, "tap into the passion associated with the property and transfer it to the meaning attributed to the brand" (Fahey *et al*, 2004)

3.3.5.3 Employee morale

Sponsorship is used to help improve employee morale which is a clear emotional effect. Bremner (2006) found that 65% of Renault's employees supported the company's F1 team "passionately" and another 15% followed the team's fortunes. Renault also used the F1 team for competitions offering Renault dealer technicians the chance to become part of the team for a weekend whilst 6,000 employees attended the 2006 French F1 GP. The intention was to "bind the company together". ING specifically used their Renault F1 sponsorship for "internal communications" purposes by publicising the relationship to their staff on their Intranet. Additionally they took 1,300 employees to the Malaysian GP and 4,000 to the Mexico City demonstration event (Conner, 2007).

Ferrari admits that employee morale "does follow the fortunes of the [F1] team". Toyota find that F1 is, "an excellent way for a company to share a passion with their [270,000] employees". F1 is seen by Honda as a, "useful employee motivator" and as

a focal point for their 140,000 associates worldwide. F1 brings associates together and, "gives them one more thing to be proud of". For BMW F1 is a "morale booster" as a sense of "being in it together promotes team spirit and boosts employee incentive". Toyota uses their F1 participation as an "in-house motivator". Their intention is to help invigorate their workforce and to instill pride (Cooper, 2006).

3.3.5.4 Employee education

Mercedes-Benz exposes its engineers to F1 where they learn "how to develop effective solutions very quickly". Ferrari uses personnel cross-over "at all levels", whilst Honda has trained "generations of engineers in the ultra-competitive world of racing". BMW train their engineers in F1 and according to Mario Thiessen, director of BMW Motorsport, "you couldn't wish for a better schooling" (Bremner, 2006).

3.3.6 Results of sports sponsorship

Sport sponsorship not only enhances company and brand awareness but also creates among supporters perceptions of widespread use and desirability of sponsor's products (Bennett, R, 1999) whilst having a particular appeal to some consumers, particularly young men (Martin, 1996).

3.3.6.1 Olympics

In the USA Visa's market share increased after the 1988 Olympics (Stotlar, 1993) with their sales volumes up by 17% following their sponsorship of the 1992 Olympics (Miles, 1995). Visa had solely focused its promotion around its sponsorship before which none of their advertising or promotions had ever achieved more than a 3% increase (Marshall, 1995).

3.3.6.2 Cricket

Marshall (1995) stated that Cornhill Insurance's brand awareness rose from 2% to 21% thanks to its sponsorship of Test Cricket with Witcher *et al* (1991) estimating that this £2 million sponsorship would have cost £50 million in conventional advertising. The sponsorship was credited with attracting between £15 million and £20 million in extra sales (Amis *et al*, 1999). Cornhill measured the effectiveness of their sponsorship by testing unprompted name awareness, prompted names awareness, unprompted awareness of them as a sports sponsor, prompted awareness of Cornhill as a sports sponsor and attitudes towards sponsorship. They found that

unprompted awareness increased from 2% to 8% (Dinmore, 1980 and Meenaghan, 1996). Mintel (1990) established that unprompted awareness of the national cricket sponsor increased by 14% over a two-year period.

3.3.6.3 Tennis

Volvo calculated that in 1990 it received \$7 in value for every \$1 spent sponsoring tennis (Schlossberg, 1991; Irwin & Asimakopoulos, 1992). IVECO trucks successfully used sponsorship of heavyweight boxing in the USA to change the brand image of their product from "weak" to "macho" in the eyes of key decision makers (Meenaghan 1996). Jobber (2001) used media analysis to establish that Volvo's £2m tennis sponsorship yielded 1.4bn impressions in the media which equated to £12m in advertising. In 1985 Puma sold 150,000 rackets following Boris Becker's first Wimbledon victory with their sponsorship, as compared with only 15,000 rackets the previous year (Jeannet & Hennessey, 1988, page 456).

3.3.6.4 Football

Where football World Cup sponsors were concerned it was calculated that both media exposure and positive image associations had a positive effect on their sales. Marshall (1995) quoted three positive examples in Coca-Cola, Philips and Fuji, all of which experienced sales increases. Buchanan (1995) found that Carling, sponsor of the UK's Football Premier League, benefited from increased goodwill as its long-term involvement gave the brand the perception of being "a good guy" and sales grew by 15% (Paragon, 1996). Coca-Cola UK spent £14 million during the Euro 96 football tournament on sponsorship and advertising and received a 25% increase in sales in return (Grant, 1996). The same Euro 96 tournament is credited with raising the sales of Carlsberg-Tetley by 70% (Easton & Mackie, 1998). The Memphis cigarettes sponsorship of football was intended to target the youth market and not only successfully enhanced their image but also created brand attributes including being more masculine, dynamic and young (Bachmayer, 1986; Meenaghan & Shipley, 1999). Thwaites (1995) reported that football sponsorships reach a very wide audience of disparate consumer types thereby influencing the community and enhancing national brand awareness with football supporters crossing all age and socio-economic categories (Wright, 1998). In Britain football is the most sponsored of sports with half of males playing, watching (on TV or live) or reading about it (Mintel, 1991). Barclay's Bank's sponsorship of the English Football League in 1987 was seen as an opportunity for image enhancement thanks to football being part of the fabric of British society, national in character and featuring hallmark events with a high profile association. The bank benefited from comprehensive media exposure,

in-stadia advertising at 91 grounds, advertising opportunities, ticket provision and corporate hospitality. The two-year agreement, with an optional third year, had an initial investment of £5 million found the bank being seen as modernizing, adventurous and a contributor to British culture (Jones & Dearsley, 1989; Meenaghan & Shipley, 1999).

3.3.6.5 Cycling

TI Raleigh decided to break into the French bicycle market using sponsorship instead of advertising. They established the Raleigh Road Racing Team which competed in the Tour de France and its European sales rose 30% as a consequence (Cornelius, 1979). Meenaghan & Shipley (1999) quoted research that had shown that cycling in France was seen as high on endurance, team spirit, will to win, self-control and aggressiveness. It was not deemed as being appropriate for ordinary people and neither was it regarded as an executive sport. It had a strong male and rural bias. Somewhat negatively it was identified with the phrase "trop de magouilles" which meant that the sport was not seen as totally "above board" (Sofres, 1987).

3.3.6.6. Yachting

According to the literature sponsorship can achieve impressive returns. In the USA in 1994 the Grand Prix Yacht Racing series was calculated to have generated more than 60 million gross media impressions in sailing magazines and newspapers (Nix, 1995).

3.3.7 Celebrity endorsements

Endorsements by celebrities started in the 1930s (Patti & Frazer, 1988) and are a major element of sport sponsorship with 25% of all American commercials using celebrities (Shrimp, 2000) and 55% of those being sports figures (Agrawal & Kamakura, 1995). Alignment of a brand with a sporting icon continues to be popular and one of the latest examples in motorsport is the relationship between Lewis Hamilton and Bombardier Learjet (Urquhart, 2007c). Kesler (1979) said that, "even a casual television viewer cannot help but notice the use of sports images and personalities to sell beer, cars and a whole range of other products".

Endorsements are business deals between an individual sports star and a company that believes that the star's name and implied approval will directly increase sales of a product with which the star can be clearly associated (Sleight, 1989). Michael Jordan, for example, is credited with having Nike sneaker sales to \$110 million during his

successful 1984/5 season. When injuries stopped him competing the following year sales fell back to \$5.

Celebrities attract by their presence a loyal fan following which enables a specific product, such as tickets to a motorsport event, to be sold. When Barry Sheene was racing motorcycles his personal presence could increase attendance at a specific event by as many as twenty-five thousand spectators (Parrish & Harris, 2007, page 45). NASCAR drivers are described as being, “powerfully tied to their major sponsors as personalities and pitchmen” and appear in national advertising campaigns on TV, radio, billboards and in the print media becoming some of the, “best known and recognized characters in American sport” (Kirby, 2007).

Twenty per cent of all TV commercials feature celebrities (Belch & Belch, 1999) as they influence consumers’ feelings, attitudes and purchase with a celebrity or “famous spokesman” adding excitement, memorability and believability to a brand (Seiden, 1997). People are prepared to consume products associated with sport heroes because they believe that their own performance will be enhanced (Kambitsis *et al*, 2002). Dean and Biswas (2001) found that celebrity endorsements can result in more favourable advertisement ratings and evaluations whilst Erdogan (2001) identified celebrity endorsers as having a substantial positive impact on financial returns for companies that use them.

Celebrity based campaigns make advertisements more believable creating a positive attitude towards a brand (Kamins *et al.*, 1989), improve recall of advertising messages (Friedman & Friedman, 1979) and recognition of brand names (Petty *et al*, 1983). Silvera & Austad (2004) said that product attitudes are affected by inferences about the endorser’s liking for the product and by attitudes towards the endorser with Fahey *et al* (2004) suggesting that the personality of a champion might be the key. McCracken (1989) argued that celebrities create a distinct brand personality whilst consumers use information about the celebrity to make inferences about the product. Successful celebrity endorsement depends upon consumers’ belief that major stars are motivated by genuine affection for the product rather than be endorsement fees (Atkin & Block, 1983). Silvera and Austad (2004) echo the need for the consumer to believe that an endorser really likes the endorsed product and say that strong arguments and believable explanations should be emphasized. Celebrities have “stopping power” that draws attention to advertising messages in a cluttered environment (Belch & Belch, 1999). Sports-orientated products should be endorsed

by sports celebrities for the concept to be most effective and when considering celebrity endorsement the sport in question must fit the target market (Martin, 1996).

"Testimonial advertising" can be used whereby use is made of a brand by a celebrity which will be perceived by the consumer as a way of enhancing their own lifestyle (Kambitsis *et al*, 2002). Effectiveness depends upon the perceived "fit" between the celebrity and the product advertised (Till & Shrimp, 1998). Silvera and Austad (2004) agreed that advertisers should put more effort into choosing well matched endorsers. A caution is that due to brand "clutter" celebrities who endorse several products are less credible endorsers than those who endorse only one (Tripp *et al*, 1994).

The personality profile of celebrity sports stars is an important consideration if it is intended that those attributes will be transferred to their product. Meenaghan & Shipley (1999) quoted research in tennis which compared the two male players, Ivan Lendl and Boris Becker. Lendl was described as self-controlled, withdrawn, cold, calculated and inaccessible whilst Becker was shown to be less self-controlled, more gregarious, warm, likeable, friendly and spontaneous (Ryssell & Stamminger, 1998). It has been found that celebrities who are blamed for negative events can have a detrimental effect on the product they are endorsing (Louie & Obermiller, 2002). Silvera and Austad (2004) found that advertisers often just created an association between a celebrity and their product, "with the hope that the endorser's positive image will somehow 'rub off' on the product".

One early and prominent example of celebrity endorsement is that is that F1 world champion Juan Manuel Fangio who, in 1947 was sponsored by Suixtil, a men's clothing manufacturer. He would endorse their products by wearing their blue trousers, yellow shirt and blue helmet for many seasons (Donaldson, 2003, page 82). As promoter of the WRC David Richards (Rodgers, 2006) recognised the importance of celebrities to the sport when he said that, "we've got to promote the personalities more and the technical issues less".

Celebrities can cause problems for sponsors. MotoGP World Champion Valentino Rossi has had a, "longstanding anti-tobacco stance" and for a long time he refused to ride for a team with tobacco sponsors. Rossi had, "an unwillingness to be a PR mouthpiece for Gauloises", which, "did not help the ailing relationship between teams and sponsor". Gauloises' parent company Altadis was also concerned when Rossi was seen testing a Marlboro-backed Ferrari (Broadbent, 2006). Rossi's extrovert personality is credited with significantly boosting sales of motorcycle racing

merchandise over that of F1 (F1 Market Report, 2006). But can a positive image always be presented by a celebrity endorser? In Moto GP Valentino Rossi has found himself to be, “the face of the sport as well as its global ambassador”. As points leader he had been obliged to attend every Dorna press conference. In 2003 he fronted all of Dorna’s pre-event press conferences at all sixteen races. He likes to ride his bike and is quoted as saying that it is, “a shame that you have to do all the other s**t, but that’s the price to ride the best bike in the world” (Oxley, 2005, page 128). To his credit he has always presented a positive image.

The type of individual being asked to become a celebrity endorser in motorsport has changed with Damon Hill feeling that in marketing terms the requirements of a driver have actually changed over time. He argues that tobacco sponsors used to look for mavericks, or “individuals who broke the mould”. Nowadays, what is required are, “fine upstanding sportsmen who fulfill the image requirements of a major blue-chip corporation such as a car manufacturer”. He postulates that there is a conflict with those who might be the sponsor’s product consumers, the sport’s spectators, who “respond to the human dimension, which is brought about by some sort of empathy with the human being in the car”. “Muhammad Ali”, he says, “was and is the greatest sportsperson the world has ever known – but, however brilliant he was, someone like Ali would be much too outspoken for modern F1” (Bishop, 2006a).

Having examined sports marketing it is apparent from the literature that the significant influence of the cigarette and tobacco manufacturers needs to be addressed.

3.3.8 Sport and Tobacco

“Associating images of attractive healthy models and sports activities with tobacco products obscures potential health risks while inducing consumption, particularly among young audiences” McDaniel & Mason (1999).

The quote above is widely confirmed and has resulted in tobacco marketing regulation worldwide (Basil *et al*, 1991; Hoek *et al*, 1993; Ledwith, 1984; Meier, 1991; Moschis, 1989; Pollay, 1993; Warner *et al*, 1986). The legislation is particularly intended to protect under-age audiences, but in defence tobacco companies have stated that their sponsorship strategy is to influence brand switching

as opposed to inducing children to commence smoking (Howard & Crompton, 1995; Robertson, 1996). In contrast research into youth alcohol consumption (Snyder *et al*, 2006) found that advertising increased youth drinking quantities and, "at best causes brand switching".

In the USA it has been recognised that the loss of television advertising led to cigarette manufacturers finding, "ways to skirt the rules by advertising at sporting events" (Helberg, 1996) with sponsorships and in-arena promotions perceived as loopholes in restrictions on tobacco promotion (Cornwell, 1997).

Thoren (1980) apportioned growth in UK sponsorship to the cigarette advertising being banned and it was estimated that "20% of all sports sponsorship was funded by tobacco companies" (Mintel, 1972). In the USA tobacco advertising reduction led to motor racing championships and teams seeking replacement sponsors (Whalen, 1993). By 1995 the US Department of Justice removed tobacco advertisements from "incidental appearances" in some sports and in 1995 the Justice Department sued Philip Morris USA for illegally advertising on TV through stadium signage. A settlement was found when the signs were moved to areas less conspicuous to TV cameras. Philip Morris has consistently maintained that motor racing is different to other sports (Teinowitz & Jensen, 1995) but agreed to limit its arena signage to motorsport events in the USA with at least a 75% adult audience (McDaniel & Mason, 1999).

A 1996 court finding against BAT in the USA followed by the classification of tobacco/nicotine as an addictive drug increased pressure and when some states filed writs to recover money spent treating patients with smoking-related diseases US society, the government, and the courts took a harder view of smoking in the future (Kay, 1996). Alexander (1997) anticipated that US tobacco companies would agree a settlement after the tobacco company, Liggett, admitted that smoking caused cancer and was addictive. Soon a deal involving Philip Morris agreed to the withdrawal of, "billboard adverts, advertising that portrays a human character and sports sponsorship" but the loss of sponsorship it was said, "could create problems for small car racing teams".

Anti-tobacco legislation surfaced in Canada in 1997 (Bill C-71) which worried sports sponsors of televised events (Autosport 1997d) whilst in Britain the Labour Party manifesto of 1992 had proposed a complete ban on cigarette advertising and sport sponsorship (Otway, 1996). In 1997 it became the new Labour Government's policy

to ban tobacco sponsorship of sporting events and it supported the European Commission which was trying for a Europe-wide ban which Britain, Holland, Germany, Greece and Denmark had previously taken a stand against (Parsons, 1997a). The consequences of anti-tobacco legislation were illustrated in 1993 when the French motorcycling GP was cancelled after the organisers failed to obtain a relaxation of the anti-tobacco rules (Kane, 1997). Three French newspapers were much later fined for reproducing tobacco brand logos in photographs of sporting events and were sued by the Rights of Non-Smokers action group for using pictures showing F1 drivers with tobacco logos on their overalls (Autosport, 2006b).

On occasions, though, the commercial viability of a sport or event has been given preference over the public health concerns of tobacco sponsorship. The Canadian GP, for example, was permitted to keep tobacco sponsorship unlike other sports and events (McDaniel & Mason, 1999).

3.3.8.1 WHO Framework Convention on Tobacco Control

In 2005 the Chinese legislature became the latest country to ratify the World Health Organisation's (WHO) Framework Convention on Tobacco Control, which the government had signed in 2003 (China Daily, 2005). The WHO Treaty (WHO, 2005) requires countries to both prohibit the sale of tobacco to minors and to ban tobacco advertising, promotion and sponsorship.

Article 13 of the WHO Framework Convention on Tobacco Control (WHO, 2005) has many implications that have a potentially significant effect on not only local but also global sports such as motorsport. The intention of the framework is to oblige signatories to introduce a comprehensive ban on cross-border advertising, promotion and sponsorship that originates from its territory. This ban is intended to address effects that might be achieved through radio, television, print and, “other media, including the Internet”.

3.3.9 Other controversial products in sport

Tobacco is not alone as being perceived as a controversial product requiring marketing restrictions. Where motorsport is concerned the potential negative association of alcohol with anti-social behaviour, youth and specifically driving whilst intoxicated is potentially very powerful too. Alcohol sponsorships make up about 11% of all sponsorship expenditures (Ukman, 1995).

Alcohol has joined tobacco in being a product that creates both health and economic burdens on society and may face further international restrictions (Cornwell & Maignan, 1998; Rice *et al*, 1991; Schuster & Powell, 1987; McDaniel & Mason, 1999). One argument is that both tobacco and alcohol products are legal and marketed to adults and should not be subjected to restrictions (Matthews, 1998) with the implications of free commercial speech complicating potential legislation (Alliance for Sponsorship Freedom, 1997; Boddewyn, 1993; 1994; Matthews, 1998; Warner *et al*, 1986).

Alcohol promotion is increasingly scrutinised (Howard & Crompton, 1995; O’Connell, 1989) and in sport Anheuser Busch’s 1996 Olympic sponsorship was protested by the National Council on Alcoholism and Drug Abuse. The same company’s involvement with World Cup football was similarly a matter of concern for the National Coalition of Hispanic Health and Human Services Organisation (Carter, 1996). The allegation is made that the alcohol industry is suffering fewer marketing problems because sport is more financially dependent on alcohol revenue than income from tobacco (Howard & Crompton, 1995; McDaniel & Mason, 1999). The EU too is examining alcohol sponsorship of sport and a recommendation is being discussed that existing commercial communication regulations should include, “an incremental long-term development of no advertising on TV and cinema, no sponsorship, and limitation of messages and images only referring to the quality of the product” (EU, 2006, page 416).

The UK’s Portman Group, which promotes responsible drinking, had no problem with McLaren’s sponsorship by the Johnnie Walker whisky brand. A spokesman said, “We don’t think association with motorsport encourages drink-driving any more than adverts by the side of the road do” (F1 Racing 2005g). By 2007 the Portman Group’s Code of Practice on the Naming, Packaging and Promotion of Alcoholic Drinks had placed a restriction on the branding of alcohol products on children’s replica sports shirts. This indicated a hardening of attitudes towards sports sponsorships affecting as it did nine county cricket clubs, two Premiership football teams, three Scottish Premier League clubs and a number of rugby clubs (Portman Group, 2007).

Foster’s sponsorship of the Melbourne F1 GP attracted comments from the Australian national alcohol policy body that, “alcohol should have no place in spectator sports” and that, “Australia needed to catch up with France” (Turner, 2005, page 100). The UK’s Royal College of Physicians wants a total ban on alcohol advertising, including

sponsorship of sport. The fall of alcohol consumption in France in as the result of a similar policy was in contrasted to the increase in the UK (Royal College of Physicians, 2007). Alcohol advertisers in France face the "Loi Evin" laws that forbid TV advertising of alcohol products, or televised sponsorship by drinks companies at sporting events. The same laws forced French TV channels to cancel coverage of an Ireland v Scotland rugby match as well as a football match between Arsenal and Auxerre. Early in 1997 Newcastle United were also forced to remove reference to Newcastle Brown from their shirts for a game in Monaco (Kane, 1997).

The literature reveals that where alcohol marketing communications is concerned spirit products are more problematic than beer (Schuster & Powell, 1987) as illustrated by the International Olympic Committee's (IOC) refusal to allow sponsorships by tobacco or spirit brands (McDaniel & Mason, 1999). There is also conjecture as to whether advertising bans on products have actually demonstrated positive benefits on public health (Ambler, 1996; Boddewyn, 1994; Madden & Grube, 1994).

Taylor and Raymond (2000) quoted Czinkota and Ronkainen (1998) in pointing out the wider implications of legal restrictions on advertising in other countries which is a challenge for multinational businesses. Not only are tobacco and alcohol a problem but also ethical drugs, contraceptives, personal hygiene products and undergarments. Gambling companies too, such as B-Win in MotoGP, are controversial (McCullagh, 2008b). Equally economic, legal and political factors may be problematic with censorship and state monopolies present in some economies (Albaum *et al*, 1998). The impact of religiosity needs to be recognised in influencing attitudes towards sponsorships (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982). As far as motorsport is concerned as it increasingly embraces the Middle and Far East, even though governments welcome the prestige of motorsport, local sensitivities need to be anticipated.

Another controversial type of product heavily promoted within motorsport are energy drinks such as Red Bull. Having bought the Jaguar and Minardi F1 teams and brandstanced them as Red Bull Racing and Scuderia Toro Rosso respectively the company is also a major sponsor in Moto GP backing both races and teams.

The Red Bull product was originally banned in Germany but is on sale in more than a hundred countries marketed by association with high-risk sports to create a youthful and exciting brand. Health concerns over the drink arose when the European court upheld a French ban because it had been linked to several deaths. The French

Scientific Committee on Human Nutrition had found it, “contained excessive caffeine” as well as taurine and glucuronolactone. France, Denmark and Norway have banned the drink but Britain's Committee on Toxicity decided it was safe, whilst warning pregnant women against it (Medical News Today, 2004). In the UK Morrisons supermarkets refuse to serve Red Bull to customers under the age of sixteen.

Some of the energy drink brands that are associated with motorsport sponsorships are shown in Appendix 8.

3.3.10 Women and sports marketing

Sports marketing to women, whose lifestyles and societal roles have changed, presents an exciting option for promotional strategies. The problem was that insufficient "knowledge and evidence exists regarding the use of sports marketing in general" and in particular its use for targeting the female market (Shani, Sandler & Long, 1992).

NBC designed their 1996 Olympics TV coverage to, "specifically bring on board the female viewer" as they wanted to involve more women within a "flexible narrative context" with much more than normal about the personal lives of competitors as well as adjusted transmission schedules (Smith, 1996b). Mintel (1991) revealed that while three in six men watched football on television the proportion was only one in six for women and Pham (1992) had already identified that the recognition of sponsorship stimuli (embedded billboards) was significantly lower among females than among males.

It has been found that the British, Australian and US media give preference to male athletes, whilst sometimes ignoring female athletic achievements (George, *et al*, 2001). Women have been excluded from athletic sport (Vogler & Schwartz, 1993) whilst George *et al* (2001) identified an under-representation of female athletes in the media and agreed with Hargreaves' (1986) statement that, “sport constitutes the most male-dominated sector of the media”. Newspaper coverage of female athletes emphasised their femininity whilst often referring to them as “girls” and “female athletes are...judged on their sexual attractiveness as opposed to their sporting performance” (Crossett, 1995; Duncan; 1990; Hilliard, 1984; Harris, 1999; George *et al*, 2001). The trend seemed to be continuing when the announcement that Katherine

Legge was to receive a test in a Minardi F1 car was made using the headline “Brit girl set for Minardi test” (Motorsport News, 2005b)

3.3.11 Sport's problems for sponsors

Selection of either a sport or an individual to sponsor is not as easy as it might seem. It is not generally realised that golf is regarded by some as elitist and is not popular in all countries (Henry, 1991). Sleight (1989) said that each sport has its own general image but with the growth in professionalism, encouraged by large financial rewards, pressures have increased on individual competitors. Both drug abuse and violence have crept into certain sports and there are signs that some audiences are consequently becoming tired and disillusioned by such trends. A mistake in the selection of a sport to sponsor, said Sleight, could be, "very expensive to your image and may take a lot of time and money to rectify". Potential sport sponsors might turn instead to the "clean, non-competitive and sophisticated image" of the arts as an alternative. Singh (1995) warned that if sponsorship were to be used globally that account must be taken of differing cross-cultural issues and tolerances of commercialization.

3.3.12 Sport and Television

“Sport builds television and other media audiences, while exposure on TV builds an audience for the sports industry”
(Wolfe *et al*, 1997; Mason, 1999)

The quotation illustrates the symbiotic relationship enjoyed by sport and television with the latter regarded as the largest cause of growth of the professional sport industry (Whannel, 1992). From the origins of commercial television in the 1950s sport has been identified as being attractive both in broadcasting and advertising revenue terms as it is exciting, unpredictable and was originally perceived to attract a “homogeneous male viewing audience” which potentially provides an ideal fit for the marketing of male-orientated products (Hofacre & Burman, 1992; Wilson, 1994). Soon it was recognized that the sport audience was in fact much more likely to be split along 60-40 male-female demographic lines (Rosenstein, 1993).

Sport is seen as a programming option through which air time can be sold to advertisers (Turner & Shilbury, 1997; Mason, 1999) and it should be recognized that it has been deliberately harnessed to expand media empires such as that of Rupert Murdoch (Barnett, 1990).

Television has actually changed the content of some sports. For example, the size of the puck in ice hockey has been criticized for being too small for television viewers (Catsis, 1996), footballs have changed from natural leather in colour to visible white and in motorsport slow corners have been built into circuits to make sponsor logos on cars more visible for television (Roebuck, 1995f & 1995g). In a number of sports, including motorsport, cricket and football, it has become commonplace for sponsor logos to be created on the playing surface of grass or alongside the track.

Some sports, including motorsport, maintain and control the quality of their television coverage by producing their own broadcasts (Kurlantzick, 1983; Wilson, 1994) whilst there have been experiments with pay-per-view as a revenue transmissions (Catsis, 1996; Ross, 1998). Three ways of getting a message across on television have been utilised including commercials, programme [broadcast] sponsorships or event sponsorship (McElhatton, 1995).

Media coverage is dictating which sports are sponsored (Intel, 2002) and for many marketers media coverage is the motivating consideration in sponsorship (Cornwell, 2000). Coverage of sponsored events is vital for their commercial success with newspaper and television coverage widening the audience and providing a backcloth for other forms of marketing communication. Generally the media recognises the value of sponsorship giving them something to cover also inexpensive television programming (ISS, 1997).

As the influence of the media on sport has increased in the USA the major sports have tailored their games and schedule to suit the requirements of television and sponsors (Sugden, 1994). A sixty-minute American football game generates a three hour broadcast but the lack of interest in soccer in the USA is because the game has few natural breaks - time-outs, etc. - to accommodate action replays and advertising (Hudson, *et al*, 1996).

In Premier League football pay-per-view (PPV) television increased outside investor interest in clubs to increase but football club shares slumped when investors had not, "joined enthusiastically in the general perception of PPV television as a guaranteed money-spinner" (Kane & Steiner, 1996). A concern about PPV television was settled in 1997 when the European Parliament amended the "Television Without Frontiers" Directive effectively stopping PPV broadcasters from buying up listed sports events exclusive airing on their channels. This protected events such as national football cup

finals and the Olympics which would be guaranteed through free-to-air transmissions (Broadcast, 1997).

Meenaghan (1991b) suggested that sponsorship would grow in Europe thanks to the new media which would shift the emphasis from event to broadcast sponsorship. Europe was expected to experience the increase in sports television experienced in the USA in the 1970s and 1980s (Rosner, 1989). Increased media interest in sports programming and the consequent growth in sponsorship has been attributed to increased leisure time and interest in sports. The increased commercialisation of television and that it is less costly to broadcast sporting events than to produce shows or documentaries has been influential too. The growth of new media such as video, cable television, satellite transmission and private television has increased the demand for live sports programming and provided additional channels of exposure for both sports and sponsors (Mullin, *et al*, 1993, page 212).

In the USA increased television coverage led to increased interest in sport. The amount of time devoted to sport in 1960 by the three major television channels was 300 hours and by 1982 this had increased to 1,600 hours - a 500% increase (Lardner *et al*, 1982) and this figure did not include cable TV stations. The growth of televised sports coverage has increased access to sport for armchair spectators along with the sophistication of sports marketing (Sleight, 1989). Extra revenues have come from television rights, an enlarged audience for merchandising and through in-stadium advertising. TV has boosted the image of major events and as a consequence attracted corporate sponsorship.

The downside of television coverage was illustrated during the 1996 Olympics. NBC originated the term "plausibly live" when they adjusted their US event scheduling by delaying the broadcasting of an early evening gymnastic event until midnight to achieve, "the highest Olympic rating in America since 1976" (Smith, 1996b). NBC had aimed "programming at a prime-time rather than a real-time audience" and the "corporation ignored the actual scheduling of events, with some exceptions, and used video-taped footage in evening slots without attempting to explain to its audience that what they were watching was not live" (Fenton, 1996).

New TV techniques have been developed such as ISL Television's *Imadgine* system which uses digital technology to paste new images over existing perimeter advertising which was first used at the ATP tennis tournament in Jerusalem in May 1996 and then in the IAAF Grand Prix in Atlanta. Thanks to the system sponsors and

advertisers could more accurately match their brands with markets whilst complying with laws in some countries restricting advertising of certain products whilst promoting them simultaneously elsewhere (Sponsorship News, 1996c). Symah Vision developed the Epsis "virtual billboard" system as well as "virtual scoreboards". The billboard system was to enable broadcasters to insert graphically generated advertising billboards into shots (Broadcast, 1996) bringing "a new dynamic dimension in terms of added value for advertisers on an international level" (Sponsorship News, 1997).

3.3.13 The television audience

"I am a professional sportsman.....the more people that watch a particular sport, the more money is generated and the more the sportsmen or women are paid"

Red Bull F1 driver David Coulthard (Coulthard, 2007, page 215)

The television viewer should be regarded by the marketers as, "a potential customer for a team's or sport's merchandising or a sponsor's message" (Sleight, 1989). In accepting this analysis television is a, "relatively cheap alternative promotion medium" (Meenaghan, 1983) with Greer (1997) indicating that there are many factors that influence the success of a sponsorship seen on television in terms of awareness including the channels, scheduling, the number of core regular viewers and the quantity of other sponsors involved.

Sport has the great advantage that it reaches "ABC1 men" which is very attractive market for advertisers (Hawkey, 1995) and Mark Sharman, head of ITV news and sport, confirms that F1 provides does just that which is "priceless" to the commercial channel. In marketing terms F1 brings "high-end audiences that will deliver blue-chip premium brands, along with their attendant advertising budgets" (Urquhart, 2008). In appealing to this prime market sport in general has also fed the expansion in new media and satellite transmissions with more than 60% of Intelstat's programming being sports events. Sky Sport is "the biggest producer of sports programming in Britain" with its expanding sports budget which is than that of the BBC and more than twice that of ITV (Hawkey, 1995).

Tindale (1990) pointed out that commercial television advertising campaigns are targeted at specific audiences through sophisticated media planning and then evaluated precisely to see how cost-effective they have been by analysing the

composition, reach, frequency and cost-per-viewer. If a potential sponsor wanted to target the AB audience then the popularity of relevant sports would be examined comparing total AB viewing of motor racing with total AB viewing of all sport to calculate the SVI or *Sports Viewing Index*.

Motorsports continue to perform well when compared with other types of sport in measures of TV audiences as shown in Table 3.17

Table 3.17
The Most-Watched Sports Events of 2006 – Average Audience

Rank	Event	Sport	Total Audience	Average Audience
1	FIFA World Cup Final	Football	603m	260m
2	Turin 2006 Opening Ceremony	Olympic Games	249m	87m
3	UEFA Champions League Final	Football	209m	86m
4	<i>Brazilian GP</i>	<i>Formula One</i>	<i>154m</i>	<i>83m</i>
5	Super Bowl	American Football	151m	98m
12	<i>Daytona 500</i>	<i>NASCAR</i>	<i>47m</i>	<i>20m</i>

Source: Initiative Sports Futures ViewerTrack (The Paddock, 2007e)

3.3.14 Sponsorship in Sport Summary

Sport is attractive to commercial sponsors because it has the ability to transcend many barriers with its universal appeal both geographically, demographically and socioculturally. In the UK sports sponsorship spending has been on the increase for many years. Sport produces emotion in its audience and has yielded many advantages to sponsors. Tobacco sponsorship of sport has reduced but was successful for the companies involved whilst continuing to be controversial and increasingly faces restrictive legislation worldwide. Alcohol sports sponsors too face similar problems although not yet on the level of tobacco. Not all sports are suitable for all sports sponsors. Sport is particularly attractive to sponsors who desire media and particularly television coverage for their company or brand. Pay-per-view television is impacting the media side of sport with large potential income for a variety of sports. Fears of an exclusion of free-to-air television audiences has led to European legislation. Virtual billboards are a concept that could increasingly influence sports marketing. The television audience is important to sponsors with football consistently demonstrating the largest following in the UK.

3.4 SPONSORSHIP IN MOTORSPORT

"F1 is a very effective and economic way of getting a brand recognized".

Max Mosley, President of the FIA (F1 Racing, 2005e)

3.4.1 Introduction

Having examined the generalities of sponsorship, sport and sponsorship in sport it is necessary to focus on the specific literature concerning motorsport.

Firstly, what is motorsport? Henry *et al* (2007, page 1) define motorsport as being, "competitive racing by equivalent machines on a frequent basis, on designated tracks and circuits". This definition is supported by this research although historically it should be remembered that the origins of motorsport lay on public roads. Henry goes on to define the "machines" involved within motorsport as including, "motorcycles, moto-cross, karts, historic cars, drag, open-wheel, single-seat, sports, GT, Formula Ford, touring cars, rallying, sports compact, CART, IRL and Formula One". Again this definition is supported although MotoGp motorcycles and Formula One cars are the focus within this research.

The relevance of sponsorship to motorsport is illustrated by Bennett (1995) who said that, "If television coverage provides the oxygen for F1, sponsorship is its life-blood" and this is common to all forms of motorsport, which is an expensive activity. Hynes (2006) took another angle when referring to Midland's F1 sponsorship. He questioned the benefits of a F1 presence for the "faceless company" that owns "a conglomeration of unglamorous, non-consumer products" and questioned the relevance of promoting itself, rather than its brands.

Edwards (1987) said that motor racing could be among the most effective of marketing platforms if handled astutely. As the FIA F1 World Championship is the most televised global sport, comparable only with the Summer Olympics and the FIFA World Cup (Sponsorship News, 1996b; Bagot, 1997; Autosport, 1998) and achieves global popularity and wide appeal means that sponsors have the potential "to reach the world's richest markets simultaneously via one method of communication" (Wilkins, 1996). To illustrate the power of broadcasting motorsport globally Saward (1996) indicated that Asia's emerging middle classes were a very tempting new

market for F1 sponsors. The office equipment firm Danka, for example, used F1 sponsorship as an integral part of their marketing strategy (Team Danka Arrows, 1998) with their overall objective being to establish Danka as a “world-class and instantly recognizable brand” through three core objectives, to establish and raise brand awareness, explain what Danka is and does (through international advertising, PR and other support activities) and to continue to expand the business (through direct marketing / sales campaigns).

Danka identified sponsorship as being a “highly powerful and cost-effective means of building brand awareness” whilst creating “a positive image for the company”. F1 sponsorship also provided them with a theme for brand communication whilst generating “numerous supplementary opportunities for sales promotion, customer hospitality and staff motivation”. Benetton also found motorsport sponsorship to be cost effective with Briatore (1997) stating that to Benetton, a leading European fashion brands with a long motor racing history, "F1 costs nothing. If you have all this free advertising, you will keep going because there is no other way to get such world-wide publicity". Kevin Eason (cited in Holbrook, 2002, page 80) agreed saying that motorsport sponsorship is “good cheap advertising” and in F1’s case “to get that kind of exposure and all the intrinsic benefits, advertising would prove a lot more expensive”.

Edwards (1987) said that motor racing sponsorship has two main sponsorship advantages over other sports. Firstly, racing cars and drivers offer the chance of using moving and living promotional tools. Secondly, motorsport provides an immensely versatile sponsorship programme providing a platform to reach a clearly defined audience, as well as television exposure. It encourages flexibility and a variety of options for brand marketing, such as sponsorship of events, series, drivers or teams. Market-by-market targeting is possible, allowing for efficient allocation of marketing funds and there is an extensive season typically spanning eight or nine months, providing exposure throughout most of the year (Karmer, 1996).

A summary of just why motor racing is attractive to sponsors in general is contained within Figure 3.5.

Fig 3.5
"NO SPONSORSHIP NO SPORT"

If horse racing is the sport of kings, then F1 motor racing is the sport of corporations - which is the view of one sage. Another view, more trenchantly put is, "No sponsorship, no sport".

Though sponsors involve themselves in motor racing for many different reasons and at a variety of levels - backing teams, individual drivers, races or championships - the attractions are clear.

As one set of research findings put it: "Motorsport at the F1 level is sophisticated, cosmopolitan, and has a following of intelligent and, in the main, up-scale males and females. It combines all the elements of the 20th-century mythology - i.e. speed, excitement, money, chic and celebrity.

"F1 is highly aspirational. It attracts good media coverage. The TV audience is international and very large. It is a good vehicle for strong brand graphics, and it has massive opportunities for exploitation".

(Source: Howard, Anthony *"Behind the scenes in motor racing,"* Partridge Press, London, 1992, page 48)

Arthur *et al* (1998) sum up motorsport well when they say that it is inextricably related to corporate sponsorship with it being “virtually impossible to watch a motor race of any type, at any level, anywhere in the world on television or track side without being swamped with images of sponsor logos and signage”. In examining motorsport and its apparent wealth and glamour there is a major caution that needs to be recognized. Jackie Stewart cautioned that “within the F1 world many individuals and companies are vulnerable and financially fragile” (Stewart, 2007, page 361).

The purpose of this part of the literature review is to examine the implications of sponsorship with regard to the two motorsport genre and its rationale. It should be recognized that F1 has thus far enjoyed a much higher media profile than MotoGP and that there is a bias towards the former in the quantity of information available.

3.4.2 The sponsorship alternatives

The various segments of motorsport can fit most potential sponsor's budgets as not everyone wants necessarily to spend several million pounds on sponsoring either a driver or team (Head, 1988). At an early stage a decision has to be made by sponsors as to whether to involve themselves with a *team*, an *event* or a *driver*. Ackerman

(1993) found that sponsors pursue one of two objectives which are either corporate or brand/product related and they mainly try to associate with highly publicised individuals or teams (Quester & Farrelly, 1998). The most common route to obtaining television exposure is either to sponsor an *event*, a *team* or an *individual* or to make use of *perimeter advertising* campaigns (Tindale, 1990). A combination of these elements is quite possible within the same sponsorship strategy. An F1 example might be of a personally sponsored Marlboro *driver* racing a Marlboro-sponsored *car* in a Marlboro sponsored *race* surrounded by Marlboro *perimeter advertisements* and Marlboro *merchandising*.

A common risk surrounds the performance of the athlete, team or event, and how this may be perceived by the targeted audience. Should an athlete fail a drugs test or an event be poorly run, such as the 1996 Olympics, the image could transfer to the sponsor's image or product (Aimis *et al*, 1999). To counter this potential problem in F1 the event organizers are guaranteed a minimum number of competitors at every race, although things can still go wrong as illustrated by the 2005 USA GP that fielded only six cars.

3.4.2.1 Event sponsorship

A sponsored event both attracts and provides access to a defined audience. McLuhan's (1964) theory that the “medium is message” suggests that motorsport event sponsorship is bound up with attributes such as glamour, excitement, colour, danger and youth (Meenaghan & Shipley, 1999) or confrontation, aggression, danger and displays of skill and courage (Quester & Farrelly, 1998). A sponsored event provides both status and prestige and this has been associated with consumer intentions to respond favourably towards sponsoring firms (Speed & Thompson, 2000).

Some benefits of a motorsport event sponsorship are shown in Figure 3.6.

In both motor racing and motorcycle racing the events available for sponsorship are normally “hallmark events” (Ritchie, 1984). These are defined as special events, mega-events and unique, status or major events (Getz, 1997; Hall, 1995; Mules & Faulkner, 1996; Westerbeek *et al*, 2002) and can be international in appeal, either one-off and short-termed or conducted on a regular cycle (Hamilton, 1997, page 124). Hallmark events project a high status image (Law, 1993) and may be part of a tourism-based destination city promotion (Moutinho & Witt, 1994). In such a context

Ingerson and Westerbeek (2000) refer to Melbourne as "the sporting capital of Australia" not only because of its hallmark F1 GP but also because of its Australian Open tennis and golf, AFL Grand Final and the Melbourne Cup. Sport differentiates Melbourne from other cities.

Figure: 3.6
MOTORSPORT EVENT SPONSORSHIP PROGRAMME BENEFITS

- Extensive corporate brand visibility through:
 - On-track signage
 - On-site signage
 - Advertisements in big screen televisions at major events
 - Advertisements in event programs
- Event entitlement rights which make the event a part of a company's Regional Marketing programmes.
- Corporate hospitality venues for key customer entertainment.
- On-site product merchandising and display opportunities to drive product awareness.
- On-site product sampling opportunities to drive product trial.
- Discount ticket packages for local promotional programs.

(Source: Karmer, 1996)

Strategies involving advertising signs at sports stadiums and arenas demonstrate "place-based media" activities (Mandese 1992; Roslow *et al*, 1993). Place-based media is frequently regarded as something that solely involves banner advertising, which may or may not be seen by television cameras, but in motor racing the marketing messages also adorn the vehicles at the centre of the action. Place-based marketing activities are intended "to influence immediate or subsequent purchase behaviour" (Nicholls *et al*, 1995) and large-scale hallmark events are favoured locations (Ritchie, 1984). The audience is attracted to hallmark events by a common bond which will be an interest in a particular activity relevant to the event. A sponsor that associates its name with such an event can share its image in an effect called "brandstanding" whilst the event "creates for the brand an aura of excitement, interest, and reliability, and renewed vitality" (Stevens, 1984). It took some time for sponsors of motorsport to recognise that they could get more for their money "than simply their logo riding around in circles on the side of a car" (Whalen, 1993) and it is now regarded as normal "to have the sponsor's name enter the vocabulary of the consumer" (Mason, 1992). Brandstanding research shows that events that include the sponsor's name (an unidentified F1 GP was utilised) generated a higher level of sponsor awareness than others and suggested that companies should do just this with the events [or the teams] they sponsor (Javalgi, Traylor, Gross & Lampman 1994;

Lane, 1994). Sometimes brandstanding can adversely affect the emotions of those loyal to a particular team or event with Lane (1994) relating the case of the fans of the "Capital Region Pontiacs" who so disliked the rename that spectator attendances dropped.

It is evident from the literature that motorsport races are hallmark events and that the individuals in the audience, whether physically present or watching on television, are bound together by a common interest in the sport and its players. The literature recognises that hallmark events offer opportunities for both sponsorship and advertising (Roslow *et al*, 1993). In motorsport a hallmark event is confined to an arena which is called a track or circuit. There really is no difference in marketing terms between the two with the German race track Hockenheim actually possessing a Stadt or "stadium" section. The literature regarding billboards at sports arenas therefore applies equally to tracks and the messages are designed to attract the attention of both the spectator as well as the television viewer. Turley and Shannon (2000) discuss sports arenas as being "captive settings" for audiences. Wakefield and others have specifically studied the environment of sports arenas which were found to influence satisfaction (Wakefield & Blodgett, 1994), repurchase intentions ((Wakefield & Blodgett, 1994; Wakefield & Sloan, 1995; Wakefield *et al*, 1996) and pleasure (Wakefield *et al*, 1996). Crimmin & Horn (1996) by contrast queried whether logos were really noticed by sports fans using Pokrywczynski's (1994) assertion that an arena message needed eight to twenty times more exposure than a television commercial to achieve the same result. Cunneen and Hannan (1993) found that whilst 91% of their sample didn't look for advertisements 98% noticed the billboards around a golf course.

Event sponsorship invariably involves a facility owner as well as a promoter (Erickson & Kushner, 1999) with the two having a functional alliance as the former needs entertainment and the latter a requirement for sites. In motorsport there are national sponsors, who adorn the competition vehicles or sponsor the championship, whilst the facility owner has to provide sponsor visibility through billboards or on-camera showcases. Sponsor prerequisites, such as hospitality suites for entertaining clients, that enhance the value sponsor will be the responsibility of the facility owner.

Table 3.18
Who earns what from the British Grand Prix?

FOM	Race fee	\$13.5m
Silverstone	Ticket sales	\$13.0m
Allsport	Trackside ads	\$10.0
Allsport	Paddock Club	\$4.5m
ITV	Advertisements	\$4.0m
Allsport	Fosters sponsorship	\$3.5m
*Ferrari	Race fee	\$3.0m
*Minardi	Race fee	\$1.0m
Police	Traffic, etc	\$0.275m
BRDC	profit	\$0

*Range of fees agreed with Formula One Management (FOM) who compensated all teams for participating in two more races in 2005 (the French and British GPs) than the agreed 17 (F1 Racing, 2005k).

An estimation of the finances involved in running the British GP at Silverstone is shown in Table 3.18. Youson (2006) said that the business case for hosting a GP is “appallingly weak” in many cases necessitating the involvement of national or state government assistance. He quoted Dr Walter Kafitz, general manager of the Nurburgring, who said that, “there is no circuit or promoter who makes money [out of F1] anymore”. The motivation for hosting the F1 GP is to use “the halo effect it brings to all the associated businesses”.

3.4.2.2 Team sponsorship

Team sponsorship can take several forms and motorsport is not unique in this. For example, where Richard Branson's round-the-world balloon flight was concerned the types of sponsorship fell into *main* or *title* sponsors, *technical assistance* sponsors and sponsors purely *providing parts*. Motorsport offers similar sponsor differentiation and this is illustrated by Macknight (1993) described the arrangement of *core* sponsor as well as *primary, associate and technical sponsors* as shown in Table 3.19.

Table: 3.19
LOLA-BMS F1 TEAM - SPONSOR TYPES

<u>Sponsor Type</u>	<u>Company</u>	
<u>Primary</u>	Philip Morris (Italy)	Marlboro cigarette brand.
	Agip	Italian Oil Company.
	Lucchini Steel	Italian Steel.
<u>Associate</u>	Framon	Lighting.
	Magneti Marelli	Automotive electronics.
	Secol	Construction company.
	Almar	Door handles.
	Fastar	Optical Accessories.
	Replay	Clothing.
	Osama	Writing instruments.
	Setrans	Transport company.
	Lusfina	Finance House.
	<u>Technical</u>	Agip
Magneti Marelli		Electronics.
Goodyear		Tyres.
Brembo		Brake Units.
Carbone Industrie		Brake discs.
Due Emme Mille Miglia		Wheel rims.
Koni		Dampers.
Sparco		Driver's clothing.
Momo		Steering wheels.
USAG		Tools

Henry (1991) stated that Williams' sponsors basically fell into two key groups those who like the association with the "image", to increasing their market awareness, and others who want a "direct engineering spin-off". Williams' original Saudi title sponsors used their relationship for image purposes that at the time (1980s) didn't fit any existing conventional marketing model which Henry (1991) defined as image making by association. Williams' official supplier sponsor, Mobil, alternatively used their sponsorship to market their synthetic lubricant Mobil 1. ICI were initially interested in image promotion before collaborating on carbon-fibre component development and enthusing their technical personnel through the speed and reaction time required in F1 (Henry, 1991). Thomas (1995) expanded on sponsor differentiation at Williams as being title sponsor, technical partner, technical sponsor, sponsor and official supplier. The title sponsor and the technical partners supplied most of the finance as well as the engines whilst in return their names are "brandstanded", as in Rothmans Williams Renault or Marlboro McLaren Mercedes, as suggested by Mason's (1992). The technical sponsors provide tyres, petrol and sundry equipment as well as finance. Sometimes this support is "in kind" and may

include technical aid or free parts supplied by tyre, fuel, IT or components companies in return for acknowledgements on cars, helmets or racing clothing (Head, 1988).

Thomas (1995) referred to Williams' technical sponsor Komatsu which provided transmissions and hydraulic systems in return for a "near-invisible presence on the car, just inside the front wheels". This sponsorship was for "purely internal, corporate reasons" which was that they [Komatsu] annually needed to recruit the best young engineers and software designers from Japanese Universities. Williams' technical sponsor, Telxon, supplied both finance and equipment in return for hosting prospective customers at races (Thomas, 1995). Global F1 Partner Allianz found team engagement to be very important emotionally and in terms of credibility and that race hospitality would not have been possible without it as it allowed the drivers to be accessible (Deuringer, 2008).

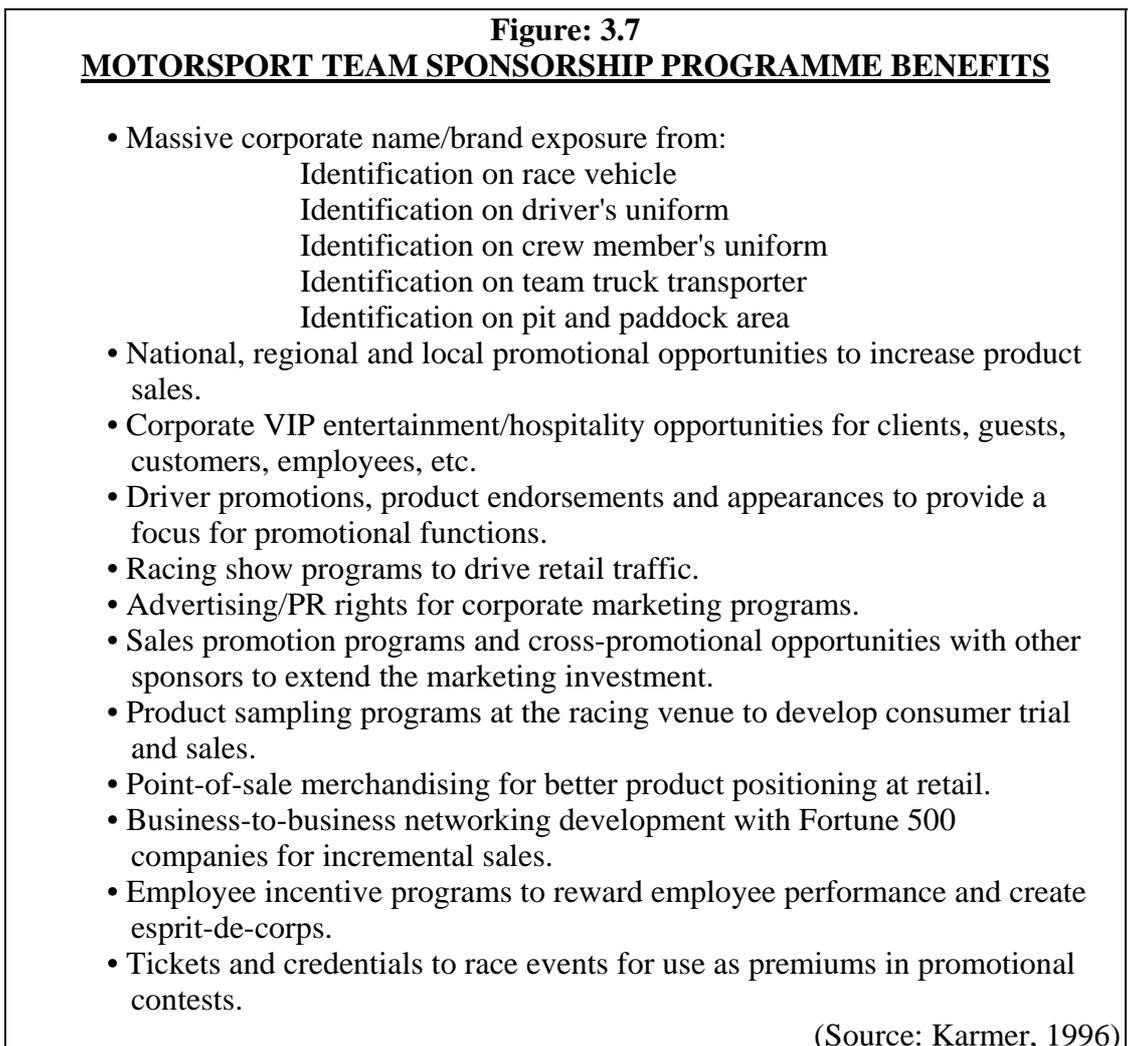
Visibility-wise the *sponsors* have their names appear to a greater or lesser extent on both the vehicles and the drivers (Thomas 1995). According to Walker (1995), "it is not Williams' policy to have the car looking like a Christmas tree" a philosophy followed too by Ken Tyrrell (Holt, 1996) to avoid the confusion of multi-messages or "noise" and "clutter". Each *official supplier* has a different motive for being involved with Williams having 150, all of whom wanted to be involved, so the team created an "Official Supplier Programme". This allowed them to make use of the Williams Conference Centre and Museum as well as attending two test sessions annually and meeting the drivers, lunching in the motor home and visiting the garages to see the team at work. Thomas (1995) referred to the example of Labatt, the Canadian brewers, which established an organisation to promote their products worldwide. With F1 offering it a promotional platform on sixteen occasions annually to project their brand to a worldwide television audience. Williams' official supplier, Dupont, painted the team's cars with a light finish which was a product that was a necessity for the team's performance thanks to weight-saving (Walker, 1995). Thomas (1995) made the point that a large is not necessary for all sponsorship deals as DuPont subsidiary Automotive Finishers only had 48 customers worldwide. With no visible presence on the cars their need was for F1 designer, Patrick head, to confirm that DuPont provided the toughest, shiniest and, crucially, lightest paints on the market.

A team that endorses a sponsor's products is attractive to the team's supporters because it is both familiar and liked (Bennett, R, 1999) and the literature establishes that consumers are more likely to be influenced by communicators who are trusted and liked (Sears *et al*, 1991).

Rothmans preferred to sponsor a F1 team rather than an event because by doing so they received coverage throughout the season (Andrews & Tucker, 1996) with the company believing team sponsorship could attract more international publicity like ING for whom “a lot of good things come as a result of team sponsorship” (Urquhart, 2007a).

Honda approaches team sponsorship differently. Their F1 involvement is for technological development (Holbrook, 2002) and Maurice Hamilton stated that, “the way they [Honda] bring a group of engineers in for a few months and then move them back to Japan and bring in a new lot”, is physical evidence of this motivation. Honda Racing chief Yasuhiro Wada said that "the reason we race is for technical things" (BBC NEWS, 2006a).

A number of the perceived benefits of a team sponsorship in motorsport are shown in Figure 3.7.



3.4.2.3 Driver sponsorship

The human appeal of competitors is important (Thomas, 1995) with Nigel Mansell, for example, credited with boosting both UK race attendances and TV ratings in 1994 as did Fernando Alonso for the 2003 Spanish GP. The 1995 lengthy rivalry between Damon Hill and Michael Schumacher did the same in the UK and Germany. Thomas (1995) said that with human interest, "there is no marketing campaign, no sponsorship, no TV deal in the world that can ever generate as much global interest as two human beings who are slugging it out, week after week, race after race, across a dozen countries and three continents". Smith (1996a) suggested that the move of the UK's F1 terrestrial television coverage from the BBC to ITV would be a benefit ITV specialised in human interest stories. "Without human interest", it was said, "F1 would be in the doldrums on TV. Whether it was Ayrton v Alain, Nigel v Nelson, Nigel v the rest or Damon v himself, the success of F1 in TV ratings in recent years has been entirely due to human interest". Patriotism is important as British success on the track stimulated consumer interest in motorsport in 2000 in motorcycle racing when Britons Carl Fogarty, Neil Hodgson and Chris Walker added significantly to gates at British circuits (Mintel, 2001). The key to mass television audiences in a given country is the success of a national competitor (Autosport, 2005) with positive increases in Spain and Hungary being credited to Fernando Alonso and Zsolt Baumgartner's 2004 F1 participation.

These findings reflect the "living promotional tools" discussed by Edwards (1987) and when the concept of celebrity endorsements is factored into sponsoring brands human interest becomes very powerful for marketing communications. The relationship can be taken further whereby a F1 driver becomes intimately involved in marketing like Jackie Stewart who became Elf's UK vice-president of marketing and responsible for product launches and visiting dealerships (Stewart, 2007, page 337).

Proposition 1: *Motorsport sponsors use more than one sponsorship support strategy.*

The literature had revealed a series of options for motorsport sponsors where their sponsorship support strategy could be applied. Would they prefer to be a title sponsor, a technical partner, an official supplier or a combination of these? Perhaps they might prefer to perform another sponsorship function? This was examined by question three in the research instrument.

Proposition 2: *Motorsport sponsors support teams as their main strategy.*

Having examined the literature concerning the event, team and driver sponsorship alternatives in motorsport, question four of the research instrument asked respondents to rank which was the most important, and conversely the least important, to them.

3.4.3 Synergy

The success of motorsport sponsorship is often attributed to "synergy" or the fact that "cars are part of most people's everyday lives and such familiarity is a big asset" (Head, 1988). The television audience profile of F1 fits the bill for those trying to sell anything to do with motoring (Smith, 1996a) with many of the brands most closely associated with motorsports being motoring brands (Mintel, 2002).

Throughout history the motor manufacturers have used competition and the evolution of the motor vehicle for marketing purposes. Michael Schumacher sells the *reliability, speed* and *precision* of a Ferrari whilst one hundred and fifty laps of a GP by a Mercedes allows the consumer to buy into Mercedes' *dependability* (Turner, 2005, page 4). She says "the brand cachet of BMW, Mercedes and Ferrari is directly linked to their F1 *glory*, because F1 is the zenith of motor engine technology" and motorsport sponsors exhibit "a natural link with car racing" receiving good brand recall results (Quester & Farrelly, 1998).

Toyota entered F1 to create emotional associations in Europe (Bickers, 2001) whilst Mercedes-Benz wanted to attract younger buyers (Steiner, 2001). Honda is not only proud of its sporting heritage, but also of its engineers, who would return to the production line, who are highly motivated by their F1 programme (Bickers, 2001). In 1976 ICI entered F1 stating that "the sponsored car will be a combined test bed and advertisement for our company's motor products abroad" (Edwards, 1987). Wilkins (1996) said that strong motorsport brands, such as motor manufacturers, oil companies and other allied trades demonstrate obvious synergy. Allianz, an Official Global Partner of F1, are experts in road safety and risk management which the

company feels applies too to F1 which is about managing risk and performance (Deuringer, 2008).

In World Championship Rallying Prodrive and Subaru have benefited from motorsport's synergy. Prodrive needed a new rally car and Subaru, then a conservative and under-rated manufacturer, wanted to enhance its international image. Prodrive created a brand image for the Subaru Impreza by achieving positioning as a performance road car, in total contrast to Subaru's previous 1980s image of being functional and humdrum (Henry, 2005a, pages 71 – 72 & 94).

MasterCard International illustrated another form of synergy when they identified that the future of money would be driven by technology (Motoring News, 1996) whilst Danka recognised that F1 met their needs exactly as they could identify with a high-tech, team-oriented, fast moving marketing platform (Bagot, 1997). Groff (1997) found that motor racing had "made the most of advertiser's desire to ride with a winner", thereby illustrating another aspect of synergy which is an association for a sponsor with an image of success. Jean Todt, of Ferrari, believed his prancing horse brand to be built on an image which included success as well as romance, blood, money, speed and sex (Rowlinson, 2005a).

Image is the sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a person has of a business or its products (Crompton, 1996) and in sport a sponsor will try to create both interest and a favourable attitude by "borrowing' the sport's image and using it to enhance that of the product". For Rothmans the main function of sponsorship is "image building" (Andrews & Tucker, 1996) whilst certain sports have distinctive images with cricket being "English" and motor racing "dirty and dangerous" (Meenaghan, 1983).

Some of the newer motorsport sponsors don't need to be linked by a product to motor racing. Some are more attracted by the sport's perception of *excellence* - primarily mechanical - as well as the *prestige* of the GP hallmark events themselves (Edwards, 1987). The involvement of consumer brands such as those from tobacco manufacturers, clothes stores and telecoms companies are more to do with motorsport's universal appeal (Wilkins, 1996). Marlboro entered F1 because of the glamorous image it perceived of colour, personality, impact, excitement, winning identity, being "ahead of all the others" and an international and masculine platform (International Advertising Association, 1988). The manufacturers of the energy drink Hype used F1 to raise their profile, establish a brand name and to lay the foundations for a "worldwide assault on the drinks market" (Bagot, 1997).

3.4.4 Clutter and Noise

There is so much sponsorship clutter in sport and motorsport that sponsors wishing to differentiate themselves have to be innovative. Pryor (1999) cautioned that "clutter" or "noise" lessens the effectiveness of a sponsorship. The effect on brand recall calculated by the Arrows F1 team was shown in Table 3.12.

Sponsors of a F1 team can present, "a confusing plethora of sponsor's logos that negates the impact for some of the individual sponsors" (Howard, 1992; Greer 1997). If a priority is gaining the awareness of the television audience then this is detrimental to the sponsorship objectives as the ensuing clutter means that "the eye won't have time to take them all in" (Harris, 1992). Wilkins (1996) too said that even the most high profile motorsport brands "have difficulty cutting through the mass of advertising, sponsorship and other branding".

McLaren's Ron Dennis derided the haphazard "Christmas Tree Effect" of some F1 cars when he revealed his McLaren Mercedes' scheme had come "from a very disciplined and complex process of analysis of what the other colours [on the car] do, how they make a brand work and how they interact with dark and light and shade" (Benson, 1997a). When McLaren revealed its 2006 livery Ekrem Sami, the team's marketing managing director revealed that "a lot of research and months of work have gone into creating this unique chrome finish. We are always looking at innovative ways to allow our sponsor partners to differentiate their brands from the competition.....and this unique livery is designed to be extremely photogenic. Team McLaren Mercedes had the highest audited 'Share of TV Voice' in 2005 - and we hope that this new identity will contribute to us retaining that status" (Crash.net, 2006). Only very brief brand messages can be perceived due to the duration of a single exposure and because of the technical limits on the size of the message that can be used (Hansen & Scotwin, 1995).

With a plethora of sponsors to be displayed teams will willingly give up their own identity. Jordan's Ian Philips said that if a sponsor wants a car to be pink, with white and blue speckles then the team will agree. The team's business is designing cars and

running the team and as long as that is not affected, what the team is called, or what colours the cars are painted, is immaterial (David Thomas, 1995).

3.4.5 F1's advantages over other sports

F1 is the pinnacle of motorsport – its high profile and status resulting in worldwide media coverage throughout the season. As such, F1 provides the ideal platform for the launch of a successful communications programme. (Team Danka Arrows, 1998)

Danka's endorsement of F1 is built on the perception that motorsport is prestigious which reflects well on both their brand and their company. Being international the sport covered all of Danka's markets whilst also being highly visible and providing excellent media exposure. The sport was also seen as exciting, a dynamic theme for brand communication, a sales promotion and helpful to staff motivation.

Steve Herrick of Williams F1 said that there is "no doubt that F1 is in a class of its own in terms of credibility as a global proposition". F1 is an international sport which is annual, world-wide and attracts on-going interest throughout the year (Henry, 1991). MotoGP mirrors this too. One of the main reasons that sponsors use motorsport is that it's very internationalisation provides access to worldwide media coverage (Eastoe, 1994). Thomas (1995) said that there was simply no other sporting or cultural medium that can compete with that promise. Andrews & Tucker (1996) said that Rothmans liked F1 because it is one of the few sports that was followed in nearly every country in the world and so an association with it is an excellent way of ensuring global coverage.

Herrick admits that F1 is "in the same league as the World Cup and the Olympic Games" but that they both have limitations. The World Cup occurs once every four years and because it is impossible to guarantee which countries will compete in the final a sponsorship deal as such is not being offered. Billboards and perimeter board positions are proffered and even though a company receives short-term saturation coverage the cost involved for being one of eight co-sponsors is similar to that of an entire team budget for a year's F1 racing. For the Olympic Games a sponsor pays \$30

million and "you can't do anything with it, apart from knowing you have exclusivity in terms of marketing and promotion". No Olympic stadium permits sponsorship banners so a sponsor has to spend at least a similar amount again to receive any advertising benefit. Similarly the event occurs only once every four years and its effectiveness depends on who is taking part (Henry, 1991).

In international athletics promoters can never positively guarantee the quality of their field. A strong factor supporting F1 [and MotoGP] is that the competitors in the World Championship are obliged to compete in all of the races therefore promoters and sponsors know that they will have a field of a certain size with all the established stars competing (Henry, 1991).

Companies involved in the international marketplace may wish to involve themselves in a sports sponsorship that is global or multinational (Sleight, 1989). The expense involved in reaching this market can only be afforded by the largest of companies which possess the necessary resources. Events which cover several countries with international television coverage are attractive and he singled out F1 and World Cup Skiing. Their popularity is because they offer the possibility of locally-based events that may be used for audience contact and on-site promotions in addition to hospitality.

Sponsorship's potential to transcend cultural boundaries attracts global marketers (Cunningham *et al*, 1993; Fahy *et al*, 2004; Miyazaki & Morgan, 2001) as they seek to create icons who are recognized globally and to whom specific meanings are associated. The association of Visa with the Olympic Games and MasterCard with World Cup football reinforces the global stature of these brands (Fahy *et al*, 2004).

In marketing terms the increasing and successful globalization of motorsport was summed up by Bernie Ecclestone's thoughts. Because F1 is European, he says, it is so attractive in other parts of the world to people who want European things. Pacific rim fans regard F1 as the epitome of the pan-European sport that carries its culture across the world, "from the Gauloises-smoking team bosses to the Italian wines and espresso machines, German sausages and British tea bags" (Turner, 2005, page 176 - 177).

Saward (1996) found that Asian countries have turned to F1 because it gains a bigger worldwide audience than any other sport except the Olympic Games and the football World Cup and is a way for them to show that they are developing and have things to offer the old world, earning them tourist income and export dollars.

The move of races to the Pacific Rim area suits tobacco sponsors as it is a growth area for cigarette consumption and also an area that accepts tobacco logos appearing on television (Parsons, 1997b). A cautionary note should be that cigarette advertising was banned in China in 1995 as part of the Advertising Law (Taylor & Raymond, 2000) and a ban on smoking in public places came in later (Cushman *et al*, 1997). Promotional strategies such as sponsorship are used in Chinese sport with the country's top football league being Marlboro backed. Basketball and motorsport have also featured a tobacco presence (Taylor & Raymond, 2000) with BAT sponsoring Chinese rallying using the 555 brand as numerals are clearly understood by the Chinese, unlike most western characters (Burrows, 1997).

3.4.6 F1's main disadvantage

For a long time F1 did not have a big impact on the USA, which is perceived as a significant potential market for commercial sponsors. Indeed Richard West of Williams said that he would very much like to see more Americans involvement. "To me", he said, "America is a very big challenge and I would love to get them, especially in the field of fast foods" (Walker, 1995). Brian Sims said that a weak link in the sponsorship chain in F1 is America. He had been approached by several companies saying, "Look, F1 in America - which is one of our primary markets - is virtually non-existent, and there's little TV coverage" (Macknight, 1993, page 20). Dransfeld, *et al* (1999) also identified the US market as being an obvious place to use motorsport for marketing purposes.

The lack of US interest in F1 is because it is “strictly national” in its approach to motorsport which is a common attitude of all US sports “where they create a World Series that is, in reality, a domestic championship” (Henry *et al*, 2007 page 137). Tony George, CEO of the Indianapolis Motor Speedway which hosted the US GP for eight years until 2007, said that for most of F1's engine manufacturers the US is “fairly important” to their business as the US is, “a huge market for many of the manufacturers and sponsors involved.....which would like to see a round in the USA”. He admitted that “in the US, F1 is not perceived the same way it is around the world”. He felt that many F1 sponsors focused on F1 in their desire to build European and Asian markets (George, 2007).

Porsche Motorsport is not contemplating F1 involvement because, “Porsche does not see a sufficient return on investment ... F1 does not get the level of attention in the

US that it does in Europe and the US is Porsche’s most important single market” (Kristen, 2007). F1 makes absolutely no business sense in the USA (Kirby, 1996) because the audience for GP racing in America is too small and the costs are too high. There's also an extremely wide and healthy selection of major motorsport categories delivering a choice of highly competitive racing at reasonable prices, "neither of which are delivered by F1". On television, F1 attracts a small American audience with ratings up to eight times fewer than NASCAR.

Curiously, research conducted at the 2000 US GP found that 75% of respondents gave F1 a nine or a ten rating on a scale of one to ten. This compared with only 24% who awarded a similar rating to CART and surprisingly only 15% to NASCAR. 91% of the US respondents had watched F1 during the previous month with only 62% having watched CART (Performance Research, 2000a).

The media ratings from Nielsen for NASCAR showed that events averaged a 3.5 (each rating point representing 100,000 watching households) in 1996 as compared to the 2.0 usually scored by IndyCar races. "By contrast F1's average rating of 0.2 is barely significant, statistically" (Phillips, 1996). This contrasts with the World Series baseball championship which was the third lowest rated but still averaged 16.4. Another of the problems facing F1 is the time difference between countries. In 1996 11 of the 16 races were televised live in the USA but the transmission start times varied between 6am and 9am (depending on the time zone) on a Sunday morning which clashed with popular religious programming. The factors that combined to make it difficult for F1 to return to the USA were the popularity of domestic racing series, a dearth of suitable F1 venues and FOCA's financial demands (Phillips, 1996). F1 did subsequently return to the USA and until recently boasted an annual GP at Indianapolis.

Geach (1997) found that American racing series were favoured over F1 because the exposure of sponsors on television coverage was greater in CART. In presenting his results (Table 3.20) acknowledged that CART racing cars boasted more sponsors than in F1 and that therefore "clutter" was a factor.

	<u>F1</u>	<u>PPG CART</u>
No of car sponsors visible	22	32
% car exposure against coverage	21.85%	47%

(Source: Geach, 1997)

It is postulated that most Americans will recognize the companies involved in sponsoring F1 even if they don't necessarily know who Michael Schumacher with Jackie Stewart saying that, “America is very important to F1 because most of the big companies that are involved in it either have their world headquarters there or it is their biggest market or at least their second-largest market” (Turner, 2005, page 181). A problem for F1 is its exclusivity which is in direct contrast to the “American Dream” of access for all with Americans not having time for ‘precious’ sports (Turner, 2005, page 182).

When the USA GP returned in 2001 it appeared that the major hurdle had been overcome. But it happened just days after 9/11 and then featured a contrived finish by Ferrari in 2002. In 2005 only six cars competed all of which may have put the sport's credibility back many years in a country which provides many F1 sponsors such as RBS – with its American subsidiary Charter One, HP, Budweiser, AT&T, Mobil 1, and Ray-Ban (F1 Racing, 2005).

A step back was taken when it was announced that there would be no US F1 GP in 2008. According to Phillips (2007) event sponsorship had been difficult to find and television coverage had been problematic. Americans, it was said, were indifferent to F1 with the number of fans “dwarfed by those following NASCAR...baseball, basketball and football and motorcycle racing”. Unsurprisingly shortly afterwards MotoGP was granted a second 2008 US round at Indianapolis with Indianapolis CEO Tony George saying that MotoGP was an “international event that would bring a diverse audience to this city [Indianapolis] that it has never seen before” (George, 2007). Ironically Bernie Ecclestone claims some credit for the Indy MotoGP race saying, “I helped it happen.....I introduced them” (Spurring, 2007). The motor manufacturers were not happy. As for BMW, Honda, Toyota and Mercedes the USA is a major market and Norbert Haug of Mercedes reflected their feeling when he said, “we most definitely should have a race here [in the USA] and, if you ask me, maybe two or even more. For a world championship, it is important to be here” (Phillips, 2007). Mario Theissen of BMW concurred saying that more than one USA GP was justifiable in the future such was the importance of the USA to BMW which is the company's number one market (Spurring, 2007).

3.4.7 Disaster planning

Motorsport is a risky activity that in an extreme situation could cause the death of competitors, which was graphically illustrated during the 1994 San Marino GP when both Roland Ratzenberger and Ayrton Senna died. A previous motorsport turning point was the 1955 Le Mans in 1955 which killed over eighty spectators. Any existing or potential sponsor must therefore be aware of motorsport's risks and judge how this will affect their participation. Such risks are not solely attached to motorsport with sponsors in other spheres facing similar concerns.

In sponsoring Richard Branson's round-the-world balloon flight United Biscuits recognised that a disaster was one of the risks taken but that they had had no formal plans to cope with such an eventuality. Virgin quantified the commercial risks that Branson's death could wipe a third off the company's value. It was stated that, "he who courts the press is also hostage to it and no one can predict its reaction to disaster" (Lane Fox, 1995).

The organizers of MotoGP recognize that their sport is seen as dangerous and that there is a high risk of injury to competitors. Trimby (2007) indicated the threat to the series' business plan when he said that:

"Some companies will not associate their brands with a sport where the competitor stands a chance of being seriously injured or worse".

The Daily Mirror's Piers Morgan had in the aftermath of Princess Diana's death found that "nobody wants to advertise in grief-strewn newspapers" (Morgan, 2006) and one wonders if the same effect might affect sponsors in a similar motorsport situation. Adrian Hitchen used the partial analogy of F1 when he was quoted as saying that, danger was top of mind. However the evidence was that death on the track did not seem to impact on the team sponsors (Lane Fox, 1995). Rubython (1996) related an unexpected effect of Ayrton Senna's death. Before he died many of the estimated five billion grand prix fans had been lukewarm television viewers but after the accident the interest Senna had created prompted enthusiasm for the sport to go, "through the roof". Tremayne (2006) said that after the deaths of Gilles Villeneuve, Patrick Depailler, Riccardo Paletti, Stefan Bellof and Manfred Winkelhock in the 1980s fatalities in motor racing had to be treated in a different way. The, "growing television audience", he said, "and the influx of financial support from car manufacturers made it even less acceptable for drivers to be killed. They had viewers, shareholders and customers to consider".

Ironically minor motor racing accidents are good news for the sponsors of the lesser F1 teams with David Thomas (1995) observing that in TV terms there is exposure value in a crash.

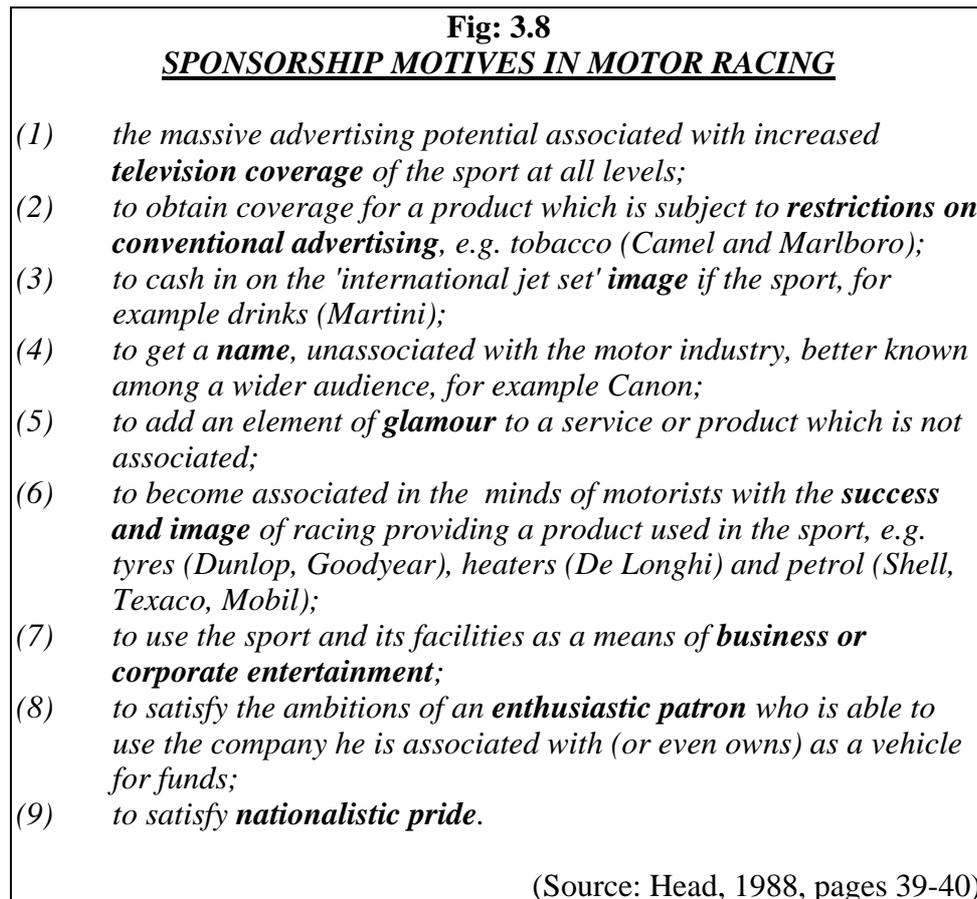
3.4.8 Reasons for motorsport sponsorship

The principal motives for sponsoring motorsport are wide ranging (Head, 1988) and in the UK the RAC Motorsports Association Ltd., define them as shown in Figure 3.8. It is admitted that the picture is not this clear-cut, but the list does give an indication of what companies expect to achieve.

Rothmans declared that their specific motorsport marketing objectives were to increase awareness of their brand, encourage consumer trial and purchase of brands and to maintain loyalty for the established products (Andrews & Tucker, 1996) whilst Shell's sponsorship is about positive brand associations associated with Ferrari's values of dynamism, success and passion (Verity, 2002, page 164).

Danka's F1 sponsorship was to raise awareness amongst business people with F1 actually providing more media coverage than anticipated as their global marketing campaign addressed competitors such as Xerox (Bagot, 1997). Danka justified their F1 sponsorship because it, "reaches a massive audience worldwide" with the communication objective being, "to generate publicity in order to establish and raise brand awareness worldwide and ultimately develop business" (Team Danka Arrows, 1998).

Some sponsors use F1 less for advertising and more for public relations when the rationale is no longer about shifting products but more about brand perception. When Shell was hit by a drop in sales in Germany, following the Brent Spar oil rig situation, their sales amongst eco-conscious Germans was seriously tarnished. Their solution was to fund most of Michael Schumacher's salary at Ferrari as Germany's "greatest sporting hero". Sales recovered as he supplied "the warm glow" that Shell needed (Thomas, 1995).



Shell does set specific objectives for its sponsorship of Ferrari which are:

- To sustain Shell’s position as the technology and quality leader in performance fuels and lubricants;
- To enhance relationships with key stakeholders;
- To create awareness and image for Shell premium products;
- To encourage purchase and loyalty through media activity and retail promotions.

(Verity, 2002, page 164)

Waite (1979) referred to cosmetics firm Yardley which had backed BRM in F1 to modernise its corporate image and to promote a new range of male toiletries whilst a bank used motorsport to change its image from a dull, institutionalised bureaucracy to one of speed, power and efficiency.

Sponsors can use the power of identification with an advanced technical organisation to foster closer associations with customers and employees (Eastoe (1994). Danka, too, identified “technological innovation” as being an appealing message to their customers (Team Danka Arrows, 1998). Ferrari believes that F1 is, “a unique

combination of sport and technology” and it is “their combination – not exclusivity – that creates the F1 spirit” (Turner, 2005, page 106). Roadgoing Ferraris feature F1 technology such as paddle-shift gear levers, carbon ceramic brakes and electronic ‘proactive’ differentials with the F430 model having front air intakes, “designed to resemble the famous shark nose Ferrari 156 driven by Phil Hill in 1961” (Cooper, 2006). Intel and BMW back the BMW Sauber F1 Team sharing both technology and co-marketing with Intel’s products being deployed throughout the BMW Group including three thousand dealers worldwide. F1 is perceived as a platform that would showcase the two brands to “hundreds of millions of passionate fans worldwide each year – fans who appreciate the critical roles that technology plays in F1”. Such technological leadership was seen as a, “fundamental role” of the partnership in what is regarded as a “high-tech discipline” where, “cutting edge technology is a crucial success factor” (Intel, 2005). BMW use F1 to “emphasise their blue-chip credentials” and to cultivate a list of sponsors, such as Intel, which, “suit their image as a classy, high-tech manufacturer” (Cooper, 2006). Dr Mario Theissen, director of motorsport at BMW-Sauber F1, makes it clear that BMW regards F1 as, “the natural stage for us to demonstrate our competitiveness as a car manufacturer, like innovative technology, dynamics, a sporting image and – last but not least – a car that is fun to drive” (Widdows, 2008).

Norbert Haug of Mercedes acknowledged the "win on Sunday, sell on Monday" syndrome still worked but he said that his company was involved in different forms of motorsport for different reasons. Its participation in the International Touring Car Championship was about "showcasing" the company's C-Class road cars but F1 was about overall image whilst generally communicating with younger people than previously (Tremayne, 1997). Sales of their cars almost doubled since sponsoring McLaren in 1995 with silver being the colour of choice for 47% of 2003 buyers - the historic “Silver Arrows” racing colours of Germany. Before 1995 the figure had been 22%. Mercedes believe that the “Silver Arrows” image has played a role in influencing the public with the message that “our participation in F1 has helped to breed a better class of motor car” (Cooper, 2006).

In switching from Ferrari to become both the “Title Sponsor” and the “Official Mobile Partner” of McLaren Mercedes, Vodafone identified F1 as continuing “to deliver massive global television coverage...which has significant appeal for Vodafone’s consumer and business customers around the world”. Vodafone describes F1 as “a fantastic marketing platform” providing opportunities to “raise brand awareness, build brand preference and drive revenue” (McLaren, 2005).

Making one's name more familiar through motorsport sponsorship may not necessarily be as easy as it sounds. Chris Moss specifically referred to F1 when he said that if you ask people to name F1 sponsors "they might mention one or two tobacco companies but very little else. Millions are poured into it without really getting a quantifiable return because you're competing with twenty other people" (Lane Fox, 1995). This is a clear reference to the concepts of “clutter” and “noise” (Section 3.4.4).

According to Foxall & Johnston (1991) automotive-related sponsor's objective is to acquire the core innovative product and process knowledge from the racing environment enabling them to market their primary products more effectively. Where sponsors are from quite separate industries their objective is to promote a corporate marketing image internationally through television.

The F1 platform is used in many ways and increasingly these are global thanks to television. Petronas' F1 activities began as an international branding exercise before it set up Sauber Petronas Engineering AG. This company involved itself in F1 research and development as well as for its own commercial uses. The relationship created job opportunities for Petronas' scholars where local engineers worked in the Petronas Sauber F1 team. The Malaysian GP, backed by Petronas, helped promote tourism and throughout Malaysia a young generation experienced F1. Petronas organised programmes for disadvantaged children and communities to visit the GP. Through such activities Petronas fostered closer community ties whilst also promoting Malaysia via television worldwide (Petronas, 2004).

Proposition 3: *Motorsport sponsors require more than one goal from a sponsorship.*
The wider literature revealed a variety of reasons for supporting motorsport as a sponsor. Question five within the research instrument was intended to investigate this further.

3.4.9 Networking or Matchmaking

Networking is an element of relationship marketing commonly associated with business-to-business activities and is an invaluable sponsorship interactions and inter-relationship between sponsors and the sponsored (Meenaghan, 1998; Hoek, 1998; Aimis *et al*, 1999; Mason, 1999). Sponsorship does not involve a single, discrete exchange but a series of interactions and inter-relationships with networking involving the sharing of wisdom, experience, creativity and skills (Farrelly & Quester, 2003).

Sir Jackie Stewart refers to "networking" in motorsport as the generation of money through big companies that "need each other". Dodgins (1996b) refers to Ford's 350,000 employees who needed new computers and that if Hewlett Packard were a technical partner of Stewart GP through networking, "Ford employees would be using Hewlett Packards and Hewlett Packard employees would be driving Fords".

Networking may alternatively be called "matchmaking". This technique is used in Williams' F1 sponsorship to introduce senior people to each other and to forge links which may lead to business being done between them (Henry, 1991). The Segafredo coffee company met Rothmans' people in this way leading to the two jointly promoting in Portugal (Thomas, 1995). Energy drink manufacturer Hype used their 1995 sponsorship of the Benetton F1 team to establish a number of matchmaking connections. This led to worldwide marketing opportunities with Autogrille - 3000 roadside restaurants in Italy; Elf's 6800 European service stations and Kingfisher Beer - the largest Indian brewer (Bagot, 1997).

MotoGP is improving the environment in which networking and matchmaking can take place following criticism until recently it has been relatively informal which has not suited some sponsors. A conscious attempt is being made to improve the hospitality facilities along F1 lines (Trimby, 2007).

3.4.10 Motorsport and tobacco

Barrie Gill, said that F1 and tobacco companies were a good marketing fit (Turner, 2005, page 98) because,

"It's the ideal sport for sponsorship. Its got glamour and worldwide television coverage. It's macho, it's excitement, its colour, it's international....They're there to get visibility. They're there to sell cigarettes."

Helberg (1996) said that, "modern auto racing was born, in part, upon the banishment of cigarette advertisements from the broadcast, media" and Lynn (1997) concurred saying that "F1 under the control of Bernie Ecclestone, has long been as much a forum for cigarette advertising as it has been a sport". In the USA 20% of NASCAR's annual revenues came from tobacco sponsorship (McDaniel & Mason, 1999).

Colin Chapman's original deal with John Player, which created the Gold Leaf Team Lotus promotion for the 1968 F1 season, went beyond the previously accepted boundaries of sponsorship in that it was not confined within the automotive industry. The sponsorship was on a larger scale than any preceding F1 sponsorship with John Player agreeing following the TV tobacco advertising ban whilst seeking a new promotional medium and recognising the enhancement of commercial objectives by association with F1 (Foxall & Johnston, 1991). Pinch *et al* (1996) made the point that the success of British F1 teams is partly due to their recognising the need for cigarette manufacturers to gain advertising space which helped particularly adept at sourcing sponsorship.

Table: 3.21
DIRECT EXPENDITURE BY THE TOP TEN INDUSTRIAL SPONSORS IN 1972

<u>Industry Groups</u>	<u>£</u>
Tobacco (at least)	1,800,000
Oil	800,000
Alcoholic Drink	550,000
Tyres	400,000
Finance	220,000
Food and Confectionery	160,000
Press	150,000
Bookmakers	125,000
Sports Goods	70,000
Clothes	55,000

(Source: System Three as published in Waite 1979)

Waite (1979) identified in 1972 that the tobacco industry made the largest use of sponsorship in general (Table 3.21) before naming those companies (Table 3.22). It is interesting not only to see how many are tobacco companies but also to reflect that 80% had been involved in motorsport.

Table: 3.22

<u>Company</u>	<u>Direct Expenditure</u> <u>£'000s</u>
Players	750,000
Rothmans	330,000
Wills	250,000
Gallaher	250,000
Texaco	225,000
Marlboro	200,000
Watney Mann	160,000
Gulf	100,000
Goodyear	100,000
Firestone	100,000

(Source: System Three as published in Waite 1979)

According to Donaldson (1990) in the early 1970s marketing people had taken the media impact of F1 and allied this with a glamorous and exciting sport. They then added heroic drivers from many nations who risked lives on the line and came up with, “an advertising El Dorado”. This helped Marlboro to become the top-selling brand of cigarette in the world. The company's marriage with F1 came about after the company matched their image of Marlboro Man - the lonely cowboy on a horse. The horse was transformed into a mechanical one as they projected an image of adventure, of virility, of courage...” Marlboro uses its motorsport relationship to promote, “a particular image of adventure, courage and virility” (Turner, 2005, page 98). The brand comes out as the highest placed tobacco company as well as the only one associated with motorsport in research testing awareness amongst the adult population (Table 3.23). It would appear that their long association with the sport has certainly worked for their awareness.

A study of tobacco sponsorship illustrated the potential of trackside signage by revealing that mediated logotypes for a brand of cigarettes could be seen, “during close to half of the four auto racing telecasts studies, at an average rate of 1.5 times an hour” (McDaniel & Mason, 1999) with another finding that cigarette brands appeared for almost half of one broadcast (Blum, 1991; Madden & Grube, 1994).

Marlboro has sponsored motorsport with great effect since 1972 with the long-term contributing to this effect. It has been found with advertisements argued that repetition produces effective responses (Franzen, 1994) while Aimis *et al* (1999) said in differentiating itself from its competitors the first step for a sponsor “is a long-term agreement”. Fahy *et al* (2004) found that sponsorship contracts were becoming

longer-term to derive “the benefits from a long-term association that can be meshed with the positioning of the brand.”

Table: 3.23
SPONTANEOUS ASSOCIATION OF MAJOR UK SPONSORSHIPS - 1996

<u>Rank</u>	<u>Sponsor</u>	<u>Sponsorship</u>	<u>Spontaneous Association</u>
1.	Robinsons	Soft Drinks at Wimbledon	66%
2.	Cadbury's	TV Series/Programmes (Not specific to Coronation Street)	48%
3.	Carling Black Label	FA Premiership	41%
4.	Coca-Cola	Olympics	32%
	Flora	London Marathon	32%
	Diet Coke	Films on TV	32%
7.	Marlboro	Motorsport (not specific)	25%
8.	Coca-Cola	League Cup	24%
9.	Tetley	England Cricket Team	21%
10.	Coca-Cola	Euro '96	19%
	Littlewoods	FA Cup	19%
	Carlsberg	Liverpool FC	19%

(Source: Sponsorship News, "RSL publish 1996 tracking data", March, 1997, page 18)

The tangible 1994 sponsorship benefit in the USA for both Philip Morris and RJR was that the companies received nearly \$40 million in free TV time from sport (Teinowitz & Jensen, 1995). This confirmed Helberg's (1996) findings that when a racing car leads a race with Marlboro's logos it will achieve lengthy TV exposure which is both cost-effective whilst targeting a loyal audience with an appealing image.

David Thomas (1995) identified the symbiosis between Marlboro and McLaren. "You can't", he said, "imagine the team without conjuring up a picture of the cigarettes. The two brand-concepts - fags and racing car - are almost interchangeable in the public imagination. Michael Schumacher drives an oversized carton of Mild Seven. Damon Hill is cocooned in 20 Rothmans" (Thomas, 1995).

The relationship between the tobacco companies continued to be fundamental to the sport's success (Eastoe, 1994) with major F1 sponsors (Mild Seven, Marlboro and Rothmans) being prepared to accept tobacco advertising bans in Britain, France, Canada and Germany (Bennett 1995). The progressive regulation of tobacco

advertising continued although in some major "hallmark" were exempted. In Australia the Foster's Australian F1 GP, Telecom Rally Australia, Australian Ladies Masters, and Whitbread Round the World Race, Australian Motorcycle GP and the FAI IndyCar GP were left outside the legislation (Furlong, 1994).

Rothmans pulled out of UK sport completely in the mid 1990s to concentrate on F1 worldwide (Otway, 1996) whilst more recently British American Tobacco researched F1 with Tom Moser saying that, "we are the second biggest tobacco company in the world and we want to be number one. GP racing seems to be a good way to strengthen our sales" (F1 Racing, 1997).

The growth of popularity of F1 in Asia is no accident (Parsons, 1996) because Asia is one of the last areas not discouraging tobacco advertising. Fewer rules concerning cigarette advertising in Asia y leads to there being increased pressure for more races to be moved there. Ron Dennis of McLaren was quoted by Parsons as saying that there is no doubt that grands prix are moving more and more towards Asia where legislation [of tobacco] is far less constraining. If more European anti-tobacco legislation were to be introduced then he was concerned that it would encourage races away from Europe.

One of the first countries to discourage cigarette advertising through the implementation of strict tobacco laws was Germany but curiously for the 1997 Luxembourg GP, which was run at Germany's Nurburgring, the cars were allowed to run with cigarette branding. A compromise was reached whereby the tobacco companies agreed to abandon the voluntary agreement governing advertising for the race on condition that the [German] government lifted the threat of the anti-tobacco legislation under which the agreement was established (Autosport, 1997a).

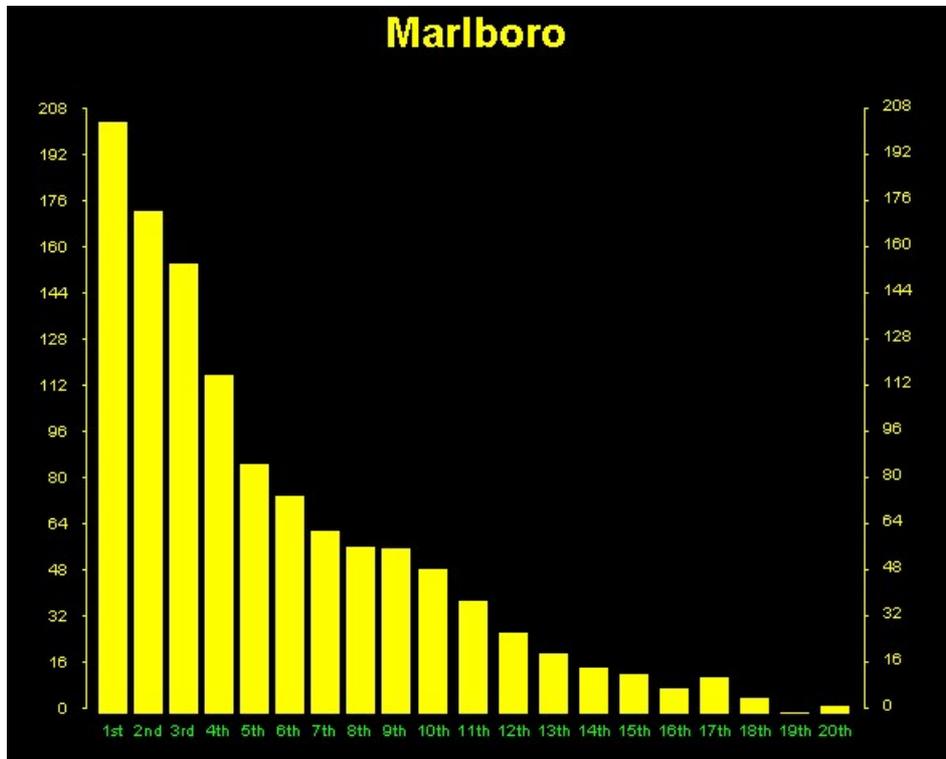
The Lola F1 team consciously decided against cigarette sponsorship. This was because, "there were too many restrictions on tobacco advertising and it was felt that tobacco sponsorship was not the way to go long term" (Motoring News, 1996). The Stewart GP team had taken a similar stance too.

By 2007 Marlboro was the last tobacco sponsor in F1. By the time of the 2007 Monaco GP the tobacco company had backed 2113 cars in 565 races taking 204 wins since 1972 (ChicaneF1.com, 2007). Bearing in mind that the car in the lead often receives the majority of the television coverage then the graph (Figure 3.9) illustrates

the potential for television and other media exposure that Marlboro has received over the years.

Fig: 3.9

Number of finishes for Marlboro sponsored F1 cars 1972 – 2007



(Source: www.chicaneF1.com, 2007)

3.4.11 Motorsport after tobacco

“The world’s premium car marques this week lined up on the starting grid for this season’s F1 competition, as the balance of sponsorship power in the sport shifted noticeably from tobacco to car brands “

(Darby, 2000).

Motorsport is such an expensive global sport that there are relatively few corporations with brands that are capable of matching the finance previously provided by the tobacco companies. Coca-Cola and McDonalds, for example, have already committed to football and the Olympics. The worldwide brands in mobile phones were soon to become one source with Vodafone backing Ferrari in 2003 with a contribution of \$41 million (Turner, 2005, page 99).

In anticipation of the tobacco companies leaving the sport other sponsors could be found but Max Mosley, President of the FIA, predicted that the funding would be at a lower level because tobacco companies paid a premium due to the marketing restrictions they faced elsewhere (Parsons, 1997b). NASCAR's Winston Cup Series was confident that tobacco could be replaced by companies such as Coca-Cola, McDonald's and Nabisco (Autosport, 1997c). Nabisco is, of course, part of RJR-Nabisco which itself owns the RJ Reynolds Tobacco company that manufacture Winston cigarettes. In practice NASCAR replaced Winston cigarettes with telecommunications firm Nextel.

Max Mosley felt that the banning of tobacco sponsorship would encourage food industry and pharmaceutical brands as sponsors amongst others because previously "politically correct companies" had disapproved of tobacco (F1 Racing, 2005e). Honda UK felt that F1 for car manufacturers is, "the pinnacle of any performance activity on four wheels" and that it has always been, "a shop window to show off by association". It was felt that communications technology companies such as Siemens, Sony and Dell would replace the tobacco companies (Holbrook, 2002, pages 67-68). Sylt and Reid (2007) found that the biggest F1 sponsors by sector were in fact financial services (£32m – Ing), telecoms (£32m – Vodafone), automotive (£30m – Honda), tobacco (£25m – Marlboro), banking (£7.5m – Credit Suisse), beverages (£7.4m – Johnnie Walker), fashion (£2.5m - Puma) and travel (£5m – Etihad Airways).

In 2003 F1 team BMW Williams were sponsored by GlaxoSmithKline non-smoking brand NiQuitin (Lagae, 2005, pages 18 – 19). This was unusual in that at the time five of the ten teams competing in F1 were sponsored by tobacco companies although the Williams team had dropped tobacco sponsorship three years previously. Gro Harlem Brundtlandt, director-general of the World Health Organization, said "finally car racing will be associated with health instead of death and disease".

By 2007 the European Union's Health Commissioner, in pursuing an EU aim to stop tobacco sports sponsorship asked Ferrari to end Marlboro's sponsorship. The commissioner said that "finding alternative sponsorship will not constitute a great challenge for such a successful enterprise as Ferrari whose image would no longer be associated with a killing habit" (Reuters, UK, 2007). Curiously, in other reports this stance was linked to a proposition circulating within the European Parliament concerning a possible ban on road going "supercars" for environmental reasons. It

was suggested that, “the EU may be more helpful over the supercar issue if Ferrari plays ball over tobacco advertising” (GrandPrix.com, 2007c).

In Europe \$2.27 billion is spent on motorsport sponsorship each year (out of \$9.7 billion spent on sport in general) in more than 2000 sponsorship deals with only football being in the same league. Because of its global reach F1 has successfully attracted telecommunications and IT companies to replace their tobacco predecessors. Financial services companies too, such as ING, RBS, Santander and Credit Suisse, are now actively involved in F1, whilst, “teams in MotoGP, Touring cars or the WRC have few non-motor-related sponsors” (*Driving Business Through Sport 2007*, cited in F1 Racing 2007d)

3.4.12 Motorsport and television

“F1’s business model is constructed on its appeal as a television sport, so the absence of 50,000 or even 100,000 race-day punters does little to harm the global TV audience figures so crucial to the continued buy-in (in every sense) of sponsors and advertisers”

(Source: Rowlinson, 2005b)

Flavio Briatore, principal of the Renault F1 team, totally agreed with the sentiments expressed above. He stated that, “First, F1 is a big television event. That’s what it is. Making a big television event as good as it can be is therefore our job, our business.....F1 is a business, a TV event” (Bishop, 2006b). Howell (2007, page 24) states too that sponsors become involved in F1, “because the sport is on television every other week during the season, all over the world”. Eddie Jordan said that his team was conscious of the fact that, “while the 100,000 spectators at a race were important. To ensure the continuing support of sponsors, what mattered were the television images. Our livelihood was based on them” (Jordan, 2007, page 237).

If the intention of a sponsorship is to create brand awareness through recall of sponsorship messages, and the television audience is perceived to be of major importance, then the amount of television air time a sponsor receives is important. Arthur *et al* (1998) addressed just this philosophy in researching motorcycle racing. The research examined the relationship between the amount of television exposure a

sponsor could expect a sponsored motorcycle to receive and its position during a race. It found that it is important to a motorcycle team to be as competitive as possible because the successful teams receive significantly more television exposure to sponsors.

In analyzing their television exposure motorsport sponsors seek to justify their investment. Media analysis found that the winning Holden car in the Bathurst 1000 race received the equivalent advertising value of 2.3 million Australian dollars with 40.23 minutes of air time. The fourth placed car achieved a 1.6m Australian dollar equivalent (Williamson, 1996).

Table 3.24 - Air time achieved during the 2004 F1 Championship – See Appendix 5.

The benefits of leading a race are demonstrated by the television air-time achieved by F1 brands in 2004 (Table 3.24). As Ferrari was dominant during the season the exposure benefits to their sponsors is illustrated and that Marlboro achieved nearly 10% of all F1 television exposure during 2004 with their logos being visible for almost four hours. Tobacco sponsors dominated F1 exposure with Honda being the only car manufacturer brand in the top twenty-five.

Brand exposure analysts Margaux Matrix evaluate every frame of television footage to establish a value for signage. Not only is the timing of the logo on the screen recorded but also additional factors such as its position, crowding and the relative value of exposure during advertising breaks. Detailed reports are produced following every race and a team example is shown in Table 3.25

Table 3.25

2007 Australian GP Team Share of Voice

Team	Exposure 2007	Exposure 2006	SoV% 2007	SoV 2006	% Increase on exposure
McLaren Merc.	0:43:10	0:22:49	39.36%	17.56%	+89.19%
Ferrari	0:31:53	0:15:51	29.07%	12.20%	+101.16%
Renault F1	0:11:07	0:48:44	10.14%	37.52%	-77.19%
Toyota	0:05:58	0:02:58	5.44%	2.28%	+101.12%
BMW Sauber	0:03:52	0:04:31	3.53%	3.48%	-14.39%
Honda Racing	0:02:54	0:09:39	2.64%	7.43%	-69.95%
Red Bull Racing	0:02:52	0:02:46	2.61%	2.13%	+3.61%
Spyker F1	0:02:36	0:01:22	2.37%	1.05%	+90.24%
Super Aguri	0:02:29	0:03:18	2.26%	2.54%	-24.75%
Williams F1	0:02:19	0:15:23	2.11%	11.84%	-84.94%
Toro Rosso	0:00:31	0:02:33	0.47%	1.96%	-79.74%
TOTALS	1:49:41	2:09:54			

(Source: Margaux-Matrix.com, 2007)

Gibson (2007) said that such promptly available information is perceived to be “a vital indicator of one area of the effectiveness of sponsorship” thereby revealing that other measures are necessary too.

Such is the importance of exposure that it is measured as illustrated by the World Superbike Championship marketing literature (World Superbike Championship, 2005). The visibility of individual circuit signs and banners is used as the basis of sponsorship packages. A sample of measures is shown in Appendix 1. MotoGP too “lives and breathes by its TV audience figures” and that any decline in viewership would be “bad news for everyone” (Ryder, 2007).

When Ferrari lost competitiveness at the start of the 2005 season the team’s TV coverage halved from 3h 23m (27.5% of total TV coverage in 2004) to 1h 45m (17.7%) during the first four races of the season. The same media analysis indicated that “incident” was significant in increasing TV coverage as evidenced by Pedro de la Rosa’s 30.49s following an eventful Bahrain GP (F1 Racing, 2005c). The results are shown in Tables 3.26 and 3.27. Table 3.26 demonstrates the benefit for Renault of Fernando Alonso’s competitiveness.

German television audiences fell by 1.4 million in 2005 and those watching in Italy by 1.8 million during a poor season for both Michael Schumacher and Ferrari (F1 Racing, 2006b). In the UK 2005 TV viewing figures fell by 4% whilst the circulations of the magazine *F1 Racing* reduced by 3% to 70,000 copies and *Autosport* by 4% to 43,000 copies a week (F1 Market Report, 2006). This reflected the lack of a top-line British driver being able to fight at the head of the F1 field.

Table 3.26

Total on-screen time for the top ten drivers
(Irrespective of sponsor exposure) during live race-feed transmissions of rounds 1-4 2005 F1 World Championship (Australia, Malaysia, Bahrain, San Marino)

Driver	Total time	Races	Ave per race	'05 points	'04 rounds 1 - 4
Alonso	1h35m10s	4	23m47s	36	57m35s
Schumacher	1:06.59	4	16:45	10	1:46:49
Webber	50:12	4	12:33	7	23:47
Trulli	42:48	4	10:42	18	57:53
Fisichella	36:23	4	9:06	10	18:15
Button	34:11	4	8:33	6	1:06:55
Raikkonen	33:44	4	8:26	7	25:28
Barrichello	33:32	4	8:23	8	1:32:46
De la Rosa	30:49	1	30:49	4	-
Heidfeld	22:02	4	5:30	7	17:31

(Source: Sports Marketing Surveys in F1 Racing, 2005c)

Table 3.27

Total on-screen time for each team

(Irrespective of sponsor exposure) during live race-feed transmissions of rounds 1-4 2005 F1 World Championship (Australia, Malaysia, Bahrain, San Marino)

Team	'05 coverage	Share	'04 coverage	Share
Renault	2h24m36s	24.3%	1h52m37s	15.2%
Ferrari	1:45:15	17.7%	3:23:44	27.5%
McLaren	1:16:48	12.9%	52:21	7.1%
Williams	1:11:59	12.1%	1:59:58	16.2%
Toyota	1:05:40	11.1%	30:14	4.1%
B.A.R.-Honda	50:54	8.6%	1:43:14	13.9%
Red Bull / Jaguar	31:26	5.3%	39:56	5.4%
Sauber	30:54	5.2%	37:27	5.0%
Jordan	9:38	1.6%	24:54	3.4%
Minardi	6:51	1.2%	17:12	2.3%

(Source: Sports Marketing Surveys in F1 Racing, 2005c)

Table 3.28 illustrates the Lewis Hamilton effect by which McLaren achieved twice as much coverage as championship-winning Ferrari.

Table 3.28

2007 Season Brand Exposure

TEAM	TOTAL	AVERAGE (per GP)
McLaren	13h 40m 09s	48m 14s
Ferrari	7h 39m 30s	27m 02s
Renault	2h 43m 20s	9m 37s
BMW-Sauber	2h 34m 10s	9m 04s
Toyota	2h 33m 01s	9m 00s
Williams	1h 57m 43s	6m 55s
Red Bull Racing	1h 08m 12s	4m 06s
Spyker	47m 08s	1m 39s
Scuderia Toro Rosso	28m 05s	1m 39s
Super Aguri	23m 38s	1m 23s
Honda	19m 01s	1m 07s

Source: *Margaux Matrix* (F1 Racing 2008)

3.4.12.1 Sponsor placements

The design of competing vehicles is important for the display of sponsor's messages which must be visible to gain adequate television exposure and to be recognized (Arthur *et al*, 1998). Not only is visibility and positioning important, with those surfaces most likely to be televised or photographed commanding most money, but also the physical design. There was controversy in 2005 when trends in design that featured curved bodywork, chimneys and winglets made logos difficult to read potentially affecting sponsor acquisition and retention (F1 Racing, 2005f).

The forward facing rear wing generates between forty and 60% of a F1 team's operating budget (Kassami, 1995) and it is a vital surface to sell to sponsors. There was disquiet when in late 2005 the twin Centreline Downwards Generating rear wing (CDG) was suggested as a way of increasing overtaking. The proposals meant that the previous single large rear wing would become two smaller wings but fears were expressed that sponsors might disapprove as the front of the rear wing is the second most visible element of a car seen on television (Table 3.29). The table shows the effect of increased on-board TV footage. Such camera angles increase the sponsorship value of car surfaces such as tub tops and wing-mirrors although F1 has a rule that sponsors' logos must not be seen the correct way up in on-board TV cockpit shots. This is not the case in USA motor racing.

Whilst the vehicle is at the centre of the sporting action in motorsport and is the focus of television attention there other locations for sponsor messages. Analysis of the top fifty F1 sponsors in 1997 found that “panels” (trackside panels, bridge panels, overhang panels, podium panels and signage in the pits) generated the highest exposure (33.8%) of all. The second highest value was for “screen credits” (29.2%) including the official timekeeper, team names and engine supplier badges. Competing cars (19.2%) were the third most successful location with “drivers' suits” (7.1%) being viewed in interviews and podium ceremonies. In the headwear department (4.6%) “Driver's helmets” entered the equation thanks to the introduction of on-board TV cameras and “Driver's Caps” were often seen during interviews. Other exposure sources (6.0%) included mechanic's clothing, team shirts, ground advertising, TV

monitors used in the pits, umbrellas, driver’s gloves, team truck, headphones, team jacket, drinking bottle and promotional girls (Arrows, 1999). Typical branding of F1 cars, drivers and trucks may be seen in Appendix 6.

Table 3.29

Air time achieved by different car surfaces during the 2004 F1 Season

LOCATION	EXPOSURE in seconds	SHARE %
Tub top	22.394	29.55
Rear wing (front)	13.205	17.42
Sidepod	9387	12.39
Wing-mirrors	5623	7.42
Front wing	5550	7.32
Engine cover	5392	7.12
Tub side	4261	5.62
Nose top	3640	4.80
Rear wing (rear)	2459	3.24
Nose side	1429	1.89
Rear wing (end plate)	951	1.25
Cockpit (outer)	662	0.87
Cockpit (inner)	384	0.51
Tyres	200	0.26
Floor	177	0.23
Wishbones	69	0.09

(Source: F1 Racing, 2005b)

An indication of the effectiveness of “panels” by Arrows is shown by the brands that made use of this media at 2005 F1 races. The list included Agip, Allianz, Bridgestone, Budweiser, Fosters, Fuji TV, Gauloises, Gulf Air, Marlboro, Mercedes, Mobil, Olympus, Orange, Panasonic, Petronas, RBS, Shell, Siemens, Sinopec, Tourism Malaysia, Toyota and Vodafone although Fosters, Orange, Fuji TV and Sinopec did not sponsor teams. The literature suggests that panels are, “a very effective brand-awareness tool”, and that they are regarded as, “the cheapest and most effective means of exploiting F1’s global reach. Better even than sponsoring a car because a billboard doesn’t move at 200mph”. In buying F1 signage the packages available are either race title sponsorship or basic track signage. The former allows the brand naming rights to a grand prix and logo sites on the podium, grid and start-finish straight. Trackside advertising is limited to eight advertisers per race and each

gets ten signs with the clustering of signs at specific track locations used to maximise effectiveness (F1 Racing, 2006c).

3.4.12.2 Broadcast timing

Most of F1's television income traditionally comes from the major European broadcasters which are concerned about the move of races to venues on different continents and in different time bands and are “increasingly concerned about losing their traditional Sunday-afternoon slots”. This is because Asian races start in the early morning and American races run live during early-evening prime time. These time changes “create havoc by disrupting regular [TV] schedules” (Cooper, 2004). More recently Bernie Ecclestone has been proposing the concept of night time F1 races in the Far East because of the unfavourable time differences for western European television viewers (Autosport, 2007a). Races would be viewed at more convenient European times and in 2008 Singapore will stage such an event. The Australian GP organizers were resisting such a concept (Autosport, 2007c). Qatar saw the first MotoGP night race in 2008.

3.4.12.3 Qualifying

The 1990s free-for-all F1 qualifying was criticized for producing little action over the full hour which was tedious for both circuit and television spectators. American-style one-by-one qualifying was tried because as Bernie Ecclestone explained some of “the little teams” weren't getting enough exposure and single-car qualifying would guarantee to get their sponsors on television (Roebuck, 2005b). This system too was criticized as tedious but there was constant action for the television companies. In 2006 a knock-out system was devised with Bernie Ecclestone now revealing that he had always disliked the one-by-one qualifying system having little sympathy for the poorer performing teams because “we're not running races for people – who can't perform – to get television coverage” (Roebuck, 2005b).

3.4.12.4 A global TV audience

Jackie Stewart argues that whilst, “television is a wonderful medium, it simply does not do justice to the spectacle of motor racing. Sitting at home and watching a long shot of a F1 car approaching Copse Corner is, “he says, “underwhelming compared to the thrill of attending the race and having all your senses bombarded by the experience “ (Stewart, 2007, page 491). Whilst he may well be right the reality is that the global television audience is essential for the world wide audience.

F1 is described as the top-rated annual global sporting series by Formula One Management’s (FOM) 2006 Global Broadcast Report (F1 Racing, 2007a). The composition of F1’s global television audience is shown by the viewing figures for the 2004 Monaco GP (Table 3.30) and by the 2005 totals (Table 3.31).

The global television viewing statistics showed that cumulative audiences rose by 6% between 2003 and 2004 and whilst this sounded good it was attributed to there being two more races in 2004. The average audience per race had actually declined from 47 million to 44 million. There was a noticeable decrease in viewers following Michael Schumacher seventh world title with many viewers only watching the start and the finish – a viewing profile that was bad for both advertisers and sponsors. The highest TV ratings in the UK came from American F1 events which were shown at peak viewing time in Europe. The increasing number of races in the Far East, which are broadcast in the early morning in Europe, were expected to be bad for European viewing (Goodbody, 2005).

Taylor (2006) compiled the figures in Table 3.28 from information contained within FOM’s document “*2005 F1 Global Broadcast report*”. China has become the biggest F1 viewing audience in the world with 11.4% of the TV viewing population tuning in whilst the USA performed badly. Fernando Alonso’s title charge influenced the 80.4% of Spain’s viewing population who watched.

Table 3.30
TV viewing figures for 2004 Monaco Grand Prix

Country	Audience in millions
Italy	11.8
Finland	1.0
Hungary	1.4
Germany	10.9
Slovakia	0.6
Spain	4.8
Czech Republic	1.0
Austria	0.9
Estonia	0.1
Slovenia	0.2
Croatia	0.4
France	4.6
Switzerland	0.6
Brazil	4.1
Latvia	0.2
Portugal	0.7
The Netherlands	1.0
Belgium	0.3
Romania	1.2
Great Britain	3.3
Total	49.1

(Source: Goodbody, 2005)

Table 3.31
2005 F1 viewing Figures

Country	No of viewers	% of total viewers
China	135,414,000	11.4%
Brazil	90,783,000	57.7%
Italy	39,028,646	70.3%
Japan	38,586,000	35.4%
Germany	36,512,000	51.4%
Spain	33,160,000	80.4%
France	32,693,760	59.4%
UK	26,034,000	46.8%
USA	10,660,000	3.8%
Australia	4,850,000	35.1%

(Source: Taylor, 2006)

3.4.13 Documented results of motorsport sponsorship

In 1971 cosmetics firm Yardley, which sponsored BRM in F1 under the “brandstanded” name of "Yardley BRM", attributed a 40% rise in the sales of it's

men's toiletries to that sponsorship (Waite, 1979). Meenaghan (1991) referred to research undertaken by companies to find the degree to which respondents associated either them or their product with sponsored activities. The motorsport results (Table 3.32) show the "dramatic" 36% increase in Marlboro's awareness level having been a motorsport sponsor between 1974 and 1980.

Table: 3.32
MOTOR RACING SPONSORSHIP AWARENESS

<u>Sponsor</u>	<u>Percentage of respondents mentioning each sponsor</u>			
	<u>1974</u>	<u>1977</u>	<u>1980</u>	<u>1988</u>
Texaco	18	45	47	60
John Player	22	43	44	66
Marlboro	6	25	42	55
Rothmans	11	13	13	50
None/don't know	35	20	19	n/a

(Source: Mintel, 1980,1986,1988,1990 as published in Meenaghan 1991)

More recently ING used their F1 sponsorship of Renault in 2007 to raise awareness of their organisation - the 10th largest company in the world - because they were “way down the list of globally recognized brands”. The sponsorship’s aim was to address the board’s concern about “the disconnect between the size of the company and their public perception” (F1 Racing, 2007c).

There is a high level of association of motorsport brands with Wilkins (1996) showing that 57% of UK adults able to spontaneously name one (Table 3.33).

Shell’s evaluation of its Ferrari sponsorship concluded that “where awareness of the Shell-Ferrari relationship was effectively created there was a significant impact on Shell brand preference and on Shell’s business performance (Verity, 2002, page 165). After only one year (2007) sponsoring the Renault F1 team ING found there to be a 7% increase in perception of ING being a leading and global financial services firm; 25% increase in positive perception; 29% increase in willingness to do business with ING and a 100% increase in awareness of ING being a F1 sponsor (Conner, 2007).

Table: 3.33
PEAK SPONTANEOUS AWARENESS OF MOTORSPORT SPONSORS

Motor Racing Sponsor	%	Start of Deal
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Marlboro		20	1974
Benetton	19		
Renault		11	
Rothmans	10		
Ford	8	1967	
Dunlop		8	

(Source: Adapted from RSL Sponsortest as quoted by Wilkins, 1996)

Rothmans found that, "it took time to reap the full benefits of a sponsorship programme" even though their backing of Williams' F1 team quickly produced significant increases in levels of brand awareness which reflected in sales increases (Andrews & Tucker, 1996).

Research (Table 3.34) shows that when asked to identify as many brands as possible associated with F1 all of the males and 96% of females named Marlboro. A number of brands were still associated although they were no longer participating, including Camel, Michelin, Pirelli, Lotus, John Player Special and Dunlop which boasted high awareness levels (Grant-Braham, *et al*, 1998). A French study had previously revealed that 25% of French people thought that Michelin was still in F1 despite having pulled out two years previously (Potts, 1986).

Jaguar used motorsport sponsorship in the 1980s to change its association with British Leyland and to restore its positioning of reliability, status and performance. By 1989 Jaguar had won both Le Mans and the World Sportscar Championship twice and then the company's entire advertising budget was linked to motorsport. In 1985 world-wide sales of Jaguar had been 25,000 units but by 1989 had increased to 55,000 with brand associations being high performance, high status and reliable. On leaving motorsport, sales dropped back to 30,000 annually (Marshall, 1995).

Table: 3.34

UNPROMPTED SPONTANEOUS AWARENESS OF F1 BRANDS

Ranking	Brand	Percentage of Correspondent	Percentage of Correspondent	Percentage of Correspondent
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		s Mentioning Each Brand Total Sample %	s Mentioning Each Brand Male %	s Mentioning Each Brand Female %
1	Marlboro	96	100	90
2	Benetton	71	74	65
3	Ferrari	67	77	50
4	Benson & Hedges	60	71	40
5	Renault	56	74	25
6	Goodyear	55	69	30
7	Rothmans	53	63	35
8	Bridgestone	42	63	5
9	Camel	36	37	35
10	Fosters	35	34	35
11	Michelin	33	23	40
12	Elf	31	40	15
13	Pirelli	31	29	35
14	Shell	29	40	10
15	Ford	25	29	20
16	Dunlop	24	23	25
17	Canon	20	30	20
18	Honda	20	26	10
19	Lotus	20	26	10
20	Mobil	20	23	15
21	Silk Cut	20	26	10
22	McLaren	18	14	25
23	Texaco	18	26	5
24	Labatts	15	17	10
25	Mercedes	15	17	10
26	Peugeot	15	17	10
27	John Player Special	13	17	0
28	Jordan	11	9	15
29	Red Bull	11	9	15
30	Mild Seven	9	11	4

(Source: Grant-Braham, *et al*, 1998)

Toyota’s research found that the company’s association with motorsport had risen between 2004 and 2005 from 38% to 50% thanks to F1. Car brands associated with F1 showed Toyota scoring 82% (Mercedes-Benz - 80% and BMW – 78%) giving it a “younger, more vibrant appeal” with the following associations:

- Strives for perfection – (83%)
- Builds cars with state-of-the-art technology (79%)
- Displays true teamwork (76%)
- Is very professional (75%)

- Is getting better all the time (74%)
- Is dedicated to winning world championships in the future (65%).
(F1 Racing, 2006a)

ING were very satisfied with their first year of sponsorship of the Renault F1 team in 2007 with positive experiences including improvements in visibility, awareness and positioning (Table 3.35).

In the USA Proctor and Gamble used NASCAR to promote its "Tide" and "Crisco" brands to the female audience in an environment where they stood out amid the clutter of cigarette, beer, and auto marketers (Hiestand, 1989). Women made up 40% of NASCAR's audience who bought \$84 million (\$40 million) worth of merchandise goods in 2001 and who were expected to buy \$250 million in 2006 (Attwood, 2006). Even in 1998 NASCAR generated \$1.1 billion in sponsorship revenues (King, 1998) with fans identifying 200 companies and connected brands (Byrnes, 1994) whilst Pennzoil's market share in the South East of the USA grew several percentage points in the first six months of its NASCAR sponsorship (Byrnes, 1994).

Nigel Mansell (1995) revealed two successful effects that his success yielded. Williams team morale improved when he won the championship there was satisfaction at a job well done. Not only was there such a positive team effect but Renault sales increased in Europe. When he moved to Indy Car racing media interest increased resulting in Dirt Devil receiving an hour more of TV time in 1993 than the championship sponsor PPG (Byrnes 1994) thus demonstrating why some sponsors prefer teams as opposed to championships or individual events. In 1982 Anheuser-Busch (the largest sport sponsor in the USA) sponsored Mario Andretti and if the company had had to purchase the equivalent amount of air time and print they received they couldn't have afforded it (Ukman, 1984a). Japan Tobacco similarly sponsored Benetton because it was the most cost effective platform for promoting their Mild Seven brand (Dodgins, 1995).

Table 3.35
RESULTS OF ING'S FIRST YEAR OF F1 SPONSORSHIP

Sponsorship	% change		Outcome
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objective			
Visibility			Second highest overall in F1 with on-track and on-car branding
Awareness	100% increase		ING being an F1 sponsor
	7% increase		Perception of ING being a leading and global financial services firm
	25% increase		Positive perception of ING
	29% increase		Non-customers saying they have the intention to do business with ING in next 12 months
Positioning	15% increase		Association of ING with the word “global”
	10% increase		Association of ING with the word “leading”
Corporate Culture			20,000 employees have participated in events
			Corporate culture strengthened and unified
			Sense of belonging and common excitement created through F1
Sponsorship activation			First ever global advertising campaign – 30 countries, 25 languages. 70 online portals and 49 major publications
			100+ local events, activities and contests in non-race countries and in F1 race markets
			1 million consumers in non-race markets reached through city events
Driving Business	ING division	Target market	Outcome
	Postbank (direct banking in Netherlands)	16-24 year old age group	14,000 young adults signed for an account within two weeks
	ING Direct (Australia)	Existing clients	AU\$ 250 million in fresh revenue with incentives to win 4 Renault cars. Concept copied in UK, Spain and Italy.
	Eastern Europe	New consumers	1,200 leads per day from F1 show cars in shopping centres
	Asia	Employees	Incentive tool for sales force
	Private and wholesale banking	Key clients	Thousands introduced to ING senior management through hospitality at events.
			Hospitality at two races credited with attracting EUR 50 million in new assets and EUR 11 million in new credit lines.

(Source: ING, 2008)

Grimm (1990) established that Alexander Julian Enterprises CART sponsorship provided the associations of colour and pageantry that fitted their own brand image.

Quester and Farrelly's (1998) research found evidence that the closer the sponsors involvement with the core of an event the better the brand associations. They found that "those sponsors whose company or brand names are associated with the main race or whose logos are prominently displayed at the telecast races fare significantly better than the less visible names".

Where the British Touring Car Championship is concerned TV coverage is the most important aspect as far as exposure is concerned (Gow, 1996). Tindale (1990) referred to the 1989 Esso RAC BTCC and the many television opportunities during thirteen rounds between March and October with more than 170 brands receiving exposure during 4.5 hours of TV coverage. This was split between on-car advertising ("easily the most prominent"), in-car advertising, trackside, peripherals (such as clothing and helmets), on-screen and commentary references. In 1994 Volvo's BTCC sponsorship changed perceptions of the make showing Volvos to be exciting and sporty. The T-5R model would not have sold if the company hadn't been racing (Murray, 1995). HMSO Books Vauxhall sponsorship in the 1995 BTCC reached a wide market. "In comparison with our other advertising and promotions the motorsport activity has been responsible for creating the greatest customer awareness. Twenty-six percent of customers said they became aware of our name through Touring Cars or at motorsport meetings" (Anon, 1995b).

Mintel (1990) found that the recall levels of three brands of cigarette sponsors rose from 6%, 11% and 22% in 1974 to 55%, 50% and 66% in 1988 using motor racing as prompt. Texaco also recorded a recall improvement from 18% to 60% as a result of motorsport sponsorship. British American Tobacco (BAT) found that F1 television coverage created a "genuine association" with their team which was "vital for image building" (Hacking, 1989).

3.4.14 The motorsport audience

Motorsport, is more popular amongst men than women although this is to a lesser degree than in football, boxing and snooker. More than two thirds of men claim to have an interest in motorsport whilst interest is high throughout all demographic groups and specifically amongst young higher social status individuals (Wilkins, 1996) which is attributed to motorsport's image (Table 3.36). Motorsports achieve

higher levels of interest from men than women (Mintel, 2002) with the 15-34 male age group demonstrating a particular interest as motorsports is perceived to be an upmarket ABC1 interest.

Table: 3.36
Image of Motorsport

Descriptor	Approximate % agreement
Exciting	85%
Is for both sexes	83%
Is for all ages	82%
Attracts families	81%
Attracts young people	78%
Boring	26%

(Source: RSL Leisure Monitor - as quoted in Wilkins, 1996)

In the USA the motorsport cable television audience demographics are usually comprised of 18 to 49 year old males (Goldman and Ozian, 1995). Philip Morris USA, found that the average race fan is 36 years old (Anon, 1995a) with motorsport's audience comprising up to 40% of children, teens and women (Karmer, 1996).

General Motors identified a demographic group that bought Chevrolet cars which is why it participates in motor racing. The president of McDonald's USA found NASCAR and McDonald's to be a perfect fit because "racing fans are McDonald's customers". The typical NASCAR fan is married, 25 to 45 years old with a household income in excess of \$30,000. Racing fans also buy Coca-Cola for which involvement in NASCAR has been key to driving sales for the brand "Mello Yello" (Byrnes, 1994).

Table 3.37
The Motorcycle Racing Audience

Age Groups	16 – 24 25 – 34 35 – 44 45 – 54 55 - 64	4.8% 22.8% 49,6% 19.6% 3.2%
Annual Household Income	£15,000 and under £15,001 - £30,000 £30,001 - £45,000 £45,001 - £60,000 £60,001 - £80,000 Over £80,000 Not stated	8.0% 34% 20.4% 18.4% 10.4% 3.2% 5.6%
Other Sports Followed	MotoGP World Superbikes F1 Football Rallying Touring Cars Rugby Athletics Golf Snooker Cricket Tennis	65.2% 59.6% 41.2% 39.2% 35.2% 34.8% 24.4% 16.8% 14.0% 14.0% 11.6% 7.2%
Attending British Superbike Championship rounds	Never attended 1 – 2 events 3 – 5 events 6+ events	15.7% 16.5% 17.3% 50.6%
Watching British Superbike Championship on television	Yes No Sky Sports BBC Both	89.2% 0.8% 39.5% 35.9% 24.7%
Biking activities enjoyed	MotoGP World Superbikes Bike shows Rideouts Club Meetings Meets	65.2% 59.6% 50.4% 32.4% 21.2% 16.4%
MotoGP	Follow Go to watch Watch on TV Read related press Read related web sites	65.2% 48.7% 67.4% 23.4% 15.2%
World Superbikes	Follow Go to watch Watch on TV Read related press Read related web sites	59.6% 49.3% 66.8% 19.2% 10.2%

(Source: Fern, 2005)

In the USA motor racing is a social event and auto racing fans are an attractive segment of above average income and education who are extremely brand loyal (Grimm, 1990) by going “out of their way to buy products associated with racing” (Whalen, 1993) with 7% of NASCAR fans "almost always" or "frequently" choosing a product involved in NASCAR (Byrnes, 1994). The NASCAR fan base is particularly

loyal being more likely to buy a product from a NASCAR sponsor than from a competitor who is not (Helberg, 1996). Performance Research (1994) confirmed this when they found that 48% of fans would buy a sponsor's product over a closely priced competitor's and that 42% had switched when a company became a sponsor. Dean (2004) found NASCAR fans more likely than fans of any other major sport to purchase products promoted at a sports event. Trusdell (1997) had established that the figure for potential fan purchases for NASCAR was 72% as against 36-38% for the NFL or NBA. Grimm (1990) drew attention to the demographics of the NASCAR follower which had changed following the mass exposure of the Tom Cruise film *Days of Thunder*. NASCAR's governing body claimed 76% of fans earn \$25,000 or more annually, 20% are professionals, 64% are homeowners and 38% are women. Coors found that auto racing and motocross followers consumed more beer than any other category of sports fan whilst tennis and golf fans preferred to drink wine to beer (Schafer, 1985).

Geach (1997) said that compared with F1, CART boasted many non-automotive sponsors such as Target, K-Mart, Alumax, Panasonic, MCI, Omega, Jockey, Kellogg's and Motorola. The different profile of sponsors in the USA is attributed to increasing attendance and television viewing (Byrnes 1994). With motorsport being the second most viewed US spectator sport (Karmer, 1996).

British Superbike Championship fan research revealed an older age profile than might have been expected (Table 3.37). This goes against MotoGP sponsor Tissot's attraction to the youthfulness of that motorcycle racing audience. Tissot also identifies a differentiation between F1, which is associated with up-market and luxury brands, with MotoGP being more suited to their, “mid-price range, ‘mass market’ product (McCullagh, 2008b).

3.4.15 Sponsorship Hunting

*“If you haven't got the sponsorship you won't get the results
and if you don't get the results you won't get the sponsorship”*

Paul Stoddart, Minardi F1 Team Owner

(Redmayne, 2005).

Motor racing attracts more spectators than any other sport except football so it can “be among the most effective of marketing platforms” The key to successful exploitation of motor racing sponsorship is to structure the platform correctly and to

target the right audience (Edwards 1987). Table 3.38 shows Edwards' five stage process to achieve this.

Table 3.38 - Edwards' Five Stage Process – See Appendix 5

In paragraph 2 of Table 3.38 the team becomes a versatile marketing platform catering for both product promotion and customer relations. The second column shows the publicity and promotion that is automatically generated by the activities of the platform throughout the year and column three outlines the range of activities in which the platform can be used to maximize overall marketing strategy advantage to improve customer relations and to take the product to the consumer. The table shows how the platform may be used to gain new clients and improve relations with existing customers and employees (Edwards, 1987).

Sponsorship should produce a unique outcome which fits the image that a sponsor is trying to convey (Ferrand & Pages, 1996) with Aimis *et al* (1999) additionally stating that the image produced should be “so superior that it clearly differentiates the firm from its competitors, and thus discourages other firms from directly competing with it.”

3.4.16 Attracting the sponsor

A F1 marketing departments convince prospective partners that they are making a sound investment, their money will be well spent and that any investment will be “suitably and uniquely rewarded” (Nicholson & Hamilton, 1995) and they must have a clear and credible view of their team’s potential and the ability to communicate sponsorship’s global marketing benefits. It must convince potential sponsors of what motorsport sponsorship can do and other sports cannot with a sponsor expecting consistently reliable performance and sustained success on the track (Henry 1991).

Sponsorship searches can be frustrating. Macknight (1993) outlined how seven months of work to try to land Texaco as a sponsor was not rewarded and how despite initial encouragement Coca-Cola did not become a F1 sponsor because the main board only sponsored events.

3.4.17 The correct profile

Attracting sponsors depends on brand-fit with perceptions of F1. Williams found F1 to be *international, glamorous, hi-tech, controversial* and *exciting* (David Thomas, 1995). Walker (1995) stated that sponsors used Williams like an advertising agent to associate with the sport's assets of being *international, glamorous, sexy, high-tech* and *aspirational*. Williams itself was felt to be *secure, honest, long term, straightforward, dedicated* and a *British success story*.

Williams researches potential sponsors with a similar profile before visiting them. Media impact is prioritised as Williams always ask what the sponsor's requirement was. The sponsor therefore reaches the audience at the circuit and the television radio and print audiences. The aim of sponsors was largely to create a favourable image with consumers and subsequent brand purchase (Nicholls, Roslow & Lasky , 1994).

A team had to know its target income and to accept that it might take several sponsorships to achieve the total. Once the title sponsor had been found the remaining space on the car then has to be sold to meet the budget. The rear wing facing can generate between 40% and 60% of the team's operating budget with as many as fifteen different sponsoring companies being accommodated on the car with the title sponsor entitled to 60% colouration (Kassami, 1995).

Eddie Jordan (2007, page 111) stated that because many potential sponsors unfamiliar with motorsport they need to receive a detailed plan explaining sponsorship methodologies such as, "involving their staff, using the driver or team principal to come in and give motivational speeches...the benefit of having guests and providing hospitality at the races...bringing key clients for a factory visit".

Table 3.39 gives an indication of the tariff for 2005 F1 sponsors. According to Thomas (1995) attracting and satisfying sponsors is, "far more subtle, sophisticated and interesting than merely flogging off spaces on a car's fuselage or a driver's helmet". Sponsors recognise that the only logos visible on television are the biggest ones. These are on the rear wing, the side pods and the raised engine-cover behind the driver's head.

Table 3.39

The price of logo space with a top F1 team

	F1 Racing, 2005	Sylt & Reid, 2007
Rear Wing, Air box & Sidepods		£12.5m
Rear Wing (Front and Back)	\$20m	
Sidepod	\$15m	
Mirrors, Sidepod bottom		£1.5m
Engine Cover	\$10m	
Tub (Side)	\$5m	
Cockpit side		£5m
Bargeboard	\$3.5m	
Rear Wing (Endplate)	\$3m	£4m
Front Wing (Flaps)	\$2.5m	
Front Wing (Endplate)	\$2m	
Nose (Top)	\$1.75m	
Front & Side of Nose		£7.5m
Wing Mirror	\$1m	

Note: All figures are *F1 Racing* estimates, based on the average cost of positioning of a logo on the two cars in a top-five team. For title sponsorship add a further \$5-10 million and \$2 – 5 million for driver helmet branding.

(Sources: “The Earning Curve, *F1 Racing*, October 2005, page 34; Sylt & Reid, 2007)

Williams that there are only between thirty-five and forty front-line, blue chip corporations world-wide which could realistically finance a F1 sponsorship programme (Henry, 1991). Canon’s Williams sponsorship was based on that company being a global enterprise moving in many different cultures. F1 provided a common culture, a focal point for the enthusiasm and attention of different people in many countries and for Canon it could project for them an image of high quality, reliability and high technology. There are few more photogenic and spectacular sports than motor racing, which was important to a major camera manufacturer (Henry, 1991).

Proposition 14: Image is important to *motorsport sponsors*.

Throughout the literature the projection, enhancement and creation of an image is revealed as an essential sponsorship objective. The importance of image to motorsport sponsors was examined by question twenty in the research instrument.

3.4.18 Sponsorship in motorsport Summary

Sponsorship is seen as both essential and integral to motorsport. Synergy or fit is an important element of motorsport sponsorship whether this is expressed in terms of an automotive or a perception of excellence theme. Motorsport provides the opportunity to sponsor an individual, a team or an event unlike some other sports. Historically motorsport sponsorship of a covert nature may be traced back to 1887 but commercial sponsorship from outside the automotive-related industries only fully emerged in F1 in an overt manner in 1968. The sport is an annual, world-wide series of events attracting interest throughout the year making it particularly attractive to sponsors looking for these features. F1's main disadvantage has been its lack of penetration of the USA. Motorsport sponsors must be aware of the implications and concepts of disaster planning, networking, clutter and reciprocal marketing. Sponsorship of motorsport facilitates increased awareness of brands, encourages consumer trials and purchase as well as the cultivation of brand loyalty. National heroes can be created through motorsport who have influence on the media exposure of the sport in their home countries. F1 teams recruit a variety of types of sponsor ranging from title sponsors to official suppliers. The promotion of tobacco through motorsport sponsorship has been a core element of the business side of motorsport since 1968 and for those cigarette companies involved for a long period of it has been successful. Further legal regulation of tobacco advertising is inevitable world wide and this has had implications for the teams, some of which are entering into concepts such as alibi marketing. Tobacco has been but one of a series of products promoted through motorsport that have a risk attached to their brand image. Alcohol and energy drink brands have used the motorsport platform for the same reasons and may too be under the threat of increased legislation. There is evidence in the literature of successful sponsorship outcomes from involvement in motorsport. Such success is increasingly dependent upon comprehensive marketing programmes in addition to the races themselves.

4.0 – METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This research thesis starts by reviewing traditional marketing theories where sponsorship, sport and in particular motorsport sponsorship is concerned. The objective is to identify a model for the reasoning behind investment in motorsport sponsorship and to test and compare any such model against a sample made up of decision makers in both two-wheeled motor cycle racing and four-wheeled motor car racing.

4.2 Research design and scope

When the research first commenced, sponsorship (in both sport and the arts) had not been academically researched in great depth. An exploratory approach was therefore necessitated. Cooper & Schindler (1998, page 134) explained that exploratory research is appropriate because it, "covers areas that may be so new or so vague that a researcher needs to do an exploration just to learn something about the dilemma facing the manager".

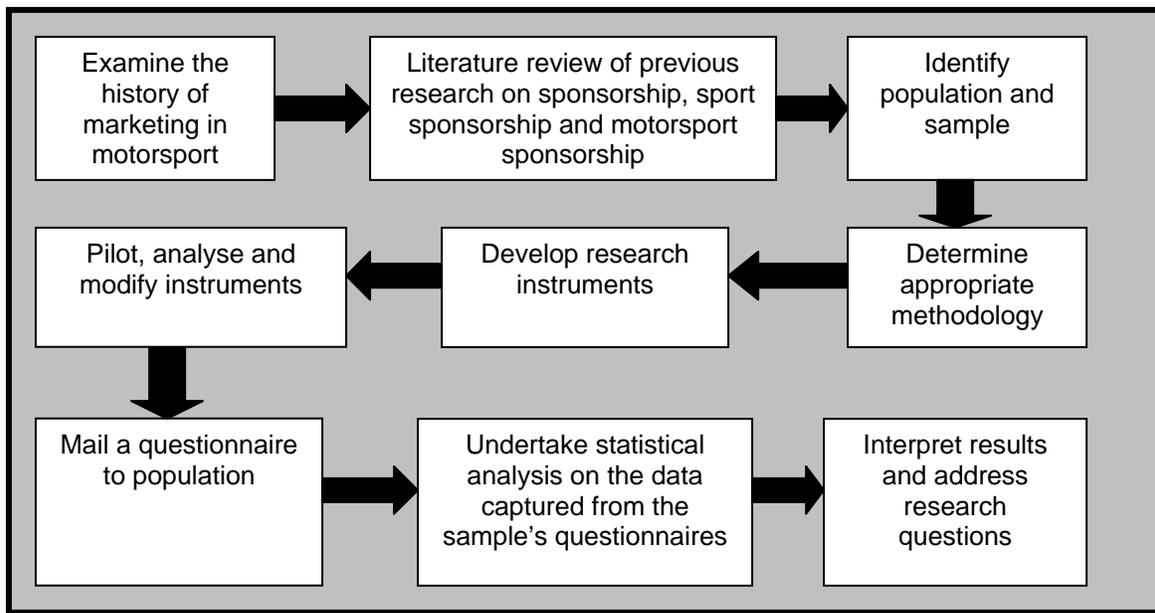
The lack of research into sponsorship (Meenaghan 1984; Gardner and Shuman 1987; Sandler and Shani, 1989; Hansen & Scotwin, 1995) may possibly be because it was sometimes regarded as "illegitimate" by practitioners of advertising who might have regarded themselves as purists. Initially the traditional marketing channel of advertising was not felt to be under threat and perhaps the practitioners didn't regard sponsorship as a viable alternative. In recent years, both the interest in and the research into the medium of sponsorship has increased, along with the recognition of its effectiveness. Sponsorship's legitimacy has now been established (Sandler & Shani, 1989; Meenaghan, 1991a).

A number of potential research methodologies were examined and the results are outlined in section 4.3. The chosen on-line questionnaire methodology was piloted, found to be inappropriate due to a perceived fear of lack of confidentiality by the recipients of the pilot, and an alternative (more suitable) self-administered questionnaire methodology

selected. The self-administered questionnaire, delivered by mail, yielded a good response rate from a population that was relatively small.

The research process covered a number of stages and is illustrated in Figure 4.1.

Fig. 4.1
The scope of the research process



4.3 Population and sample

The population researched comprises sponsorship decision-makers in both four wheeled motorsport, as represented by the Formula One World Championship, and two wheeled motorsport in the form of the MotoGP World Championship.

Investigation of the available literature revealed that the two major World Championship road racing series would readily yield details of their sponsorship decision-makers. It was anticipated that Formula One and MotoGP would be sufficiently mature, where marketing is concerned to provide individuals who fully understood the strategic aims of

sponsorship programmes. In particular the Formula One World Championship (Gregoire, 2004a) and the MotoGP series (Gregoire, 2004b) proved transparent enough to directly yield details of their stakeholders which assisted greatly in identifying the relevant population. Several editions of the “Who Works” series (Gregoire, 2004a & 2004b) were examined, covering a number of racing seasons.

The population was geographically spread around the world, particularly in Europe, USA and the Far East. Some organisations within the population were subsequently found to be involved in sponsorship of both four wheeled and two-wheeled motorsport and there was therefore some overlap.

4.4 Survey Methodology

The three dominant and traditional survey methods considered in constructing the methodology for this research were mail, personal and telephone surveys. In addition the less traditional but potentially suitable case study methodology was examined for its appropriateness as was the favoured concept of an online survey.

Evans and Mathur (2005) suggest that, in an ideal world, “personal interviewing offers the best opportunity for close contact and two-way interaction between interviewers and respondents”, but costs, time requirements and geographical spread of the sample do not make this achievable in all research scenarios. This was certainly the case with this research.

The literature concerning mail, personal and telephone surveys is comprehensive and includes Alreck and Settle (2004), Dillman (2000), Evans and Mathur (2005), Malhotra and Peterson (2001), Schonlau *et al.* (2001) and Spaeth (1977).

4.4.1 Mail survey

The perceived strengths of a mail survey methodology include its ability to reach a large sample across a wide geographical area. Interviewer bias, a potential problem with personal interviews, is partially removed and there is less time pressure on the respondent. A variety of types of question may be asked and, critical to this research, respondent anonymity may be maintained with confidence. Mail surveys are relatively low in cost when compared, in particular, with personal surveys. The weaknesses of a mail survey include a traditionally low response rate and respondent confusion due to potentially unclear completion instructions. There is a tendency for some item non-responses where answers are left blank or are submitted in an incomplete manner. Sometimes only very brief answers are given to open-ended questions in what is regarded as a rather impersonal methodology when compared with face-to-face interviews (Alpar & Spitzer, 1989; Cavusgil & Elvey-Kirk, 1998; Evans & Mathur, 2005; Gendall & Menealou, 1996; Greer, *et al.*, 2000; Jussaume & Yamada, 1990; Ratneshwar & Stewart, 1989).

4.4.2 Personal Survey

Although perceived as the ideal methodology a personal survey was ruled out as a usable research methodology as the time and cost of reaching a worldwide sample was deemed prohibitive. The suggestion that such interviews could be undertaken when the sample came together at respective hallmark events – such as the respective British Grand Prix events - was also discounted as, on investigation, it was established that the ideal interviewees would be heavily involved in their professional duties and that time availability would be severely restricted, if offered at all.

It had been found by Scholl *et al* (2002) that face-to-face surveys had enabled them to gather much more information and had allowed for far greater probing of respondents than a similar exercise undertaken online. Curasi (2001), meanwhile, found that online surveys were a viable alternative to face-to-face surveys provided time, cost restraints and geographic boundaries were not limitations.

Had personal surveys proved possible the ability of the technique to allow personal interaction and to probe would have been useful, but equally interviewer bias might have unintentionally crept in. The literature specifically mentions the problems of geographic limitation as well as respondent time pressure where personal surveys are concerned and this methodology was therefore discounted as a consequence (Alreck & Settle, 2004; Bowers, 1998; Brennan, 1997; Evans & Mathur, 2005; Goldsmith, 1989; Holbrook *et al.*, 2003; Malhotra, 2004; Presser & Zhao, 1992).

4.4.3 Telephone Survey

A telephone survey is often used where a random sample is required and where a good geographic coverage, timeliness and personal interaction with the interviewee are identified as being important. These factors seemed to indicate that the technique might be a suitable methodology for this research even though the sample is very specific. Interviewer bias may well be a weakness of telephone surveys and the refusal of people to talk, perhaps due to lack of trust, often leads to low response rates. The activities of some telephone marketing organisations and political parties have somewhat tainted the concept of unannounced telephone surveys in many people's minds.

The fact that the interviewer cannot be seen is sometimes a deterrent to some potential interviewees. In the case of interviews with senior executives in a corporation, as is the case with this research, the ability to reach the correct extension, whether for technical reasons or because the interviewee is being "protected" by other individuals, is also a potential problem.

Interestingly James (2001) found that telephone respondents were more likely to answer at the extremes of scales than online respondents. Perhaps because of their familiarity with the technology Roster, *et al* (2004) found that telephone respondents were older than those responding online.

In conclusion the logistics of reaching a worldwide sample, which included time and language differences, were deemed too complicated for the use of a telephone survey. Following the results of the pilot study of an online survey, which particularly revealed the requirement of many of the respondents within the survey to remain anonymous; it was also felt that the telephone survey methodology would have been inappropriate.

4.4.4 Case study

Traditionally case studies have been regarded as inappropriate for postgraduate research and particularly PhD dissertations (Adams & White, 1994, page 573) although there is some literature that suggests an opposite viewpoint (Easton, 1994; Parkhe, 1993; Tsoukas, 1989; Yin, 1993, 1994). Boing (1994) agreed with the latter attitude by singling out research areas, such as relationship marketing, a concept that has some synergy with sponsorship, as being highly suitable for a case study methodology. Yin (1994, pages 45-50) stated that postgraduate research normally necessitated the use of a number of case studies although Perry (1998) was unable to find a precise guide for an acceptable number of cases for use in any particular set of research circumstances. Romano (1989, page 36) had found that, "the literature recommending the use of case studies rarely specifies how many cases should be developed. This decision is left to the researcher". Eisenhardt (1989, page 545) said that, "While there is no ideal number of cases, a number between four and ten cases often works well. With fewer than four cases, it is often difficult to generate theory with much complexity, and its empirical grounding is likely to be unconvincing". According to Hedges (1985, pages 76 – 77) four to six case studies, "form a reasonable minimum for a serious project", with Miles and Huberman (1994, page 30) stating that using more than fifteen cases makes a study "unwieldy". Perry (1998) indicates that, "the widest accepted range seems to fall between two to four as the minimum and ten, twelve or fifteen as the maximum". Perry (1998) goes on to intimate that for a PhD thesis 35 to 50 interviews are required and that, "the PhD interviews would ideally involve about three interviews at different hierarchical levels with fifteen case study organisations".

Similar reasoning to the elimination of personal surveys led to the elimination of a case study approach as being a suitable methodology for this research. Geographic dispersal of the sample as well as the time and cost involved led to the case study methodology being excluded.

4.4.5 Online Survey

An online survey was initially thought to be an entirely appropriate survey methodology for this research, firstly, because the target sample was geographically located in Europe, North America, Australasia and the Far East. Indeed the global reach of the Internet has long been identified as a strength of online surveys (Evans & Mathur, 2005). Statistics demonstrate that Internet penetration is highest in industrialised countries and that thirty-six per cent of Internet users are native English speakers (Global Reach, 2004). The sample, being made up of representatives of high technology corporations in industrialised countries where the sport's participants largely communicate in English, appeared to boast a good potential methodological fit for an online survey.

The geographical dispersal of the sample indicated a potential delay in the receipt of responses should the more traditional methodology of a postal questionnaire be employed. In other research situations it had been found that online surveys could be administered time-efficiently thereby reducing both the time it takes to distribute a survey as well as for the return of completed data. Sheehan & McMillan (1999) found that online survey response times were consistently shorter as opposed to mail surveys. Kanaan *et al.* (1998) had found that where a sample is geographically diverse that the global reach and speed of an online survey providing real-time interaction was a distinct benefit over other research methodologies.

The low administration cost of an online survey was perceived to be a potential benefit too. Such a survey can be self-administered and the cost of postage or interviewers removed. Archer (2003) identified that the elimination of paper, postage, mail out and data entry costs were a distinct advantage of online surveys as was reduced

implementation time. Another potential saving was the potential for the collated data to be automatically downloaded into a database and then tabulated and analysed in a coordinated and integrated manner. The data entry phase of the research would therefore effectively be automated (Evans & Mathur, 2005).

Ranchhod & Zhou (2001) examined online surveys and where positive outcomes were concerned found that such a methodology encouragingly had potential in reaching specific online populations (Mehta & Sivadas, 1995; Smith, 1997; Tse, 1998) and particularly wealthy upper-class professionals (Mehta & Sivadas, 1995) and upper-to-middle class professional Internet populations (Frost, *et al.*, 1999). On the other hand negative results for online surveys included low response rates compared with conventional survey methodologies (Dommyer & Moriarty, 1999; Kent & Lee, 1999; Basi, 1999). Tse (1995) recorded a six per cent response rate as compared with a twenty-seven per cent from traditional mail surveys. Others results include one per cent response for Basi (1999) and three per cent response for Kent and Lee (1999). Ranchhod & Zhou (2001) specifically identified lack of anonymity as being a contributory factor in low response rates for online e-mail surveys. Fan and Pfitzenmaier's (2002) online research was affected because, "many companies replied that the information requested was sensitive and confidential, therefore could not be revealed...It was difficult to find enough companies to participate in the survey. All companies contacted expressed their interests in the topic, but most of them chose not to participate because of the concern for confidentiality".

On balance it was decided that an online survey would be ideal and the research moved on to the piloting of an appropriate questionnaire which would be distributed as an e-mail attachment. An e-mail attachment was used as at the time the technique of using an online questionnaire, which it is now appreciated can be anonymous, was not appreciated.

4.4.5.1 Online survey pilot study

When the pilot of an online survey was carried out to ten randomly selected individuals within the sample the response rate of usable returns was disappointingly low. One usable questionnaire was returned without problem and this was subsequently included within the sample. Two others were returned uncompleted. The first indicated that the type of questioning was inappropriate for completion by a member of a marketing department within a team. This was interesting as the questionnaire had not been sent to this person but had obviously been forwarded to them by a sponsor for completion on their behalf.

The second uncompleted questionnaire was returned from the United States where a language problem had been identified which made the questionnaire unexpectedly complicated. The respondent revealed that in the USA the word "sponsor" is most likely to be applied to the funding of a student through higher education.

An examination of an American dictionary, for example, reveals a continuing problem of the perception of the term "sponsor" in the USA. A dictionary still yields four definitions before the fifth, which is the one that comes closest to that addressed by this research:

1. *One who assumes responsibility for another person or a group during a period of instruction, apprenticeship, or probation.*
2. *One who vouches for the suitability of a candidate for admission.*
3. *A legislator who proposes and urges adoption of a bill.*
4. *One who presents a candidate for baptism or confirmation; a godparent.*
5. *One that finances a project or an event carried out by another person or group, especially a business enterprise that pays for radio or television programming in return for advertising time.*

(Source: Dictionary.com, 2005)

It was therefore decided to alter the phraseology of the questionnaire to use the word "support" rather than "sponsor".

Fig 4.2

Pilot questionnaire mast



This questionnaire is entirely confidential and no individual will be identified in any report. The information you provide, will be aggregated into a PHD study investigating sponsorship within the motor industry. The results from this research will be available in the form of an executive summary.

On investigation anecdotal evidence indicated that the individuals within the pilot sample were highly concerned about commercial confidentialities. Even though the maintenance of confidentiality was promised in the introduction to the online questionnaire, there was still an overriding element of distrust. Was this through previous experience with other surveys, where confidentiality had not been achieved, or was it thought that even an anonymous response could be tracked back to an organisation through its e-mail address? Alternatively, was the online survey being filtered out by anti-spam software before reaching the intended recipient or were attachments being avoided as potential sources of viruses? Another factor might be the increasing blocking of perceived marketing messages by a firm's mail server (Bannan, 2003, page 1).

Privacy and security has been identified as a weakness of online surveys where concerns tend to surround the integrity of Internet transmissions, especially standard e-mail messages which may be intercepted, and how data will subsequently be used (Berry, 2004). Rubin (2000) suggested much more rigour in the online survey process would increasingly be necessary as the use of the medium increased.

Bakardjieva and Feenberg (2001) have identified that successful research making use of the internet, “depends on the goodwill of the populations studied”. Berry (2004) sought out ways in which online research could be best managed, “within an ethical framework, which would allow the researcher to carry out academic research, but would avoid causing harm and distress to its subjects”. He quoted the “golden-rule” (Allen, 1996; Herring, 1996, page 44; and Thomas 1996a, b):

- Never deceive subjects
- Never knowingly put subjects at risk; and

- Maximise public and private good while minimizing harm (Thomas, 1996b, page 53).

Potentially it was a perceived fear of risk to commercial confidentiality that made some members of the population unwilling to respond. The general concern in Formula One about confidentiality is confirmed by the website of the McLaren Formula One team where there is the following statement:

“Due to the confidential nature of our business, and the deadlines involved in the production of our racing cars, we are unable to permit factory or office visits to members of the general public”.

(McLaren, 2005)

Lack of confidentiality from an online survey might be seen to put them at risk, but the fear might be that where this research project is concerned this information might be being used in a form of industrial espionage. It has been identified in the literature that such issues of privacy and confidentiality, “continue to require urgent attention in the context of online research” (Bakardjieva and Feenberg, 2001; Berry, 2004 and Sharf, 1999, page 245).

Where low response rates to online surveys are concerned the literature in fact reveals little difference to traditional methodologies according to Fricker and Schonlau (2002). They are quoted by Evans and Mathur (2005) as suggesting that online surveys “at best attain response rates equal to other modes and sometimes do worse”.

It was with some disappointment that the online survey methodology had proven to be inappropriate for this research as a result of pilot testing. The online survey methodology was therefore discounted.

4.4.6 Survey methodology conclusion

The importance of respondent anonymity had to be addressed in the eventual methodology that was to be chosen. In any case anonymity or confidentiality has generally been presumed to encourage response to mail surveys. Faria and Dickinson's (1996) research found empirical findings, though, to be mixed. They identified sixteen studies that showed that anonymity had had no significant effect on response rates whilst seven studies had shown the opposite. It was not clear, though, as to how many of these surveys were conducted in a competitive business scenario, although of significance to this research was their assertion that anonymity is more important to business populations than to the general population. Business people, they said, "may perceive some risk with regard to their job or position, especially if job-related questions are asked". Their investigation included the perceived benefits in response rate terms of reassuring their respondents more than once where anonymity was concerned. They did this twice in their mail survey and found that, "a second assurance of anonymity may add slightly to response rates".

It was therefore decided to make use of a traditional mail survey, making use of two assurances of anonymity, as it was perceived as being the methodology most suitable for the target population.

4.5 Measuring Instrument

A mail survey incorporating a self-administered questionnaire was selected as the most appropriate measuring instrument for the target population.

4.5.1 Self-administered Questionnaire

For the reasons outlined in paragraph 4.4.1 a mail survey was eventually selected as being most appropriate and a self-administered questionnaire was therefore created. (The final questionnaire may be found in 3). It was hoped that the selection of a variety of types of question and the careful presentation of the questionnaire would overcome any

potential of bias. Oppenheim (1992, page 103) had identified that with a questionnaire a "ghost interviewer" can still be present in the sense that, "the respondent may conjure up an image or a stereotype of the organisation which sent the questionnaire and of the kind of person who may be asking the questions". This may bias their answers.

4.5.2 Style and presentation of questionnaire

The introduction to the questionnaire deliberately identified the researcher as a PhD student at a university to partially remove any potential fear of the respondents of the research being used by competitors as a primitive form of industrial espionage.

The advice of Oppenheim (1992, pages 104 – 106) was followed where the presentation of the research to the proposed respondent was concerned. The envelope containing the questionnaire was of high quality, individually stamped and not franked, and attention deliberately paid to the correct addressing and titling of the respondent. The intention was to give the impression, correctly, of "professionalism" recognising that those completing the questionnaire would be in senior positions in their respective organisations. The research package therefore had to be of the appropriate quality.

An incentive was offered to respondents in the form of the opportunity to receive a copy of the Executive Summary when the research was completed. For this to happen it was necessary for respondents to reveal their identity and as a result this was entirely voluntary. Twenty-nine respondents (twenty-eight per cent of the sample) subsequently took up this offer.

Confidentiality would, of course, be compromised if the incentive were to be taken up and it was already recognised that this was potentially a barrier to the overall response rate. A specific paragraph was built in not only to the covering letter (as shown in Fig 4.3) but also to the questionnaire itself. The complete covering letter is shown in Appendix 2.

Oppenheim (1992, page 105) alerts researchers to the fact that confidentiality and anonymity are different concepts. The point is made that, "respondents who have been sampled from a list of names and addresses are clearly *not* anonymous". The questionnaire was not organised in a way that would enable identification of the respondent unless they chose to receive the Executive Summary. The disadvantage of this necessary approach was the inability to send reminders to those who had not completed the research. They simply couldn't be identified. Assurances were clearly made that confidentiality of responses would be maintained.

Fig 4.3

Covering letter detail

I am fully aware of the sensitivity of any information given and would assure you that unless you were to indicate on the questionnaire that you would like to receive an executive summary of the findings there is no way that I can match up results to any particular organisation. In any case you have both my personal assurance and that of the University that no information on specific organisations will be revealed to anyone else and that the results will be entirely couched in generalities and trends rather than specifics.

The return envelope was provided with a "Business Reply" address in an attempt to encourage responses.

4.5.3 Mast

The researcher appreciated that the mast of the questionnaire had to both remind and reassure the respondent of the use and confidentiality of the information received and this was incorporated. The researcher followed the recommendation of Van Heeren (2001, page 225) by recognising that carefully worded instructions would enhance the usefulness of the instrument in measuring what needed to be measured. Basic, yet clear, instructions were therefore included in the mast as shown in Figure 4.4.

Fig. 4.4

Completion instructions in final mast

Simply choose your answer and tick the appropriate box or write in the space provided. There is also a general comments section at the end of the questionnaire for any additional comments or suggestions you may have.

4.5.4 Sections

The questionnaire was divided into a number of sections that either helped to identify the type of sponsor with which one was dealing or addressed different steps in the investigation.

4.5.4.1 Identification of the type of sponsor

Questions one to four in the questionnaire were designed to establish what type of sponsor the respondent actually was. Question three was specifically intended to address <P1> *Motorsport sponsors use more than one sponsorship support strategy* and question four to examine <P2> *Motorsport sponsors support teams as their major strategy*. In questions three and four respondents were given the opportunity to specify additional forms of support where necessary. These questions are shown in Figure 4.5.

4.5.5 Elements of the investigation

A number of different elements of enquiry in the investigation were addressed by specific groupings of questions. These steps included sponsorship objectives, the sponsorship's target markets, sponsorship evaluation, supporting marketing and the relationship with public relations and the media objectives. The importance of image, branding and the bottom line were also investigated.

Fig. 4.5

Questions that identify the type of sponsor

Q1 Which sector of motor sport do you support?

Q2 How long have you been a supporter of motor sport?

Q3 Which of the following relationships, best describes your motor sport support?

Title Sponsor	<input type="checkbox"/>
Major Sponsor	<input type="checkbox"/>
Technical Partner	<input type="checkbox"/>
Official Supplier	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other	<input type="checkbox"/>

Please specify _____

Q4 Please rank the following type of support from 1 to 4 in order of its importance its to you, where 1 is the most important and 4 is the least important.

Team	<input type="text"/>
Event	<input type="text"/>
Driver	<input type="text"/>
Other	<input type="text"/>

Please specify _____

4.5.5.1 Sponsorship Objectives

Question five (Figure 4.6) was critical in establishing the overall motivations of the sponsor/respondent. It was deliberately separated within the questionnaire to yield more objective results. Questions five was specifically used to test <P3> *Motorsport sponsors require more than one goal from a sponsorship.* At the end of question five respondents were given the opportunity to specify other objectives not covered in the pre-determined list.

Fig 4.6

Sponsorship objectives questions

Q5 Please rank the following list from 1 to 6 in order of what you want your support to achieve, where 1 has the most priority and 6 the least priority:

Positioning	<input type="text"/>
Advertising	<input type="text"/>
Sales generation or promotion	<input type="text"/>
Indirect persuasion	<input type="text"/>
A favourable impression of your band	<input type="text"/>
Other	<input type="text"/>

Please specify _____

4.5.5.2 Target markets for sponsorship

Questions six, seven and twenty-one (Figure 4.7) were included to establish the target markets at which the sponsor/respondent was aiming. They addressed <P4> *Motorsport sponsors do not have any priority markets*. The literature had suggested a wide variety of target markets and these were investigated within these questions. Included in question six was the target market “internal public” which had been identified by Meenaghan (1991a). This is comprised of company employees, that are present in all enterprises and organisations, and for whom an internal relations programme might be created as part of a marketing communications process. At the conclusion of question five and seven respondents were given the opportunity to specify any target markets not identified on the pre-determined list.

4.5.5.3 Sponsorship Evaluation

The literature indicated that sponsors were not always evaluating the effects of their sponsorship. Questions eight to sixteen (Figure 4.8) were included to try to establish whether in motorsport this was the case or not. Question 8 specifically addressed <P5> *Motorsport sponsors evaluate the effects of their sponsorship overall*. If evaluation were taking place then the intention was to establish how detailed this actually was. Following the evaluation theme, questions nine, nineteen and twenty-four address <P6> *Media coverage is important to motorsport sponsors*. Question ten delves into <P7> *The print media is measured in a variety of ways by motorsport sponsors*, and question eleven examines <P8> *The TV broadcast media is measured in a variety of ways by motorsport sponsors*. Question twelve will be used to investigate <P9> *The wireless media is measured in a variety of ways by motorsport sponsors*, and questions thirteen and fourteen embrace <P10> *Motorsport sponsors measure sponsorship success by specific indicators*.

Fig 4.7

Target market questions

Q6 Please rank the following markets from to 1 to 5 in order of who you wish to influence, where 1 is the market you most wish to influence and 5 is the least:

Internal Public	<input type="text"/>
Key decision-makers	<input type="text"/>
Specific target markets	<input type="text"/>
Business to Business	<input type="text"/>
Other	<input type="text"/>
Please specify	_____

Q7 Please indicate which of the following you classify as your target market(s)?

Product consumers	<input type="checkbox"/>
Company staff	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sales force	<input type="checkbox"/>
Shareholders	<input type="checkbox"/>
Distributors and retailers	<input type="checkbox"/>
Suppliers	<input type="checkbox"/>
Financial institutions	<input type="checkbox"/>
Industry and government decision-makers	<input type="checkbox"/>
Media	<input type="checkbox"/>
Leisure Groups	<input type="checkbox"/>
Local Community	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other	<input type="checkbox"/>
Please specify	_____

Q21 Where your support is concerned how important is the 'Audience'?

	Very Important	Important	Neither important nor unimportant	Unimportant	Very unimportant
Entertaining clients	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Improving staff relations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Reach highly targeted audience	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Goodwill amongst opinion formers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Reassure shareholders	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Aid staff relations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Assist staff recruitment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Provide unique hospitality environment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Improve trade relations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Identify with lifestyle audience	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

<P11> *Motorsport support is measured by its impact on upon sales*, is specifically examined by the responses to questions fifteen and twenty-three (Figure 4.14).

Where questions ten, eleven, twelve and fifteen the respondents were given the opportunity to specify further details of evaluation measures if they had not been covered in the pre-determined list.

Fig 4.8
Evaluation Questions

Q8 Do you evaluate your support?
Yes
No Please go to Q17

Q9 Do you measure the level of media coverage and exposure that your support receives?
Yes Please go to Q13
No Please go to Q20

Q10 Please tick which of the following print media measurements you use?

National media

Specialist press

Total impressions

Extent of news coverage

Media audience by size and composition ..

Number of logo exposures.....

Clear sightings of logo.....

Other

Please specify _____

Q11 Please tick which of the following television broadcast media measurements you use?

Duration of TV coverage

Verbal mentions

Visual mentions.....

Total TV exposure generated

Extent of news coverage.....

Media audience by size and composition ..

Number of logo exposures.....

Clear sightings of logo.....

Other

Please specify _____

Q12 Please tick which of the following wireless media measurements you use?

Duration of radio mentions

Extent of news coverage.....

Radio promotions

Media audience by size and composition ..

Other

Please specify _____

Q13 Please tick which of the following you measure?

Brand liking or positive brand associations

Communication effectiveness

Sales effectiveness

Guest feedback.....

Cost-benefit analysis.....

Q14 Which of the following do you measure for: your company or brand?

Exposure

Attention

Cognition

Behaviour

Visibility

Persuasive impact.....

Awareness

Image creation for brand or company

Impact

Impact recall.....

Familiarity.....

Favourability.....

Q15 Please state where you measure your support success?

Message Channel

Consumer Reception

Consumer's Sales Purchases.....

Other

Please state _____

Q16 Do you have a bench marking / tracking programme to measure.....

.....the correct identification of sponsorship with event / team

.....perception of brand relative to competition.....

.....perception of attributes associated with the brand

4.5.5.4 Complementary marketing

Question seventeen (Figure 4.9) was intended to establish the complementary marketing tactics, if any, being used by the sponsor/respondent to support their sponsorship. This question addresses <P12> *Motorsport sponsors complement their support in a number of ways.*

Fig 4.9

Support marketing questions

Q17 Which if any of the following do you use to complement your support.

Billboards	<input type="checkbox"/>
Signs	<input type="checkbox"/>
Press Releases	<input type="checkbox"/>
Advertising	<input type="checkbox"/>
Hospitality	<input type="checkbox"/>

4.5.5.5 Sponsorship’s relationship with public relations

The usage of sponsorship in parallel with other elements of the marketing mix needed to be the subject of investigation. The first of these elements revealed from the literature was Public Relations which was addressed in question eighteen (Figure 4.10). This question also answers <P13> *Public relations is important to motorsport sponsors.*

Fig 4.10

Public Relations questions

Q18 Where your support is concerned how important is 'Public Relations'?

	Very Important	Important	Neither important nor unimportant	Unimportant	Very unimportant
Public relations overall	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Community involvement	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Public awareness	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Public perception	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Counter adverse publicity	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Enhance commitment to community	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

4.5.5.6 Sponsorship’s relationship with the media

The literature established that targeting the media seemed to be a major objective of motorsport sponsorship and whether or not this was the case was addressed by question nineteen (Figure 4.11). This question is intended to provide further evidence for <P6> *Media coverage is important to motorsport sponsors.*

Fig 4.11
Media questions

Q19 Where your support is concerned how important is the 'Media'?

	Very Important	Important	Neither important nor unimportant	Unimportant	Very unimportant
Press or TV coverage	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Favourable publicity from association	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Identity with market segment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Facilitate prospecting salesmen	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Consumer awareness	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Differentiate product	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Facilitate business to business marketing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

4.5.5.7 The importance of image

The literature provided a number of assertions regarding the projection or enhancement of the sponsor/respondents image by the use of sponsorship. Question twenty (Figure 4.12) was aimed at establishing the truth, or otherwise, of such suggestions where motorsport is concerned. It will also provide an answer to <P14> *Image is important to motorsport sponsors.*

Fig 4.12
Image questions

Q20 Where your support is concerned how important is 'Image'?

	Very Important	Important	Neither important nor unimportant	Unimportant	Very unimportant
Enhancing company image	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Provide central focus for multi-discipline marketing and communications campaign	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Generate image benefits in the media	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Increase 'Top of Mind' awareness	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Image change	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

4.5.5.8 The importance of the audience

The literature provided a number of alternative audiences at which a sponsorship might be targeted. Question twenty-one (Figure 4.13) was aimed at establishing the reality, or otherwise, of such suggestions where motorsport sponsors are concerned, whilst also addressing <P15> *The audience is important to motorsport stakeholders.*

Fig 4.13
Audience questions

Q21 Where your support is concerned how important is the 'Audience'?

	Very Important	Important	Neither important nor unimportant	Unimportant	Very unimportant
Entertaining clients	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Improving staff relations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Reach highly targeted audience	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Goodwill amongst opinion formers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Reassure shareholders	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Aid staff relations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Assist staff recruitment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Provide unique hospitality environment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Improve trade relations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Identify with lifestyle audience	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

4.5.5.9 Sponsorship and branding

Some selective marketing concepts / objectives of sponsorship, as revealed from the literature, especially where branding is concerned, were investigated through the use of question twenty-two (Figure 4.14) to establish the reality within motorsport. This will address <P16> *Branding is important top motorsport sponsors.*

Fig 4.14
Branding questions

Q22 Where your sponsorship is concerned how important is 'Marketing'?

	Very Important	Important	Neither important nor unimportant	Unimportant	Very unimportant
Specific brand promotion	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Market positioning for company or brand	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Increase company or brand awareness	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Place brand amongst "leaders"	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

4.5.5.10 The importance of the Bottom Line

The researcher was convinced from the outset that the sums of money involved in motorsport sponsorship had to be justified somewhere, especially when one remembered the old adage of Milton Friedman that, “there’s no such thing as a free lunch” (Figure 4.15). The suspicion was that, in a climate of increased corporate governance, sponsorship needed to be justified through sales of products or services, and questions fifteen (Figure 4.8) and twenty-three were deliberately inserted into the questionnaire to see whether this was the case or not. These questions are intended to address <P17> *Increased revenue is important to motorsport sponsors.*

Fig 4.15

Bottom Line questions

Q23 Where your support is concerned how important is the 'Bottom Line'?

	Very important	Important	Neither important nor unimportant	Unimportant	Very unimportant
Increase company sales	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Provide merchandising opportunities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Impact bottom line	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

4.5.5.11 Open ended question

Question twenty-five (Figure 4.16) was included to record any comments that the sponsor/respondent felt helpful in further contributing to the research. Respondents were offered the opportunity to add information at this stage.

Fig 4.16

Open ended question

4.5.6 Statistical treatment

Statistical data-analyses of the responses to the questionnaires were performed and frequencies and means calculated. Underlying trends were identified and analysed. These data analyses aided the researcher's aim to substantiate the perceived models of sponsorship in motorsport of both the two-wheeled and four-wheeled varieties. A statistical data-analysis of the questionnaire was performed. Underlying trends were analysed which were then discussed in chapter 5. The significance of the findings was set at the customary level of $p < 0.05$ (Emory & Cooper, 1991). This analysis helped the researcher to substantiate the aims and objectives of the research as well as the propositions and hypotheses.

The statistical tests that were identified as being appropriate were:

- Chi-Square. This statistical test is typically used with nominal (frequency) data where subjects are assigned to categories or to put it another way it is typically used to examine differences with categorical variables. The chi-square test is commonly used in two types of circumstance. Firstly, for estimating how closely an observed distribution matches an expected distribution (goodness-of-fit test) and secondly for estimating whether two random variables are independent. Pearson's chi-square test in particular is used to test the hypothesis of no association of columns and rows in data. Significance may be established where the relationship is strong.
- Mann-Whitney. This was selected as it is a nonparametric test that is able to compare two unpaired groups. It enables the comparison of the scores on a specified variable of the two independent groups and was seen as particularly applicable to analysis and comparison of the two types of sponsor.
- Factor analysis. Factor analysis was tried as the intended function of this technique is to simplify complex sets of data by analysing the correlations between them (Foster, 1998, page 206). It was deemed appropriate as it can be

used to analyze interrelationships among a large number of variables, such as those in this sample, and to explain these variables in terms of their common underlying dimensions (factors) (Hair *et al.*, 1992). It identifies clusters of related variables

- Binary logistic regression. This test is a generalized statistical linear model which was used in the hope that it would predict any discrete outcomes, such as group membership, from the sets of mixed variables. As the variables were categorical, logistic regression was identified as the preferred test. In particular the Hosmer-Lemshow version, which evaluates the goodness-of-fit, was felt appropriate. This test produces a chi-square statistic with a desirable outcome of non-significance, indicating that the model prediction does not significantly differ from the observed. Binary Logistic Regression was applied to the outcome variables of car or bike sponsor in Q1 with several sets of predictor variables allied to specific propositions.

4.6 Research Limitations

4.6.1 Question 3

Having addressed the confusion in the USA over the meaning of sponsorship (Section 4.4.5.1) the word sponsor was used twice amongst the alternative answers offered in Question 3. It was felt that the fact that the main question contained the word “support” that any resulting confusion would in practice have been minimal but it has to be acknowledged.

4.6.2 Question 24

In attempting to address <P9>, Question 24 contained a number of elements asking respondents to rank the importance of media related coverage to them as motorsport

sponsors against random sponsorship objectives such as "corporate image", "target audience", "company or product awareness", name recognition" and "name awareness".

With hindsight the difficulty found with Question 24 was that it didn't compare like with like. For example, "corporate image", "name recognition" and "name awareness" might well be the key objectives for the sponsor, who would then use a variety of marketing communications methodologies to achieve these aims, including the media. Media objectives such as "TV coverage", "press coverage" and "media coverage" would only be used as one element for leveraging the main objectives. Other leveraging techniques could be used in tandem too, such as hospitality and networking, in addition to the media. It is therefore felt that Question 24 may provide ambiguous data.

4.6.3. Data limitations

Although the results of the primary research are felt to be robust it was felt that the quantity of data available for testing from the sample was on occasions a potential limitation. The outcomes of some statistical tests, such as chi-square, are much improved if the both the sample size and the number of values of the two associated variables is large. Because the sample was relatively small, although it could be described as the population, and the two major variables of car sponsors and bike sponsors, were unevenly matched some statistical approaches were either limited or denied. Also not all questions had been answered by all respondents making analysis difficult where dichotomous samples were needed for comparison.

5.0 - PRIMARY RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

Chapter 4 outlined and discussed the research methodology. In this chapter the results obtained from the research instrument are outlined and the various propositions tested against the data. Discussion and analysis of the findings is undertaken and conclusions reached.

5.2 Sample

As the number of companies involved in sponsorship is small, it has been possible to study all of them in this research. This poses a dilemma in the analysis of the quantitative data: there can be no statistical inference from this sample to the population, as this sample *is* the population. This chapter therefore, provides an analysis of what was found; if, for example, groups differ in the sample on some variable, then they must differ in the population without need of further demonstration.

This strictly logical position creates a difficulty in assessing the size and substantiveness of any effects observed, as this assessment would usually be approached via an inferential route; and in this case is made more difficult still by the restrictions imposed by non-parametric variables. It was still possible, though, to analyze and report on the characteristics of the population. It will therefore be assumed, just for the purpose of taking this aspect of the analysis forward, that the data analysed here is a sample from a *hypothetical* population.

5.2.1 Effective methodology

The response rate for the survey was so good that as explained above to all intents and purposes it comprises the population. It was calculated that overall there were 100 sponsors to be targeted between F1 and MotoGP and to receive 98 valid replies was better than could have been expected. Access to published lists in the public domain

of the members of the population (Gregoire 24a and 24b) is unusual if not unique and it did enable the necessary and all-important decision makers to be readily identified. This should be seen as critical to the eventual result. The published lists revealed the names and contact details of key decision-makers with precise titles such as marketing manager, business manager, sponsorship manager or sponsorship co-ordinator. Where identifiable the individual with one of the last two titles was preferentially selected in anticipation of their specific knowledge of marketing communications.

The response rate proved that the methodology, and specifically the research instrument, was appropriate and trusted by the recipients. The results should therefore be regarded as both valid and reliable. This is particularly relevant following the previous lack of response to the online methodology which was found to have been mistrusted.

Whilst the questionnaire could be completed anonymously a third of the recipients requested in return for their efforts an executive summary once the research had been completed. This too reflects the interest in the research and the confidence in the methodology.

5.3 Motorsport sponsors use more than one sponsorship strategy

The literature reveals a number of potential types of sponsorship that are available to motorsport sponsors (Head, 1988). The type of sponsorship eventually selected depends on not only the nature of the sponsor but also the perceived objectives behind their sponsorship (McLuhan, 1964; Meenaghan & Shipley, 1999; Quester & Farrelly, 1998; Speed & Thompson, 2000). If, for example, the aim is to create a presence in front of a global television audience then a title or major sponsorship might be most applicable. If, on the other hand, the aim is to show how one's motor-orientated products perform in the technologically challenging world of motorsport then being a technical partner or official supplier might be more suitable. Another constraint is the finance available to the sponsor because being a title sponsor, and thereby gaining most of the branding presence on the competition vehicle and the associated team, will generally be more expensive than being an official supplier.

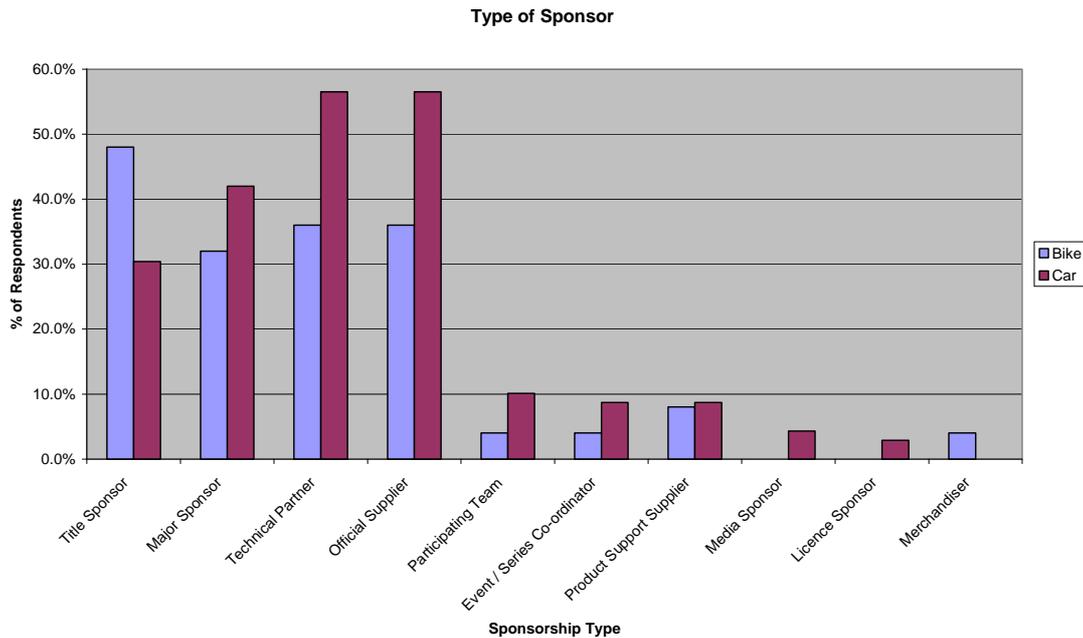
The respondents were asked to indicate the relationship which best described their organisation’s motorsport support. Should the types of sponsorship provided prove inappropriate the sample was encouraged, under the heading of “other”, to identify a more appropriate terminology. In practice the majority of the sample self-identified themselves as being either “participating team, event/series coordinator, product support supplier, media sponsor, license sponsor or merchandiser”.

The results are shown in Figure 5.1 which on the surface appears to have divided itself into two categories as the first four prompted responses (title sponsorship, major sponsorship, technical partnership and official supplier) are clearly the most popular of support strategies. Amongst the unprompted “other” responses to Q4 there is no noteworthy difference between bike and car sponsors where “product support supplier” is concerned.

5.4 Motorsport sponsors support teams as their major strategy.

The literature identifies that the primary sponsorship platforms on offer to motorsport sponsors include the backing of “teams”, “drivers” and “events” (Andrews & Tucker, 1996; Bennett, R, 1999; Henry, 1991; Holbrook, 2002; Macknight, 1993; Mason, 1992; Thomas, 1995; Walker, 1995). The respondents were asked to rank these in their order of importance with an additional “other” category allowing for extra alternatives.

Fig 5.1



“Team” sponsorship is of most importance to the sample (Figure 5.2). More than fifty per cent (50.6%) of the sample ranked team sponsorship as being “most important” with bike sponsors recording 60.9% and car sponsors 46.9%.

“Driver” sponsorship is ranked as the second most important sponsorship option for 47.6% of bike sponsors and 43.1% of car sponsors. If driver sponsorship is therefore selected on the basis of the concept of “celebrity endorsement” (Agrawal & Kamakura, 1995; Erdogan, 2001) then this is only important to less than half of motorsport sponsors. The nonparametric Mann-Whitney results (Table 5.1) compare the scores of the two unpaired groups and demonstrating a difference between bike and car sponsors. This may be explained by the fact a bike rider is much more visible with his clothing becoming an intrinsic part of the branding process. One could argue that due to the plethora of sponsorship badges worn by both drivers and riders on their competition clothing that the effect should be identical. The difference is that whilst actually competing the bike rider is entirely out in the open and visible whereas the driver is largely cocooned within the vehicle.

Fig. 5.2

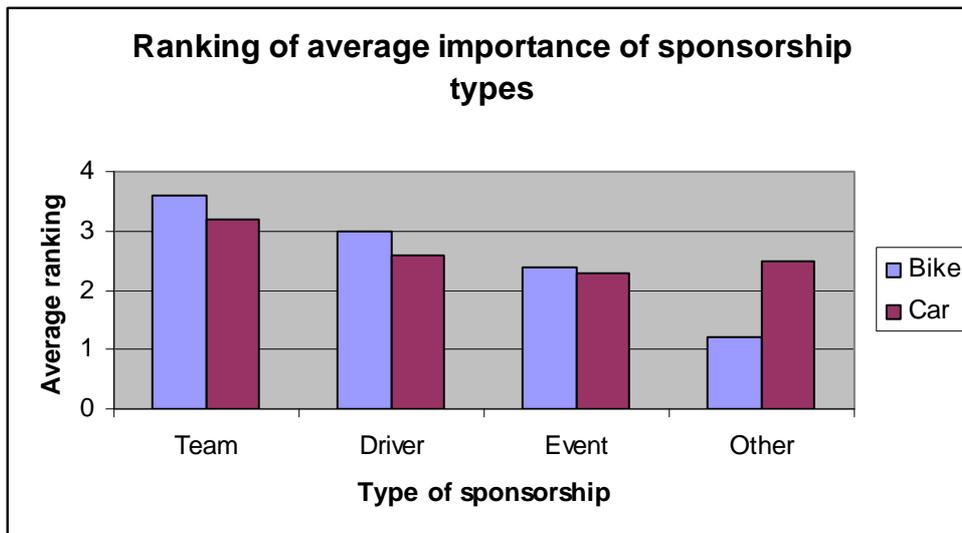


Table 5.1
Comparative importance of Driver sponsorship

	Driver
Mann-Whitney U	439.000
p. (2-tailed)	.036

(Grouping Variable: Which sector of motorsport do you support?)

The sample ranked “Event” sponsorship in third place with a score of 47.1%. The comparative figures for bike sponsors is 61.9% and for car sponsors 42.2%. In both cases the option of event sponsorship is ranked third in their order of importance.

”Other sponsorships” ranked as being of least importance to bike sponsors whilst car sponsors give them twice as much importance. This difference between the two types of motorsport sponsor is signified by a significant Mann-Whitney result (Table 5.2). The options that were selected under the “other” heading included championships which were variously described as leagues or series.

Table 5.2
Comparative importance of Other sponsorships

	Other
Mann-Whitney U	117.000
p. (2-tailed)	.015

(Grouping Variable: Which sector of motorsport do you support?)

It is felt that a reason for the difference between the types of sponsor is that the harnessing of sponsorship is more mature amongst those who sponsor cars. This assumption is supported by the fact that at the respective pinnacles F1 car sponsorship has been recognised and leveraged for longer than MotoGP. The history shows that Bernie Ecclestone started to influence F1 commercially in 1978 whilst MotoGP is still catching up having started to take a similar stance with Dorna in 1992 – a minimum gap of 14 years. That extra time has given the long-term sponsors as well as the agencies and teams in four-wheeled motorsport the opportunity to investigate a wide variety of extra leveraging opportunities for their commercial sponsorships.

The results support proposition <P2> by showing that for both bike and car sponsors team sponsorship is clearly of most importance. In looking for reasons for this if total exposure of a product or brand is of such consequence to the sponsor then the team, unlike the driver is guaranteed to appear in all the races during a typical eight month season. In practice contractual agreements with the series’ promoters require this. It is not necessarily the case for a driver who, due to possible changes as a result of release from contract or possible injury, might not appear at every race. Event sponsors, on the other hand, normally only have a single opportunity to get their message across at a single race meeting at one location albeit over a short period of days.

Proposition <P2> is supported by the results with team sponsorship being rated slightly more importantly amongst bike sponsors than car sponsors as shown in Figure 5.2 where a commonality of approach to the various types of sponsorship is illustrated.

5.5 Motorsport sponsors require more than one goal from a sponsorship

The role of sponsorship as an element of marketing communications is addressed in the literature (Crane, 1972; Crompton, 1996; Lagae, 2005; Meenaghan, 1983, 1998; Scotwin, 1995; Stanley, 1977; Webster, 1980). The legitimacy of sponsorship as being part of the marketing communications mix is supported in the literature by Adcock, *et al*, (1995), Dibb, *et al*, (1994), Siegel (1996), Tripodi, (2001) and Wilmshurst, (1995). A number of perceived common sponsorship aims or goals were then taken from the literature and used to test <P3>.

The respondents were asked to rank the goals required from their sponsorships. The results referring to “positioning” demonstrated that this has a high priority amongst the sample in general and when average ranking is taken into account it is given the most importance by both bike and car sponsors (Figure 5.3). This supported Crompton’s research findings (1996).

“Advertising” is a slightly lower priority when the average rankings are taken into account. It is the fourth priority across sponsors from the whole sample. For sponsors in general “sales generation or promotion” is a priority. When average rankings are taken into account for bike sponsors “sales generation or promotion” in fact tied for most priority with “positioning” and “favourable impression of brand”. Here is a clear indication that sponsors require more than one goal from a sponsorship.

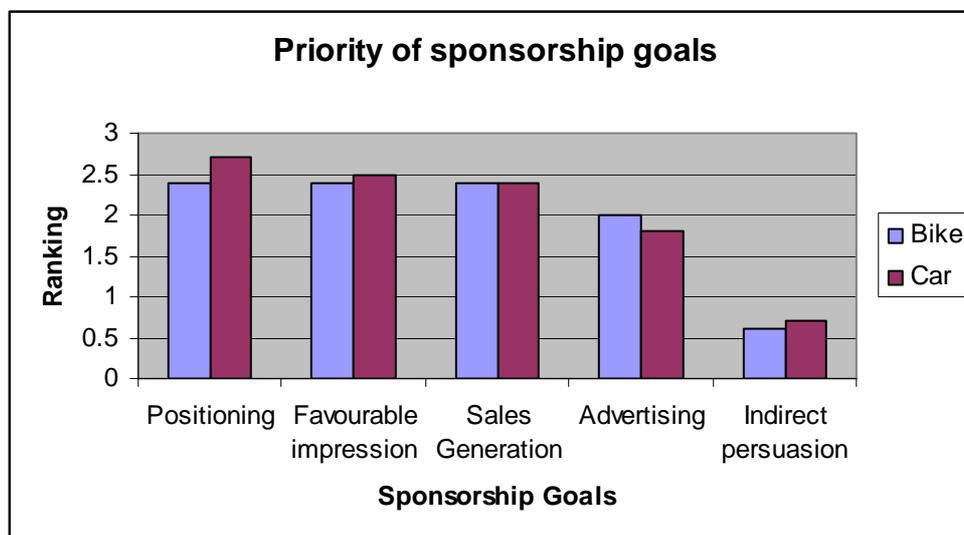
The sponsorship concept of harnessing “indirect persuasion” is a surprisingly low priority. In practice when average rankings are taken into account this is the lowest priority for both bike and car sponsors. The creation of “a favourable impression of your brand” as a sponsorship goal is one of the top priorities for bike sponsors whilst being the second priority for car sponsors.

In response to the “other” element a variety of individual suggestions were offered as sponsorship goals. These included technology transfer, technical feedback, informal relationship building with clients, analysts and media, generating new business, brand exposure, marketing, employee programmes, raising awareness and improving the image of the company. The variety of suggestions supports <P3>.

Figure 5.3 illustrates the similarity overall in the sponsorship goals required by both car and bike sponsors. A common model is evident. There is very little difference in approach between the two types of sponsor, particularly when average rankings are taken into account.

The evidence from the respondents supports <P3> as the goals required by sponsors are various. Those identified goals are regarded in a very similar way by both the car and bike sponsors. “Positioning” of a sponsor’s product or brand and the “creation of a favourable impression” are revealed to be of most importance.

Figure 5.3



5.6 Motorsport sponsors do not have any priority markets

To investigate <P4> a number of potential markets or audiences that sponsors might wish to influence, that had been identified in the literature by previous researchers (Karmer 1996; Meenaghan, 1991a; Sleight, 1989), were specifically tested. These markets were “internal public”, “key decision-makers”, “specific target markets” and “business-to-business” with the option provided for respondents to individually record any other specific target markets.

Unfortunately for the statistical analysis cell sizes were too small but there was a strong likelihood of significance. In the case of the Mann Whitney test the “Internal

Public” (Table 5.3) and “Other” (Table 5.4) markets revealed differences between bike and car sponsors.

Table 5.3
Comparative importance of the Internal Public target market

	Internal public
Mann-Whitney U	489.500
p. (2-tailed)	.011

(Not corrected for ties; Grouping Variable: Which sector of motorsport do you support?)

Brooks (1994) defined an “internal public” as volunteers, employees, suppliers, athletes and spectators who are associated with manufacturing, distribution and consumption of the sport itself. Bearing this in mind the results show that it is twice as important to bike sponsors to influence the “internal public” than to car sponsors. The “internal public” had been said by Meenaghan (1991a) to be a very important potential audience for sponsorship generated communication in general. Quite why this result should be achieved is a mystery but it may point to bike manufacturers, for example, being smaller and more personalised and intimate organisations in contrast to their car equivalents. This finding needs further investigation as suggested in Chapter 6.

Table 5.4
Comparative importance of Other target markets

	Other
Mann-Whitney U	50.000
p. (2-tailed)	.008

(Not corrected for ties; Grouping Variable: Which sector of motorsport do you support?)

Where the “other” target market option is concerned the suggestion is made that for some sponsors general consumers overall are of importance as well as business clients and prospects, global customers and media outlets. Car sponsors, in practice, rated the importance of influencing “other markets” five times more highly than bike sponsors.

This is felt again to illustrate the relative immaturity of the concept of bike sponsorship.

"Key decision makers" are those that a sponsor has identified as being potentially most beneficial where attitudes towards their brands, particularly with regard to sales, are concerned. Key decision makers might, for example, be the limited number of business contacts that F1 sponsor Danka targeted in order to make them more aware of their company (Bagot, 1997). The responses revealed that "key decision makers" are a priority market for all motorsport sponsors with the overall comparison between car and bike sponsors being broadly similar. Where "most influence" is concerned bike sponsors identify key decision makers as being 6.3% more important than do car sponsors.

All motorsport sponsors want to influence "specific target markets" confirming the findings of Meenaghan (1991a). Where most influence is concerned 68.2% of bike sponsors singled this ambition out, being a substantial 26.5% ahead of car sponsors. The reason that this response is so much higher for bike sponsors is unclear. Experience and anecdotal evidence shows that not only do the majority of spectators (a specific target market) for motor bike racing events arrive by bike – thereby demonstrating a great synergy with the machines being raced - but that the level of personal involvement of bike spectators appears more intense. This is possibly because racing bikes are much more similar in profile to road bikes. This certainly cannot be said of single-seater racing cars, although Touring Cars and Rally cars do benefit from this attribute. In terms of the academic indicators more emotional involvement is being shown which in itself will generate specific feelings of goodwill for sponsors. The overall trend, though, is for "specific target markets" to be a key aim of sponsorship in motorsport.

"Business-to-business" relationship marketing was identified by Karmer (1996) as a key aim of motorsport sponsorship. The associated concept of networking too is particularly addressed in the literature review (Meenaghan, 1998; Hoek, 1998; Aimis *et al*, 1999; Mason, 1999). The research results indicate the relative unimportance of this to motorsport sponsors in the sample. Most striking of all is that not one bike sponsor regarded business-to-business markets as being important enough to identify as most influential. Overall business-to-business markets appear to be of little consequence to most motorsport sponsors which is a mystery. It suggests that a major potential usage of motorsport sponsorship is being missed by the majority of the sample. For example, the opportunity for a fuel or tyre sponsor to negotiate to supply

its products as standard for every new road going vehicle produced by a co-sponsor motor manufacturer is being missing. The classic example of this was Texaco negotiating to provide Jaguar passenger cars with their “first fill” when that Ford owned motor manufacturer brand was in F1.

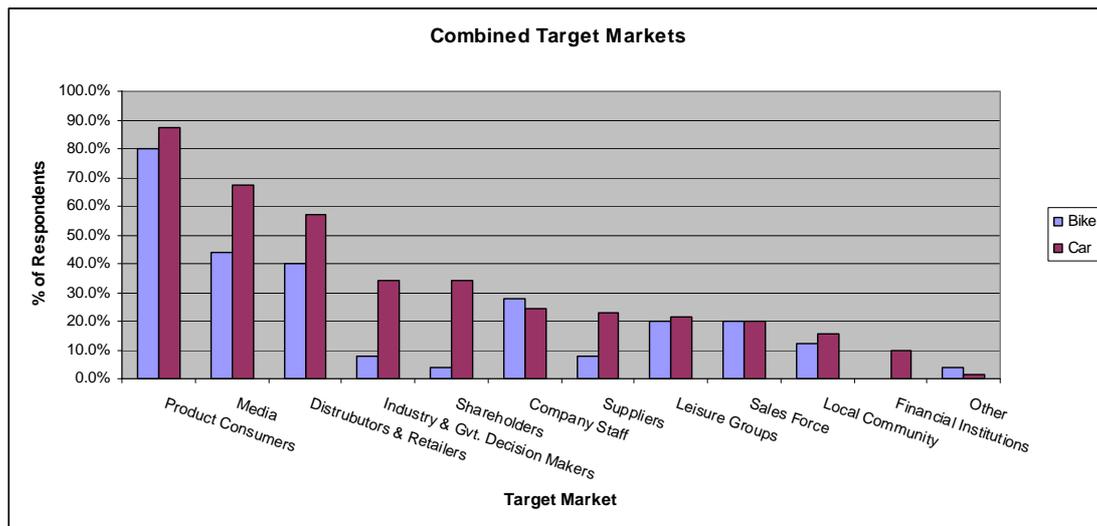
Just over half (54.5%) of car sponsors have “other” markets that they wanted to influence. This is 44.5% above the 10% of bike sponsors. 80% of bike sponsors thought that this to be of least influence. This may indicate that the options offered are unintentionally more attuned to the attitudes of bike sponsors as opposed to car sponsors.

The respondents in the sample reveal the other markets they want to influence (Table 5.5). The list of potential markets offered was not exhaustive, particularly as far as car sponsors are concerned, judging by the number who responded “other”. It was also of some surprise to see that bike sponsors completely ignored the “business-to-business” concept. Again a possible lack of maturity in the handling of sponsorship is revealed here.

Table 5.5
Other markets to influence

Bike Sponsor	General Consumers (Lubricants)
Car Sponsors	Business Clients / Prospects (Engineering / IT Solutions) General Consumers (Lubricants) General Consumer (Tyres) Global Customers (Engineering / IT Solutions) Media (Auto Manufacturer) Media (Tools) Public (Auto Manufacturer).

Fig 5.4



When the car and bike data is compared (Fig 5.4) a similarity in attitudes between the sponsors of the two sectors of motorsport became evident. Statistically the results for both bike and car sponsors where the “sales force” as a target market is concerned, are exactly the same producing a commonality of approach.

It is clear that “product consumers” are the most important target market for both types of sponsor, with car sponsors recording 87.1% and bike sponsors 80%. The second most important market is the “media” at 67.1% (car) and 44% (bike) respectively. At this point the overall lower importance of target markets to bike sponsors is evident. The difference of 23.1% in media approach is largely maintained in the responses to the other options. The third most important market for both types of sponsors is “distributors and retailers” indicating a perceived importance where product sales are concerned which could be suggested by the synergy with “product consumers” as the first option.

It is interesting that “financial institutions” are the least important of markets to both types of sponsor, with cars recording 7% importance and bikes only 10%. One would have thought that with the necessity for finance in what is a very expensive sport that there would be a higher perception of the need to involve this particular market sector. Indeed, HSBC, Ing, Royal Bank of Scotland, Spain's Banco Santander (Abbey) and the Russian SMP Bank have all been in F1 as sponsors themselves so there is good evidence that the platform is relevant. If in the domestic situation it is

sometimes worth taking one’s bank manager out to lunch at the corporate level the same logic must surely apply.

Where differences between the two sectors are concerned “shareholders” stand out in the Ch-Square test (Chi-Square 7.222, d.f. 1, significance = .007) as well as the Mann-Whitney result (Table 5.6).

Table 5.6
Comparative importance of Shareholders as a target market

	Shareholders
Mann-Whitney U	610.000
p. (2-tailed)	.003

(Grouping Variable: Which sector of motorsport do you support?)

“Shareholders” are only of importance as a target for motorsport sponsorship to 4% of bike sponsors whereas they are 30.3% more important to car sponsors at 34.3%. Shareholders are after all those who are expecting a return from their investment and that so few bike sponsors should be concerned in targeting this market is a complete surprise. It does indicate an apparent naivety in not contemplating keeping happy those who bankroll the business.

The Mann-Whitney tests also identified significant differences between the attitudes towards both “industry and government decision makers” (Table 5.7) and “the media” (Table 5.8) by both bike and car sponsors.

Table 5.7
Comparative importance of Industry and Government decision makers as a target market

	Industry and government decision makers
Mann-Whitney U	645.000
p. (2-tailed)	.012

(Grouping Variable: Which sector of motorsport do you support?)

In the case of “industry and government decision makers” the difference is 22% between bike (8%) and car sponsors (34.3%). This is perhaps explained by the fact that cars are seen as more of an effect on congestion and man-made global warming than bikes and that therefore there is less perceived need to court those who might be interested in these associated problems.

Table 5.8
Comparative importance of the Media as a target market

	Media
Mann-Whitney U	672.500
p. (2-tailed)	.043

(Grouping Variable: Which sector of motorsport do you support?)

The “media” is clearly a great target market for car sponsors as 67.1% regard it as important whilst for bikes the figure is 44%, a difference of 23.1%. Whilst the gap is narrower this may be an effect of the limited media coverage and consequential interest in bike racing as opposed to car racing. Here is a chicken and egg type situation. If bike racing were to become more popular, the coverage would increase as the potential of audience figures to all areas of the media would be recognised. Conversely the popularity of bike racing might only be increased on the back of an initial media push. In any particular country this might largely depend on the equivalent of a local “Lewis Hamilton effect” as described in Chapter 3.

The overall results indicate a common model for both car and bike sponsors even though the latter sector’s percentage totals (Fig 5.4) are consistently lower across the range of options.

In summary, it is clear that motorsport sponsors do have a number of priority markets at which their sponsorship is aimed. The responses (Figure 5.4) go further by indicating that “product consumers” are the main target for motorsport sponsorship followed by the “media” and then “distributors and retailers” where both car and bike sponsors are concerned. Although bike sponsor responses consistently lagged behind slightly in percentage terms, possibly explained by a relative immaturity where the business application of sponsorship is concerned, there is a clear commonality of thought.

In addressing <P4> motorsport sponsors of both cars and bikes do have a number of common priority markets and trends which the research has identified.

5.7 Motorsport sponsors evaluate the effects of their sponsorship

A number of research findings in the literature suggest that some sponsors do not evaluate the effects of their sponsorships. Historically this was postulated by a number of researchers (Bolger, 1984; Marshall, 1991; Waite, 1979; Witcher, *et al*, 1991) but the allegation continues to reoccur in more recent research (Mullin *et al*, 2000; Holbrook, 2002; Kolah, 2003; Lagae, 2005).

<P5> is supported by the research results that establish that 83.7% of motorsport sponsors overall do evaluate their sponsorships. There is, though a difference of attitude between bike and car sponsors as illustrated by both Chi-square (chi-square value 4.593, d.f. = 1, significance = 0.32) and Mann-Whitney tests (Table 5.9). Both demonstrate that car and bike sponsors behave significantly differently.

Table 5.9
Comparative importance of the Evaluation of Support

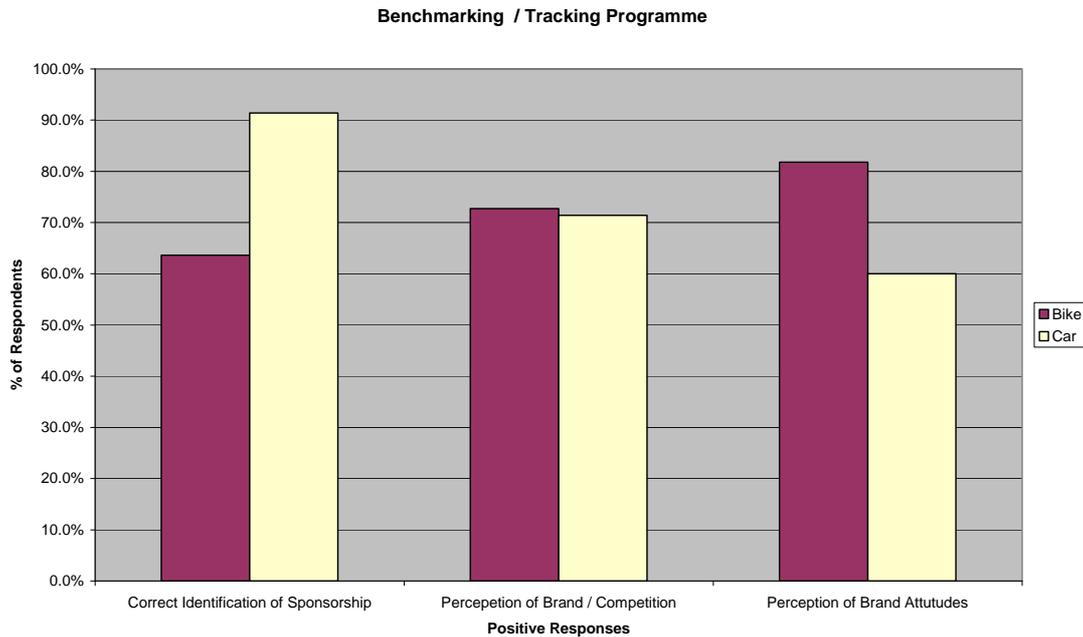
	Do you evaluate your support
Mann-Whitney U	720.500
p. (2-tailed)	.015

(Grouping Variable: Which sector of motorsport do you support?)

The research reveals that 89% of car sponsors do evaluate their support for motorsport but that only 68% of bike sponsors do similarly. This difference in approach between the two types of sponsor of 21% is significant. It is, though, difficult to establish whether this indicates arrogance or a naivety towards the business side of the funding of bike racing.

Muir's (1996) assertion that the identification of a successful sponsorship required a "benchmarking" and "tracking" programme was investigated next using three of that researcher's variables (Figure 5.5.).

Fig 5.5



The outcome is that the majority of both bike and car sponsors do make use of a benchmarking and tracking programme for their sponsorships. Car sponsors reveal that “correct identification of the sponsorship” (91.4%) is more important to them than both the “perception of their brand / competition” (71.4%) and the “perception of brand awareness” (60%). Conversely bike sponsors felt the opposite with “perception of brand awareness” being most important (81.8%) followed by “perception of the brand / competition” (72.7%) and “correct identification of the sponsorship” last (63.6%). The Chi-Square test emphasises the significantly similar approach of both types of sponsor to their need to measure the perception of their brand relative to that of the competition.

The majority of motorsport sponsors clearly do evaluate their sponsorships and in doing so operate benchmarking and tracking programmes. There is not the apathy towards effectiveness measurement as suggested by Holbrook (2002, page 14).

5.8 Media coverage is important to motor sponsors

The literature identifies media coverage as being a key element of sports sponsorship (Crowley, 1991; McElhatton, 1995; Meenaghan, 1983 & 1991a; Mintel, 2002; Otker, 1988; Thwaites *et al*, 1992; Waite, 1979). Henry *et al* (2007, page 11) specifically stated that where global motorsport is concerned, “*the financial relationship between levels of sponsorship and viewing audiences is a key business driver*”. Indeed Switzer (2007) too makes the point that:

“Sponsors are pulled in to Formula One by its particular ability to reach billions of eyeballs all over the world and reinforce glamorous and high-tech associations ...The most successful teams traditionally generate higher levels of sponsorship income, because sponsors naturally value the association with success and the positive image and coverage that brings”.

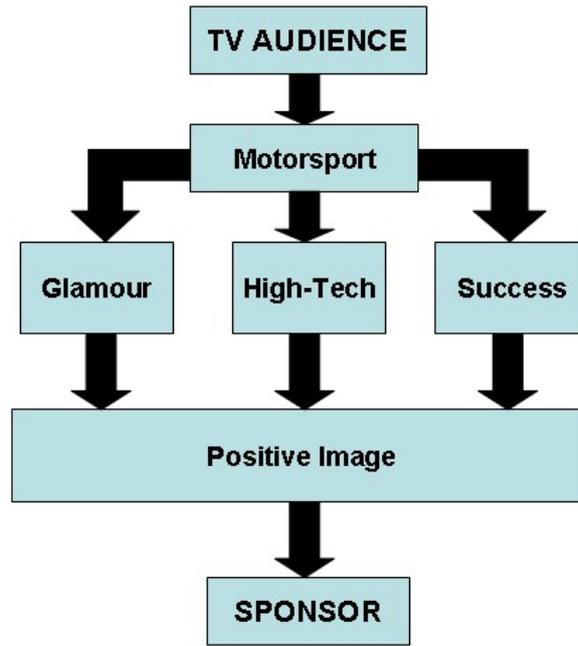
If Switzer (2007) is correct then a simplistic representation of his model of motorsport sponsorship is shown in Figure 5.6.

The results reveal that the overwhelming majority of sponsors do take media coverage very seriously indeed. In the sample (bike sponsors 96.3% and car sponsors 96.8%) do measure the level of media coverage that motorsport receives. There is a strong commonality of approach between both bikes and car sponsors in the measurement of media coverage, which is clearly being investigated, and evaluated, by motorsport sponsors and is therefore a major motivation.

On drilling down further into the data it is revealed that Press and TV coverage is perceived to be “very important” to 85.4% of the total sample. Where car sponsors are concerned, 86.4% felt it to be very important and the equivalent for bike sponsors is 82.6%. An almost identical approach is taken by both.

Fig. 5.6

The relationship between a TV audience and a motorsport sponsor



Previous research (ISBA, 1993) had indicated that the achievement of “favourable publicity” – which ideally would include success in Switzer’s (2007) terms - is often sought as a sponsorship outcome. The results show that 86% of car sponsors agree that this is either “very important” or “important”, whilst the corresponding figure for bike sponsors is 71.4%. Favourable publicity is therefore felt to be of major importance to all motorsport sponsors.

Meenaghan (1983) suggested that a broad corporate objective of sponsorship is to help identify the sponsors or its products with a “market segment”. The research confirms this with 95.2% of bike sponsors and 75.9% of car sponsors indicating that this is of importance. There is, though, a 19.3% difference which was substantiated by the Mann-Whitney test (Table 5.10). Bike sponsors clearly view the use of the media to identify their products with a “market segment” as being more important than do car sponsors.

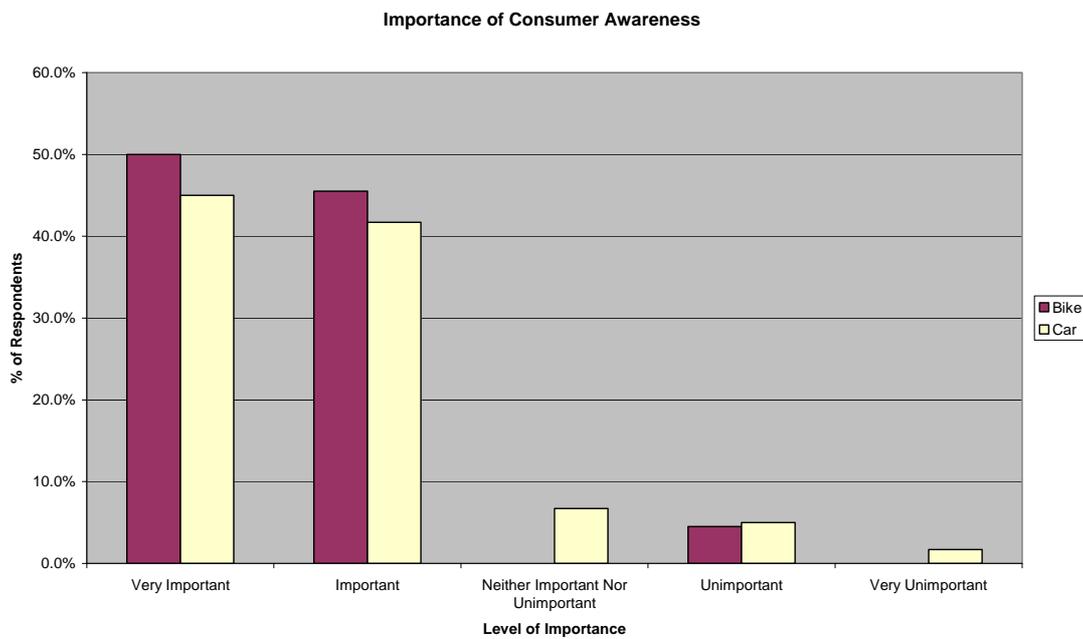
Table 5.10
Comparative importance of Identification with the Market Segment

	Identify with market segment
Mann-Whitney U	491.000
p. (2-tailed)	.054

(Grouping Variable: Which sector of motorsport do you support?)

Meenaghan (1983) had also indicated that sponsorship was important for producing an environment in which sales people could prospect for contacts. Unfortunately the relevant question (19c) was not worded as explicitly as it could have been so no reliable answers were established.

Fig 5.7



Mintel (1989) found that one of the most common objectives of a sponsorship is to increase consumer awareness of a sponsor or its products. When this was tested the results are unambiguous (Fig 5.7) with 95.5% of bike sponsors and 86.7% of car sponsors agreeing that this is either “very important” or “important” to them.

Levin (1993) highlighted that sponsorship is often used by sponsors to differentiate their product or brand. This is confirmed too, with 71.4% of bike sponsors stating that

this is either “important” or “very important”, whilst for car sponsors the figure is even higher at 75.8%.

Karmer (1996) specifically raised the concept of sponsorship helping with “business to business” marketing. Overall the sample placed great importance on the media facilitating business to business marketing with 85.9% feeling this to be either “important” or “very important”. This is particularly the case for car sponsors who revealed a response of 91.2%, which is interestingly 19.8% higher than bike sponsors who scored a noteworthy, although lower, 71.4%. Not one motorsport sponsor felt that the media influence on business to business marketing through sponsorship to be “very unimportant”.

Table 5.11
Comparative importance of the Facilitation of Business to Business Marketing

	Facilitate business to business marketing
Mann-Whitney U	480.000
p. (2-tailed)	.027

(Grouping Variable: Which sector of motorsport do you support?)

These results reveal a contradiction in the research responses. They appear to almost exactly reverse the responses to <P4> which investigated the markets that sponsors most wished to influence. Those results indicate that “business to business” markets are unimportant to motorsport sponsors in general. Most striking of all is that not one bike sponsor regards “business-to-business” markets as being important enough to identify as “most influential”. At that point of the research 9.5% felt “business to business” marketing to be “very important” and 61.9% “important”. Mysteriously, the earlier responses to <P4> give the impression that business to business marketing is of little consequence to motorsport sponsors whilst now in addressing <P6> it is of importance.

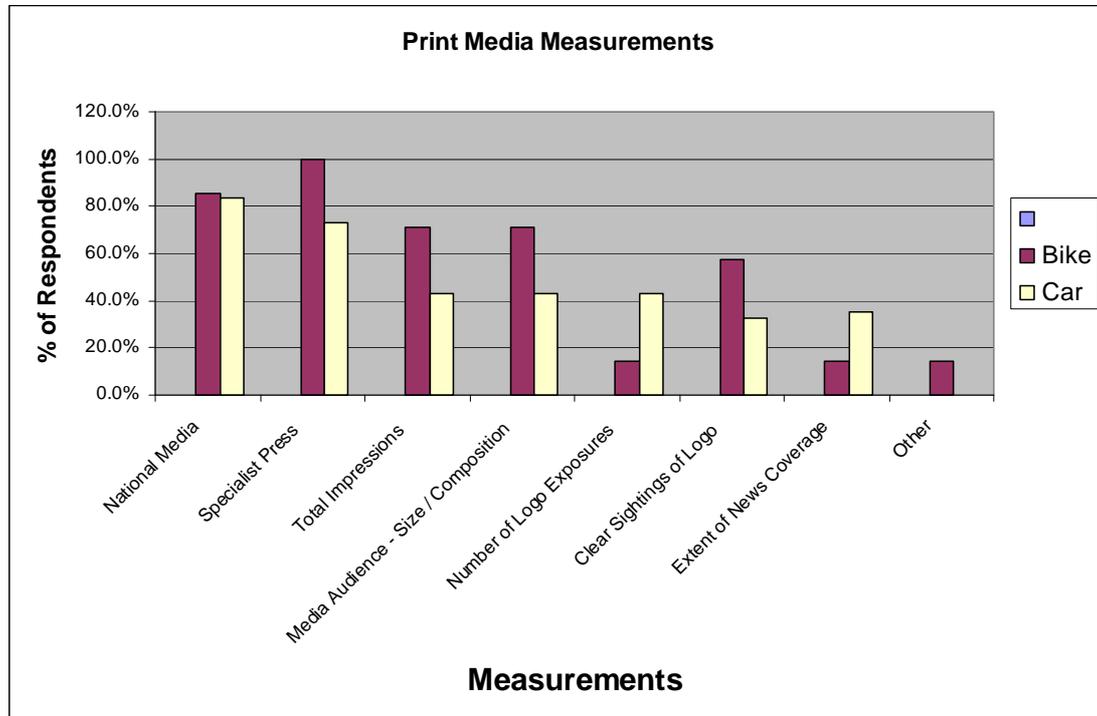
The earlier responses were investigating a number of potential sponsorship markets, whilst the later investigation is identifying the media influence on business to business marketing. The later responses reveal that media coverage is important to the “business to business” element of a sponsorship which in itself is not as important to a motorsport sponsor as the previously investigated “specific target markets”, “key decision makers” or “the internal public”.

The overwhelming majority of motorsport sponsors do in practice measure the level of media coverage that motorsport receives so the media is clearly of great importance. Press and TV coverage is perceived to be of great importance to all motorsport sponsors thereby supporting <P6>.

5.9 The Print media is measured in a variety of ways by sponsors

Having established that media coverage is of importance to motorsport sponsors and that the majority do carry out an evaluation, the sample was asked which elements of the print media they measured.

Fig 5.8



A number of alternatives were offered (Figure 5.8) and the results show that the national press is of similar importance to both bike and car sponsors as confirmed by

the Chi-square results. With hindsight there was a feeling that there might have been some small interference between Muir’s (1996) measurements of “number of logo exposures” and “clear sightings of logo”. A “clear sighting” is defined by the Margaux Matrix media analysis organisation as being when a logo is at least 80 per cent visible (F1 Racing, 2008). Bike sponsors are particularly interested in measuring the “specialist press”, which is their most popular measure. This is perceived to be because motorcycle products, which bear an obvious outward resemblance to road going motorcycles, may be of most interest to a target market of racing enthusiasts. Bike sponsors are disinterested in the number of logo exposures, although if their logos are seen they are interested in clear sightings.

The print media is two-dimensional and does not display a logo as it would be seen on television. The angle of viewing does not change. Viewed on television a logo invariably evolves as the angle of vision moves. In any case the positioning and visibility of logos on motorcycles is much more difficult than on cars as the number of available surfaces is not only smaller but there are few, if any, near flat surfaces. In practice the rider sometimes obscures the on-bike sponsorship and instead becomes a metaphorical “billboard” himself by displaying the visible logos on his leathers (see Appendix 4).

<P7> is supported, as the print media is indeed measured in a variety of ways. For bike sponsors the most popular measurements used are of the “specialist press” and the “national media” with the “total impressions” and the “media audience by size and composition” being of importance too. The car sponsors largely agreed, although the “national media” is most important followed by the “specialist press”. The measures of “total impressions”, “media audience by size and composition” and the “number of logo exposures” tied for third place with car sponsors.

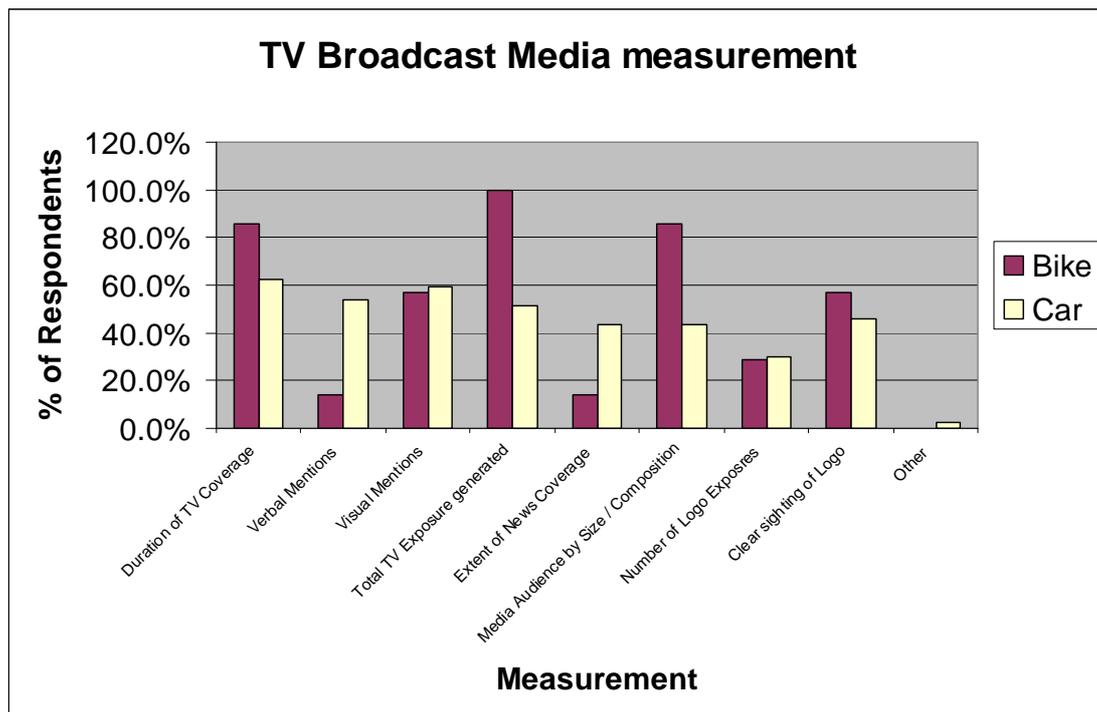
5.10 The TV broadcast media is measured in a variety of ways by motorsport sponsors

Research has long since established the relationship between television and sport (Barnett, 1990; Hofacre & Burman, 1992; Whannel, 1992; Wilson, 1994; Wolfe *et al*, 1997; Turner & Shilbury, 1997; Mason, 1999) and motorsport (Kassami, 1995; Williamson, 1996; Arthur, *et al*, 1998; Rowlinson, 2005b) with the TV broadcast media. Media coverage itself has been established in this research to be of importance

to motorsport sponsors and on investigation it has been found that the majority evaluate it. The sample was therefore asked how broadcast measurement is actually undertaken.

The results (Figure 5.9) are influenced by the relatively small sample of bike sponsors. For bike sponsors only seven respondents (28%) answered out of a possible twenty-five and this explains the pronounced variation in the comparative results between themselves and car sponsors. The response rate for car sponsors is by comparison 50.1%. It is evident from the results that for car sponsors the “duration of TV coverage” (62.2%), “verbal mentions” (59.5%) and “visual mentions” (54.1%) are the main measurements used. From the limited response by the bike sponsors this is mainly confirmed, although the third most popular option for bike sponsors is “media audience by size and composition”.

Fig.5.9



There are two main commonalities between bike and car sponsors with “visual mentions” and “number of logo exposures” being regarded similarly.

Where differences are concerned the Mann-Whitney test reveals that “total TV exposure generated” couldn’t be valued more highly by bike sponsors (100%) whilst the result for car sponsors was almost half that (51.4%). It has already been established that the total number of respondents from the bike sector was small at a mere 7 but this still reveals a significantly large difference. The explanation may be that at the time the research was undertaken the evolution of bike sponsorship was at the life cycle stage that television exposure was highest in the mind of the respondents. Perhaps TV exposure was already well established in car racing circles and the sponsorship life-cycle had moved on to other methodologies of leveraging the marketing opportunities.

Table 5.12
Comparative importance of Total TV Exposure generated

	Total TV exposure generated
Mann-Whitney U	66.500
p. (2-tailed)	.018

(Not corrected for ties; Grouping Variable: Which sector of motorsport do you support?)

Proposition <P8> is therefore confirmed, as the TV broadcast media is measured in a variety of ways.

5.11 The wireless media is measured in a variety of ways

The sample was asked to indicate the measures they used for measuring wireless transmissions. Potential measures had been revealed within the literature (Crompton, 1994), and these suggestions were offered to the respondents.

Car sponsors in particular measure “radio promotions” (51.4%) but the Mann-Whitney test (Table 5.13) reveals a significant statistical difference with the bike sponsors of whom 14.3% use the same measurement – a difference of 37.1%. This could well be a practicality in that car racing, in particularly F1, is regularly covered live on radio whilst bike racing hasn’t had such a high profile in this particular sector of the media.

Table 5.13
Comparative importance of Radio Promotions

	Radio promotions
Mann-Whitney U	30.500
p. (2-tailed)	.025

(Not corrected for ties; Grouping Variable: Which sector of motorsport do you support?)

Bike sponsors on the other hand are most keen on measuring the “extent of news coverage” on the wireless (57.1%).

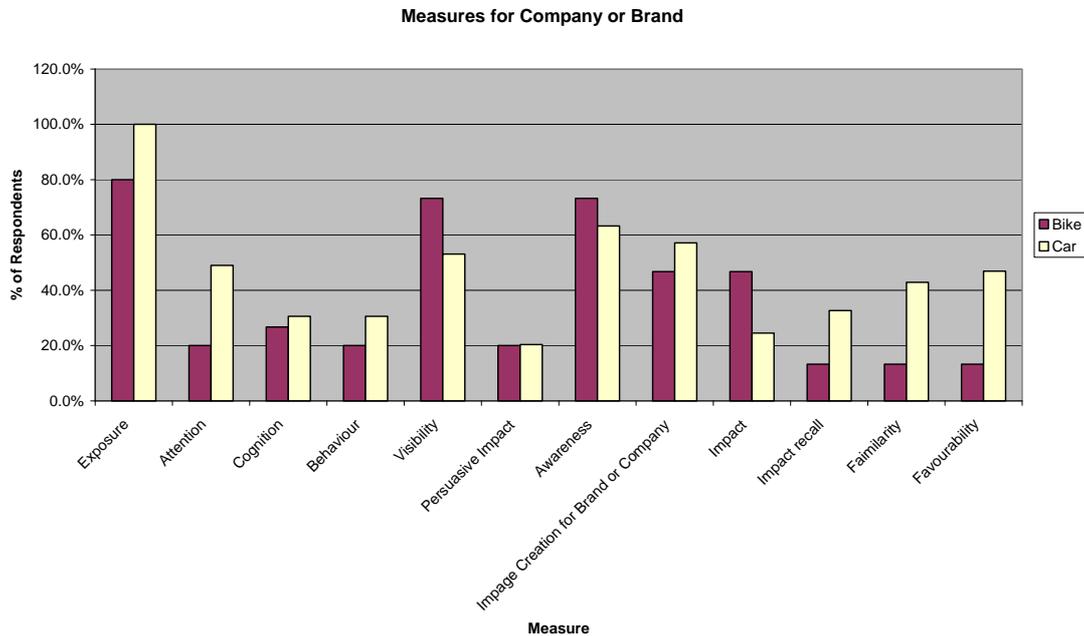
Overall Proposition <P9> is therefore supported in that the wireless media is measured in a variety of ways by motorsport sponsors.

5.12 Motorsport sponsors measure sponsorship success by specific indicators

The literature revealed a number of specific indicators against which the success of a sponsorship may be gauged. The use of sponsorship to achieve “brand associations” features regularly in the literature (Aaker, 1996; Biel, 1997; Doyle, 1998) and in practice this is the most popular measurement for both types of sponsor. This commonality of thought is confirmed by Chi-Square tests. A similar result is also achieved with the use of a “cost-benefit analysis” as a means of measurement. For bike sponsors the second most popular measurement is “communication effectiveness” whilst for car sponsors it is “cost benefit analysis”. These are reversed for third place before overall “guest feedback” is fourth and “sales effectiveness” fifth and last.

That “sales effectiveness” should be the least popular measurement for both types of sponsor is surprising, especially given the potential of sales tracking identified by Pope (1998). This measure may not be popular because it is perceived to be too difficult to quantify sponsorship’s contribution to a product purchase when it is but one element of the total marketing mix. This is a problem previously suggested by earlier researchers (Bennett, R, 1999; Grdovic, 1992; Steiner, 2001).

Fig 5.10



The results (Figure 5.10) demonstrate some commonality of measurement approach between the two types of sponsor with the measurement of “exposure” being the most important for both. Although the most important brand measurement the Mann-Whitney test (Table 5.14) revealed that there was a difference between the two types of sponsor. Car sponsors (100%) were 20% more likely to use the measurement of “exposure” as opposed to bike sponsors (80%). This may well be significant but again there were constraints due to the limitations of the sample size.

“Visibility” and “awareness” were the next most important measures for bike sponsors who rate these two equally whereas for car sponsors “awareness” is used more than “visibility”. “Cognition” and “persuasive impact” behave almost identically.

Table 5.14
Comparative importance of Exposure

	Exposure
Mann-Whitney U	294.000
p. (2-tailed)	.001

(Grouping Variable: Which sector of motorsport do you support?)

The measures of brand or company “familiarity” and “favourability” as a result of sponsorship are the least popular for bike sponsors but both the chi-square and Mann-Whitney tests (Table 5.15) highlight differences in attitudes with car sponsors (Favourability: chi-square value 4.128, d.f. = 1, significance = 0.042; Familiarity: chi-square value 3.160, d.f. = 1, significance = 0.075). The point needs to be made, though, that favourability is worth mentioning even though at 92.5% it is just outside the usual 95% Mann-Whitney significance.

“Familiarity” is 29.6% more likely to be measured by car sponsors and “favourability” 33.6%. This indicates the more sophisticated nature of the brand or company measures used by car sponsors as a result of having harnessed sponsorship uses over a longer period of time.

Table 5.15
Comparative importance of Familiarity and Favourability

	familiarity	favourability
Mann-Whitney U	259.000	244.000
p. (2-tailed)	.039	.021

(Grouping Variable: Which sector of motorsport do you support?)

Binary Logistic Regression was applied to the outcome variables of car or bike sponsor in Q1 with several sets of predictor variables. Only one model with predictors was found to be better than the intercept only model and this involved Question 14: *Which of the following do you measure for your company or brand?*

This model accounted for about 60% variation in the car / bike sponsor outcome variable (Nagelkerke R Square = 0.594) and fitted the data adequately (Hosmer & Lemeshow test: Chi-square = 3.35; df = 8; p = 0.912). The final classification success was about 87% compared with an initial probabilities success of 76%.

Two predictors made a significant contribution to the model - the “attention” variable 2 (B = 2.393; SE = 1.270; Wald = 3.551; df = 1; p = 0.060) and the “impact” variable 9 (B = -3.875; SE = 1.734; Wald = 4.996; df = 1; p = 0.025).

Examination of the exponentiated betas indicates that for “attention” an increase of one step on the scale used leads to a 10 fold increase in the odds of an individual being classified as a car sponsor. For the “impact” variable an increase of one point on the category scale leads to a 0.02 increase in the odds of an individual being categorised as a car sponsor, i.e. a 50-fold increase in the odds of it being classified as a bike.

A distinct difference between the two types of sponsor is identified by the model in that car sponsors are found to place more emphasis on the measurement of “attention” (the ability of the sponsorship to gain audience attention) in evaluating their sponsorships whilst bike sponsors are alternatively very interested in evaluating “impact”.

Proposition <P10> is supported as motorsport sponsors do use some specific indicators to measure their sponsorships. “Cognition” (Hansen and Scotwin, 1995; Vakaratas & Ambler, 1996) and “persuasive impact” (Crimmins & Horn, 1996) in particular are important indicators for motorsport sponsors as is “exposure” (Lagae, 2005, page 215).

5.13 Motorsport support is measured by its impact on sales

The sample was asked whether, or not, it measures the success of its sponsorship campaigns through consequential sales or product purchases. Additionally the place that any sales tracking takes place was asked of respondents using suggestions from amongst others Crompton (1994). Parts of the literature (Reiling, 1983; Watson, 1997) indicate that creating sales is a core strand of sponsorship evaluation whilst Gold (1992), Crompton (1994) and Javalgi *et al* (1994) found sales to be the main method of sponsorship evaluation. Bennett (1999) urged caution that there were other elements of the marketing mix which might well have contributed to sales either in addition to or as an alternative to sponsorship.

The research finds little evidence of the measurement of sponsorship success through “customer sales purchases”. It is in fact the least popular of the evaluation methodologies for both types of sponsor. Only 42.3% of car sponsors and 20% of bike sponsors admitted to using consumer sales purchases as a measure of the success of their sponsorships.

The research reveals that motorsport sponsors do measure their sponsorship’s support by its perceived impact on sales, but other measures of success are considered to be equally or even more important. The results would appear to confirm that linking sponsorship directly to sales increases is difficult. In practice most of the literature in this area is anecdotal and not confirmed by hard statistics. It is also difficult to differentiate the contribution of sponsorship to sales increases when other elements of the marketing mix, such as advertising and public relations, have also been used. It is much easier to measure the contribution of sponsorship to customer awareness and association, but the complex processes that actually lead to a product purchase decision are many and varied and sponsorship’s contribution is still often uncertain. This is despite the increasing practice of using sponsorship as a marketing methodology.

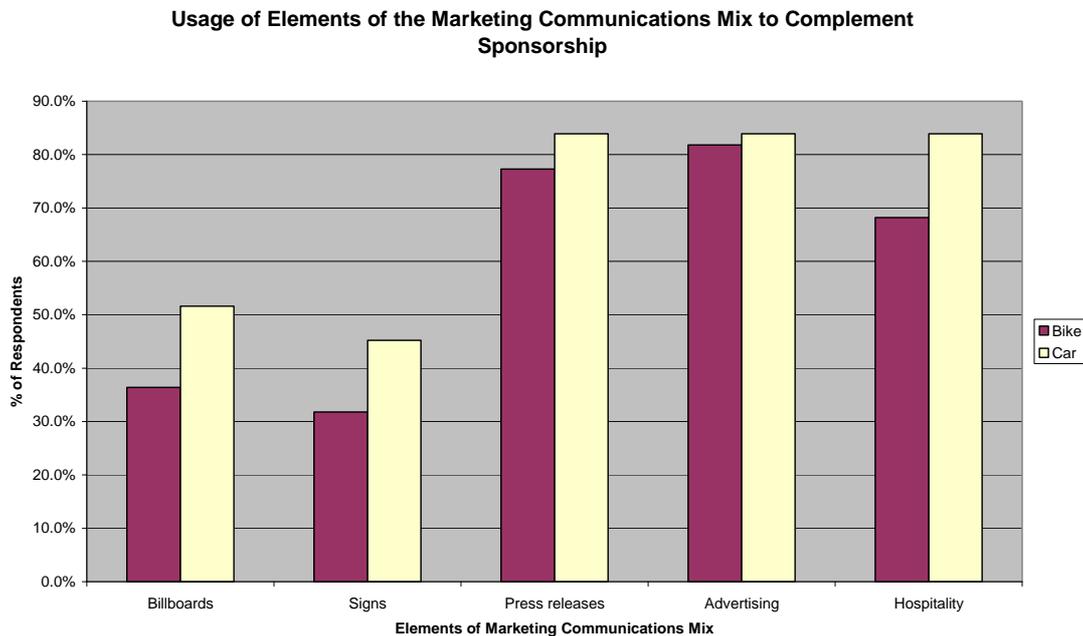
Where the place of measurement is concerned, for car sponsors the “message channel” is slightly less popular (1.9%) than at the time of the “consumer sales purchases”. Measuring at the point of “consumer reception of the message” is revealed by both bike sponsors (60%) and car sponsors (51.9%) as the most popular sponsorship assessment technique of those offered.

The research therefore reveals that where Crompton’s (1996) AIDA hierarchy of effects model is concerned motorsport sponsors are happiest measuring sales at the initial Awareness stage, long before Interest, Desire and Action have kicked in and a purchase actually made. In practice those that do this are not measuring actual sales at all but instead potential or perhaps hoped-for sales. Some of those sales may never happen so the results can only be regarded as estimates and hardly hard fact. In practice the product purchase may never actually take place. The result is that many motorsport sponsors may be misleading themselves, accidentally or deliberately.

5.14 Motorsport sponsors complement their support in a number of ways.

The literature extensively addresses the opportunities for complementing and leveraging a sponsorship with additional elements of the marketing communications mix. Examples include Cornwell *et al*, (2001), Hansen & Scotwin (1995) and Holbrook, (2002, page 13).

Fig 5.11

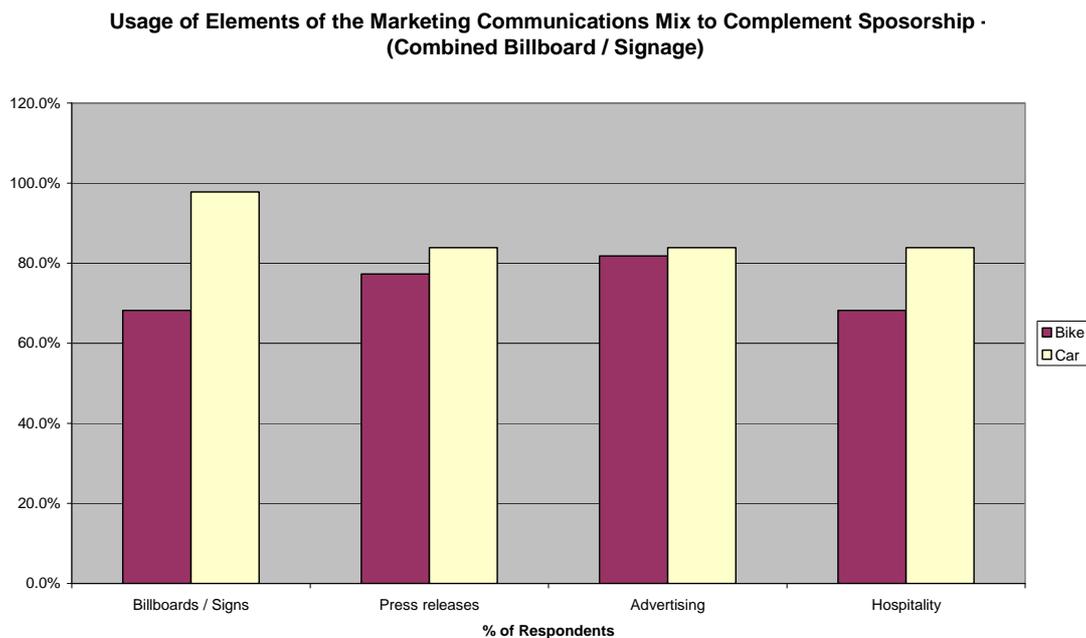


The first observation from the statistics (Figure 5.11) is that sponsorship is infrequently used on its own with more than three-quarters of the overall sample employing complementary press releases, advertising and hospitality. Additionally both bike and car sponsors demonstrate a statistically positive approach to complementary “advertising”.

It is important to recognise that the research reveals that the majority of motorsport sponsorships do not stand alone but they are supported by hospitality programmes, press releases and advertising campaigns.

The second observation surrounds the usage of “Billboards” and “Signs” both of which on their own lag well behind the other three options. Although there is a distinction between the two in the literature, in practice motorsport respondents might be unable to differentiate between them. The American marketing terminology of “billboard” might have been confused by the respondents or alternatively been perceived as one and the same as “signage”. If, therefore, the two are added together then a combined “billboard/sign” statistic would yield a bike sponsor figure of 68.2% usage and a higher 97.8% for car sponsors. This calculation (Fig 5.12) would then provide a combined usage of “billboards/signs” which would be the most popular complementary element of the marketing communications mix for car sponsors. This may be the case because more car motorsport is shown on television than bike oriented motorsport.

Fig 5.12



It is clear from the data, though, that motorsport sponsors do indeed complement their support in a number of ways, with sponsorship rarely standing alone, and that <P12> is therefore supported.

5.15 Public Relations is important to motorsport sponsors

The literature reveals a strong relationship between sponsorship and the parallel marketing communications specialism of public relations (Lancaster & Massingham, 1993; Kotler, 1994; Hill, 1994).

The responses show that a very high importance is assigned to public relations by both types of sponsor. For car sponsors 75.8% agree that public relations is “very important” to them and where bike sponsors are concerned the figure is 55.2%. Whilst at the “very important” level the bikes sponsors lag behind by 23.6%, if one were to add the “very important” and “important” responses together then the figure for car sponsors is 97% and for bike sponsors 87%. Both sets of statistics confirm Shank’s (1999) assertion that public relations is important to sport sponsors.

At an early stage Meenaghan (1983) identified that one of the broad corporate objectives that sponsorship could achieve is to use it as a medium for community involvement. In practice this is often undertaken as a part of a public relations campaign but the research reveals an element of apathy. The data shows that only 14.3% of bike sponsors and 12.5% of car sponsors believe “community involvement” through a sponsorship to be “very important”. This is surprising when, before examining the image of specific sponsor’s brands, motorsport in general has not only an environmental image problem, with its fossil fuel usage, but also the potential for noise pollution, both of which might affect the perception of the sponsor. Whilst the 2009 F1 regulations specifically address fuel efficiency through energy recovery and re-use (FIA, 2006) and teams in the BTCC are already being encouraged to use bio-fuels it would have been thought that embracing community involvement for sponsors would have been more of a priority.

The usage of public relations to influence “public awareness” is seen as important to motorsport sponsors and in particular to those who support bikes. The data reveals that in total 90.9% of bike sponsors and 83.8% of car sponsors think that “public awareness” is either “important” or “very important”. The results for the public relations effects on “public perceptions” through motorsport sponsorship are positive. Where car sponsors are concerned “public perceptions” are felt to be “very important” by 56.7% of the sample and the equivalent figure for bike sponsors is 50%. If one adds the results for “very important” and “important” together, then an almost identical statistic of 90.9% of bike sponsors and 90% of car sponsors agree on its importance.

The literature identified that the public relations element of sponsorship could on occasions be used to “counter adverse publicity” (Thomas, 1995). If one totals the responses to “very important” and “important” then 49% of car sponsors and 45.5% of bike sponsors think that “countering adverse publicity” is important to them.

Where the use of public relations to “enhance commitment to the community” is concerned, if one totals the “very important” and “important” responses then 38.1% of bike sponsors and 36% of car sponsors revealed this to be important. That does, of course, indicate the converse that 61.9% of bike sponsors and 64% of car sponsors are indifferent towards enhancing commitment to the community through their sponsorship.

Fig 5.13

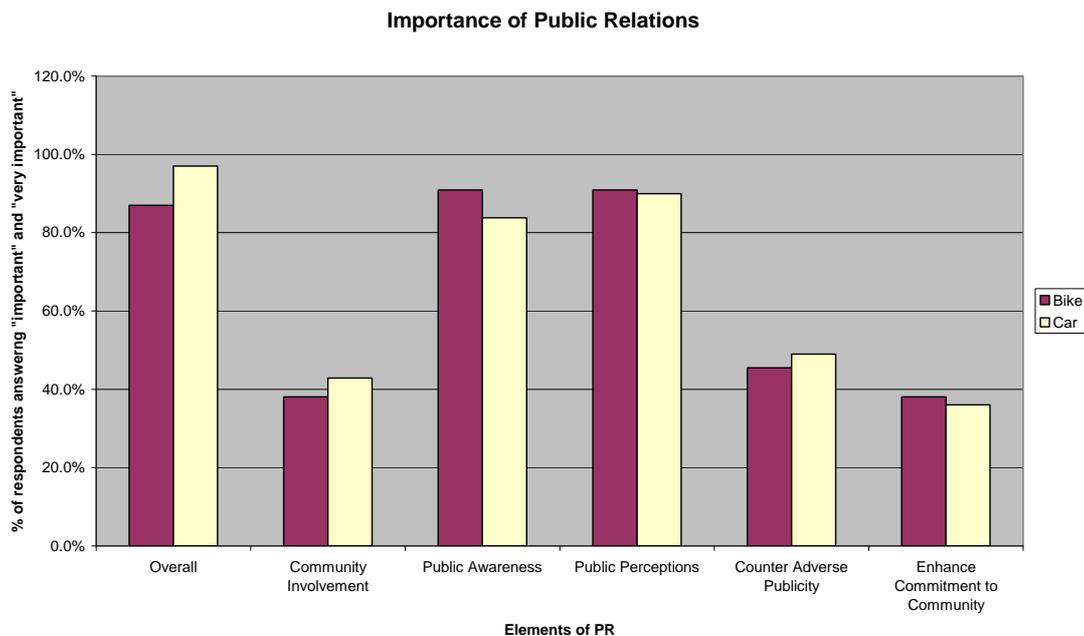


Figure 5.13 combines results to illustrate those elements of Public Relations that sponsors find to be “very important”.

Overall 97% of car sponsors and 87% of bike sponsors indicate that public relations is important to their sponsorship activities. Primarily, public relations is intended to influence “public perceptions” (90.3%) and “public awareness” (85.7%). Indeed the

statistics reveal that where influencing “public perceptions” is concerned the two types of sponsor think identically.

Of much less importance to motorsport sponsors overall is the potential to use public relations to “counter adverse publicity” (47.9%). This perhaps means that in more than half the sample the need to counter adverse publicity hasn’t arisen or is not being anticipated. Two elements of questioning investigate the potential usage of public relations to address the community. Neither of the options of “community involvement” (41.6%) nor “enhance commitment to community” (36.7%) are perceived as being nearly as important as the options that referred to the public. To put this another way there is a perceived need to communicate through public relations with the public but not with the community.

In analysing the importance of public relations there are no sizeable differences between either bike or car sponsors and the data confirms <P13> that public relations is perceived as being of importance to motorsport sponsors.

5.16 Image is important to motorsport sponsors

The literature review identified that a perceived benefit of sponsorship is its influence on the image of a company or brand. For more than twenty years researchers such as Meenaghan (1984), Waite (1979), Crompton (1996) and Dolphin (2003) have referred to sponsorship as influencing the image of a sponsor or its products.

The first effect to be tested is that which involves sponsorship being used to “enhance company image”. It has been found that great importance is attached to company image enhancement by both car and bikes sponsors. That 91.7% of bike sponsors and 97% of car sponsors responded that this is either “very important” or “important” indicates a very strong support for this facet of sponsorship.

It was ISBA (1993) that specifically identified that sponsorship could provide a central focus for multi-discipline marketing and communication campaigns and this is clearly of importance to motorsport sponsors. It is of more importance to car

sponsors of whom 84.4% responded either “very important” or “important” whereas the corresponding figure for bike sponsors is 63.6%.

Researchers such as Waite (1979), Marshall & Cook (1992), Scott & Suchard (1992) and SponsorVision (1997) have all focused on the potential of sponsorship to generate image benefits in the media. This is confirmed by the research which found that where bike sponsors are concerned 79.2% find this either “very important” or “important” with the corresponding figure for car sponsors being 77.6%, thus demonstrating a very similar attitude.

The literature review addresses the concept of “awareness” achieved by sponsorships. Researchers such as Otker & Hayes (1987), Armstrong (1988), Wolton (1988), D’Astousa & Bitz (1995), Crompton (1996) and Walliser (2003), amongst others, all emphasise the linkage between sponsorship and awareness. In practice the research found that great importance is attached to top of mind awareness by motorsport sponsors. A total of 87.5% of bike sponsors responded “very important” or “important” with a higher figure of 91.1% for car sponsors.

The sponsorship effects on brands and image have been addressed by researchers such as Saegert *et al* (1973), Kim (1990), Meenaghan & Shipley (1999) and Physicians for a Smoke-Free Canada (2002b). Surprisingly the results of this research show that less than half of the respondents felt that image change is either “very important” or “important” to them. The figure for car sponsors is 49.2% and for bike sponsors 43.9%. The largest single score is for “neither important nor unimportant” which 40.7% of car sponsors answered as did 42.9% of bike sponsors.

One can’t help but feel that this is a somewhat arrogant response. It makes one wonder whether sponsors in the sample already feel that their image is established positively and that little change can be achieved by their sponsorship. It may be that they feel they are at the pinnacle of their achievement and that sponsorship will only spread this message to a wider audience. This does fly in the face of practical evidence of image change undertaken through the medium of motorsport sponsorship (Thomas, 1995; Waite, 1979). It is curious too, that the sample believe that whilst image change is not possible through a sponsorship image enhancement is.

In investigating attitudes towards image it was found, as indicated by the literature, that great importance is attached to “company image enhancement” and “top of mind awareness” by motorsport sponsors. The use of sponsorship as “a central focus for a multi discipline campaign” is clearly of importance too but here the Mann-Whitney test reveals a difference (Table 5.16). Where car sponsors are concerned 84.4% feel this to be either “important” or “very important”, whilst the bike figure is 20.8% less (63.6%). This indicates a lack of appreciation amongst bike sponsors that their investment has either the possibility or the need to be leveraged to take full advantage.

Table 5.16
Comparative importance of the Provision of a central Focus for a Multi-discipline Marketing and Communications Campaign

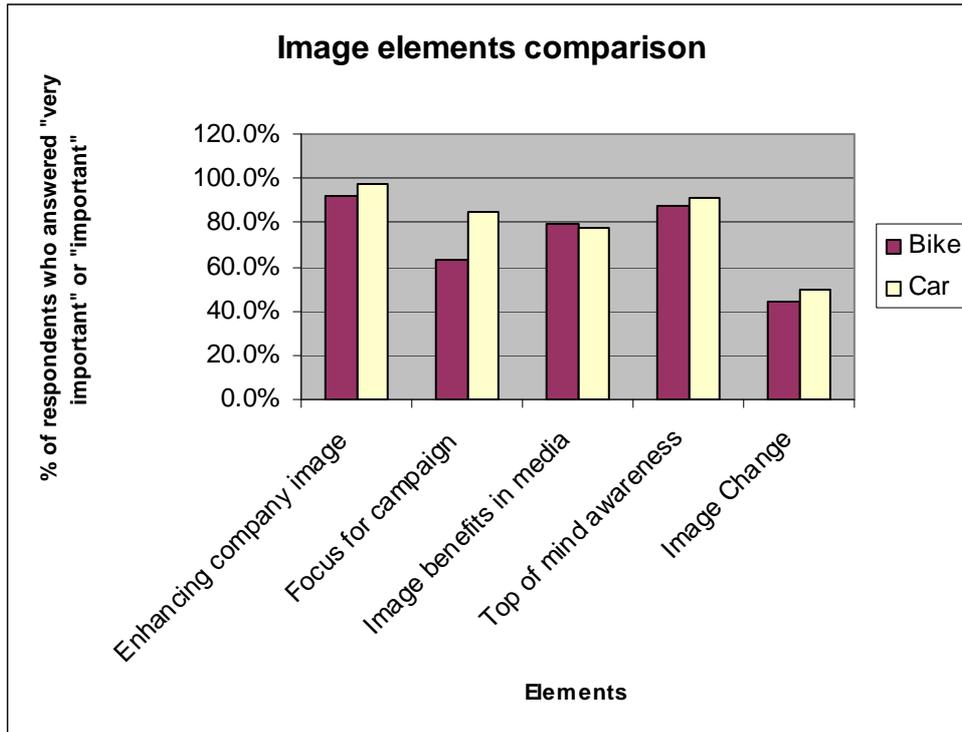
	Provide central focus for multi-discipline marketing and communications campaign
Mann-Whitney U	558.000
p. (2-tailed)	.040

(Grouping Variable: Which sector of motorsport do you support?)

In comparing the two types of sponsor Figure 5.14 indicates a commonality in the importance of image elements of motorsport sponsorship. The major difference is that bike sponsors are 20.8% less likely than car sponsors to perceive sponsorship as being important as a “focus for a multi discipline marketing and communications campaign”.

Proposition <P14>, that image is important to motorsport sponsors, is supported by the findings.

Fig 5.14



5.17 The audience is important to motorsport stakeholders

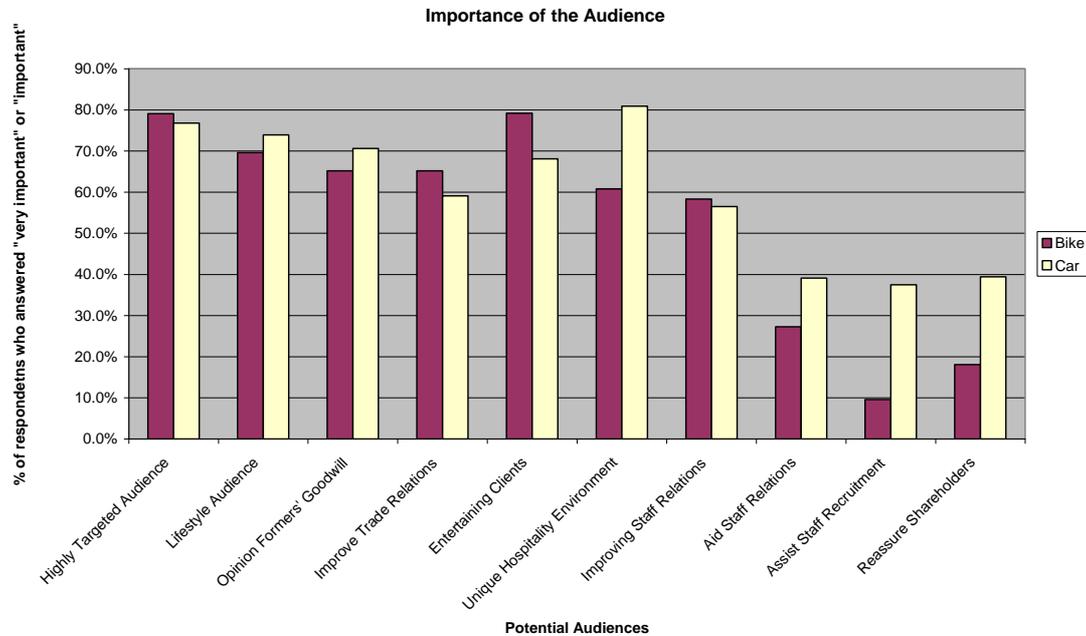
The literature review found that the key to a successful exploitation of motor racing sponsorship is the targeting of the right audience (Edwards, 1987). The views of the sample are gauged regarding a number of types of audience and the results are shown in Figure 5.15.

Reaching a “highly targeted audience” is seen to be important to 79.1% of bike sponsors and 76.8% of car sponsors. These are the respective totals for those respondents who answered either “very important” or “important”. The data confirms the literature where researchers such as Meenaghan (1983) and ISBA (1993) have highlighted the importance for sponsors of reaching a “highly targeted audience”.

The audience that identifies with motorsport which in turn reflects their attitudes and values is known as “lifestyle”. Within the literature Levin (1993) had in particular identified a lifestyle audience as being important to many sports sponsors. As far as the sample is concerned the “lifestyle audience” is clearly of great importance. Where

car sponsors are concerned 73.9% answered either “important” or “very important” whilst for bikes the corresponding figures is 69.6%.

Fig 5.15



Both Fan and Pfitzenmaier (2002) and Meenaghan (1983) state that sponsorship may be used to communicate with opinion formers and leaders. The results are conclusive with 70.6% of car sponsors and 65.2% of bike sponsors responding either “important” or “very important”. Influencing “opinion formers’ goodwill” is therefore seen to be a priority for motorsport sponsors.

The potential of sponsorship to assist in the marketing mix to “improve trade relations” is identified specifically by Mintel (1989). The sample agrees, with 65.2% of bike sponsors and 59.1% of car sponsors responding either “important” or “very important”. Where car sponsors are concerned 18.3% thought this to be “very important”. Not one bike sponsor thought the concept to be “very unimportant”.

The entertaining of clients, as suggested by Smith (1990), is perceived to be of high importance to motorsport sponsors too. The bike sponsors in particular confirm this with 77.2% revealing that entertaining clients is either “important” or “very important

to them, whilst the corresponding figure for car sponsors is still high, although 11.1% lower than bike sponsors, at 68.1%. This is certainly curious as in general the use of entertaining through hospitality is perceived to have been more advanced in car racing than bike racing.

Linked with the entertaining of clients one might expect the ability of motorsport to provide a "unique hospitality environment" to be similarly viewed. The responses confirm this. Where bike sponsors are concerned 60.8% thought the "unique hospitality environment" to be either "important" or "very important" and the equivalent figure for car sponsors is an even more positive 80.9%.

It is suggested throughout the literature that a potential usage of sponsorship is to help workforce motivation through the improvement of staff relations and morale (Head, 1988; Meenaghan, 1983; Mintel, 1989; Sleight, 1989; Smith, 1990; Team Danka Arrows, 1998; Tripoldi, 2001; Waite, 1979). Whilst this is seen by motorsport sponsors to be of importance the feeling is not as highly pronounced as for other types of audience. Where bike sponsors are concerned 58.3% responded "important" or "very important" with the car sponsors lagging slightly behind with 56.5%. This result complements the previous result for <P1> where influencing the "internal public" market is perceived as being relatively unimportant.

An apparent lethargy towards staff and the internal public is also reflected where the usage of sponsorship to "aid staff relations" is concerned. Despite wording this second question on the topic slightly differently to "aid" staff relations similar disinterest in this concept is established. In particular none of the bike sponsors reveal that they think aiding staff relations is "very important" and only 27.3% think it to be "important". The distribution of responses is similarly neutral and little enthusiasm for existing staff matters, when compared with other applications of sponsorship, is evident in the results.

Meenaghan (1983) and Crompton (1996) had specifically identified sponsorship as being an element of a methodology for locating and recruiting new staff. The apparent indifference by motorsport sponsors in general where staff matters is concerned is still

evident. Bike sponsors in particular reveal that only 9.6% of their number believe this to be "very important" or "important". The comparative figure for car sponsors is more positive with 37.5%.

Sleight (1989) was one of the researchers who had found, in an early examination of the reasons for the use of sponsorship, that shareholders might be reassured through the medium. In practice the data reveals a very relaxed attitude overall to this concept. Only 4.5% of bike sponsors and 13.6% of car sponsors think that the reassurance of shareholders is "very important". That 43.2% of the overall sample think this concept to be "neither important" "nor unimportant" indicates the lack of enthusiasm overall. When one also realises that exactly 50% of the bike sponsors answered either "unimportant" or "very unimportant" this also demonstrates that shareholders are definitely not a priority for them.

Certain audiences are identified within the responses as being of more importance than others to motorsport sponsors. The comparative audience results (Figure 5.14) indicate that motorsport sponsors in general place importance on a highly targeted, lifestyle audience who may be entertained in a unique hospitality environment. The sample also attaches importance too to the potential of their sponsorships affecting opinion formers' goodwill and improving trade relations.

The sample generally gives less importance to internal audiences such as staff and shareholders. Where aiding staff relations and recruitment are concerned there is little enthusiasm, although there is more importance attached to "improving" staff relations. It may be that the subtlety of language here indicates that where staff morale is not a problem, sponsorship is not needed to improve the situation or, conversely, that where staff morale is a problem, sponsorship may be used to improve matters. Whilst there is some commonality between motor sponsors, bike sponsors in particular seem much less interested in the internal audiences of staff and shareholders than do car sponsors.

Where “staff recruitment” is concerned a difference between the two types of sponsors shows up in both a Chi-Square test (chi-square value 4.585, d.f. = 1, significance = 0.032) and in the Mann-Whitney (Table 5.17).

Table 5.17
Comparative importance of Staff Recruitment

	Assist staff recruitment
Mann-Whitney U	484.000
p. (2-tailed)	.016

(Grouping Variable: Which sector of motorsport do you support?)

Car sponsors indicate that 20.9% more of them regard it as important through sponsorship to address an audience that “assists staff recruitment” than do bike sponsors. One could argue that here is another example of bike sponsors not using the potential of their sponsorship to full effect perhaps because of the newness of the specialism.

The Mann-Whitney test (Table 5.18) draws attention to the difference between sponsor-types over the potential provision of “a unique hospitality environment” is concerned through motorsport sponsorship.

Table 5.18
Comparative importance of the Provision of a Unique Hospitality Environment

	Provide unique hospitality environment
Mann-Whitney U	625.500
p. (2-tailed)	.054

(Grouping Variable: Which sector of motorsport do you support?)

Car sponsors regard this element of sponsorship as being nearly 27.9% more important than do bike sponsors. The former have, of course, had the example of the

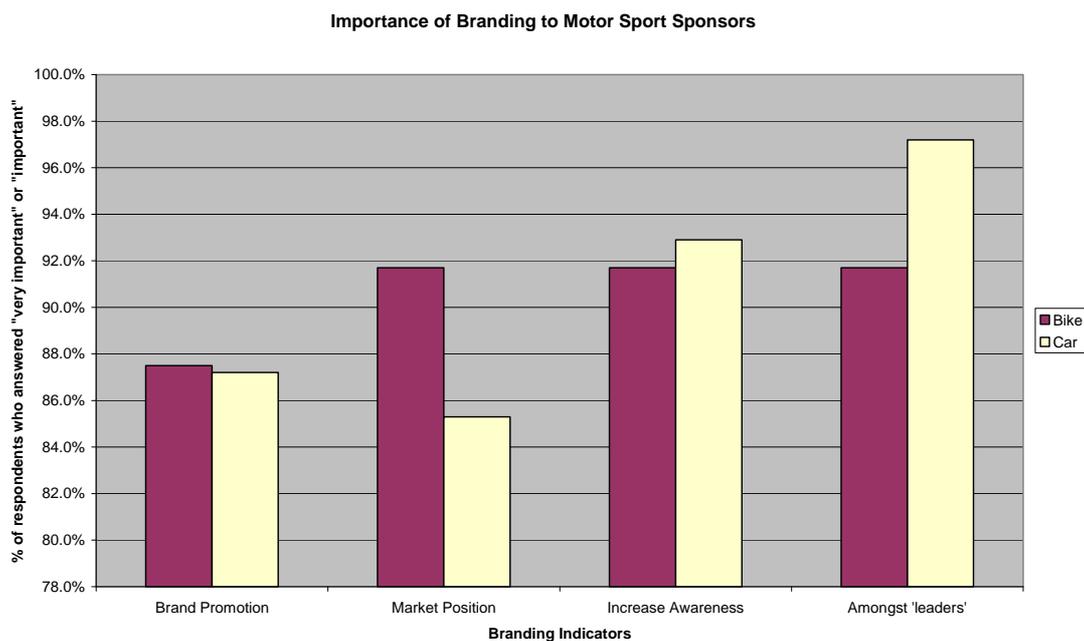
top class hospitality of Allsport’s F1 *Paddock Club* since 1984 whereas MotoGP’s *VIP Village* is a comparative newcomer having started operations in 1992.

In addressing <P15> it is evident that certain types of audience are indeed important to motorsport sponsors.

5.18 Branding is important to motorsport sponsors

In the marketing communications literature the importance of establishing a product’s branding and brand attributes is highly emphasised by a wide range of researchers over a lengthy period of time (Alba & Hutchinson, 1987; Tellis & Fornell, 1988; de Chernatony & McWilliam, 1990; Parker, 1991; Moorthy & Zhao, 1995; Quester & Farrelly, 1998).

Fig. 5.16



The importance of branding to the sample was investigated using the indicators of “brand promotion”, “market position”, “increasing brand awareness” and “placing a brand amongst the leaders”. The results are shown in Figure 5.16.

Motorsport sponsors clearly believe that brand promotion is important to them. Overall 87.2% of sponsors answered “very important” or “important” with the figure

for bike sponsors being 87.5% and car sponsors 87.2%. Not one sponsor answered "very unimportant".

The usage of sponsorship to establish an image which helps to position either the company or a brand is clearly important to motorsport sponsors too. The results reveal that 86.9% of sponsors answered either "important" or "very important" with the figure for bike sponsors being 91.7% and for car sponsors slightly less at 85.3%. Again, not one sponsor answered "very unimportant".

Where the usage of sponsorship to increase company and brand awareness is concerned, the results show that 92.6% of motorsport sponsors believe this to be either "very important" or "important". Whilst the comparative results are very similar the car sponsors believed this to be slightly more important to them at 92.9%, whilst the figure for bike sponsors is 91.7%.

Miyazaki and Morgan (2001) specifically identified that sports sponsors like their brand to establish itself with the attribute of being amongst the "leaders". The research finds that 95.8% of respondents feel that placing their brand amongst the leaders is either "very important" or "important" with the figures for car sponsors being 97.2% and bike sponsors 91.7%.

The use motor of sponsorship to influence a company or product's branding is clearly of great importance to motorsport sponsors. In particular the concept of establishing one's brand as being amongst the leaders, by competing at the top level (Holbrook, 2002, page 44), or even as a winner, by being on the podium, is evidently a core requirement, particularly for car sponsors. This also reflects the need to win to guarantee television and media coverage and consequent sponsorship income streams as suggested by previous researchers (Benson, 1995d; Dodgins, 1995a; Roebuck, 1995e; Rawlinson, 2005c).

Proposition <P16>, that "branding is important to motorsport sponsors", is therefore supported.

5.19 Increased revenue is important to motorsport sponsors

The literature contains evidence that sponsorship is used within marketing communications to stimulate sales and consequent revenue. This is often described as the "bottom line" which is business "slang for net income or profit" (Dictionary.com, 2006). Many researchers have made this link including Javalgi *et al* (1994). The research explored the reality of this assertion where motorsport sponsors are concerned.

The results (Figure 5.16) confirm that great importance is placed on increasing company sales through the use of motorsport sponsorship. Where bike sponsors are concerned 86.9% of the sample answered that increasing company sales is either "very important" or "important" and the corresponding figure for car sponsors is even higher at 87.5%.

The potential of sponsorship to help a sponsor to impact on their bottom line was originally recognised by both Howard (1992) and Levin (1993). In fact the definition of sponsorship used in this research recognises that the bottom line is central to this element of marketing communications and this is supported by other researchers (Cornwell, 1995; Gwinner & Swanson, 2003; Hoek *et al*, 1993 & 1997; Irwin & Sutton, 1994; Marshall & Cook, 1992; Wilson, 1997).

The results confirm that impacting on the bottom line is important to motor sponsors. Overall 67.5% of motorsport sponsors agreed by responding "important" or "very important", whilst 64.5% of car sponsors and an even larger 76.2% of bike sponsors though this to be true too. Interestingly, not one motorsport sponsor felt that impacting on the bottom line is "very unimportant".

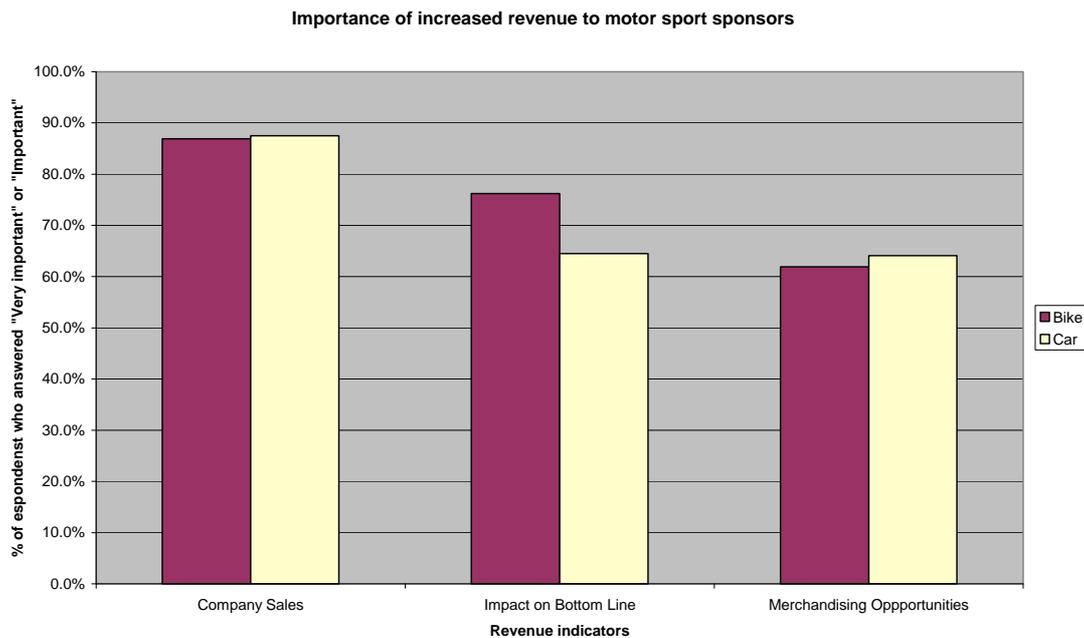
The literature contains a number of references to the importance attached by sponsors to merchandising opportunities. Authors who have highlighted this include Karmer (1996), Levin (1993), Physicians for a Smoke-Free Canada (2002a) and Sleight (1989). In practice, merchandising opportunities afforded by motorsport sponsorship are seen as being of importance to sponsors. The responses reveal that overall 63.5% of the sample answered "important" or "very important" with the respective figures for bike sponsors being 61.9% and 64.1% for car sponsors.

The findings generated by the three revenue strands confirm that motorsport sponsors do indeed regard the impact on increased revenue as being of significant importance.

By comparing the results (Fig 5.17) a similarity of attitude between the responses of bike and car sponsors is revealed. The only difference is where the overall reaction to “impact on the bottom line” is concerned where bike sponsors found this indicator to be 11.7% more important than car sponsors.

The proposition <P17> that increased revenue is important to motorsport sponsors is supported by the research evidence.

Fig 5.17



5.20 Summary of findings

The research propositions that were postulated in Chapter 4 have produced a wide variety of findings.

Motorsport sponsors do indeed use a variety of sponsorship strategies <P1> with the respondents revealing no less than ten different types. The most popular strategies are title, major, technical sponsor and official supplier. Team sponsorship <P2> is revealed as being the most popular strategy used with driver sponsorship in second place, although this is of less importance to bike sponsors. Car sponsors are seen to be making use of a wider selection of sponsorship opportunities than their bike colleagues. Motorsport sponsors do require more than one goal from their sponsorships <P3>, particularly aiming to position and to create a favourable impression of their brand whilst hoping to generate sales through their activities. Motorsport sponsors also have priority markets <P4>, particularly wishing to influence product consumers, the media and distributors and retailers. They all have specific target markets too with key decision makers, particularly with regard to sales, being highlighted. Interestingly where bike sponsors are concerned they show more keenness to influence key decision makers than do car sponsors. Business to business marketing, though, was seen as being of little importance especially to bike sponsors although this is contradicted in the responses to <P6>. Despite their existence within motorsport financial institutions were not perceived to be of importance to motorsport sponsors.

The literature widely implied that motorsport sponsors don't evaluate the effects of their sponsorships <P5>. This was found to be untrue with car sponsors being slightly keener to use evaluation methodologies than bike sponsors with the majority making use of benchmarking and tracking programmes. If media coverage is the aim of sponsorship then Tindale's (1990) finding that targeted television campaigns have for some time been precisely evaluated to analyse their cost-effectiveness is holding true. The research indicates that sport sponsorship has firmly moved on from the “Chairman's whim” to having to be justified in boardrooms as a measurable contribution to the corporate marketing communication mix.

Media coverage <P6> is in practice very important to motorsport sponsors of both types and this positive approach yields one of the highest scores of the whole research. Press and TV coverage is a necessity to them as is favourable publicity. Market segments as targets for a sponsorship message are very important to car sponsors whilst increasing consumer awareness of their products rates highly overall. The print media <P7>, especially national and specialist, is positively viewed with the latter being of particular interest to bike sponsors. It is measured in a variety of ways with total impressions, media audience size and composition being rated highly, with clear sightings of logos being particularly of interest to bike sponsors. The TV broadcast media too is measured in a variety of ways <P8> with the duration of coverage, verbal mentions and total exposure generated being the priorities for car sponsors. The wireless media <P9> is similarly measured in a variety of ways by both types of sponsor, but it is not regarded as being as much of a priority as print and TV because of the relative lack of broadcasting through this medium.

Motorsport sponsors do indeed measure sponsorship success with specific indicators <P10> and the literature is supported which stated that brand associations and cost-benefit analyses are the measures regarded most highly. Company or brand specific measurements are headed by exposure, visibility and awareness.

The research confirms that motorsport support is measured by its impact upon sales <P11> but that this is not the only measure used. The research raises the difficulty of establishing what part a sponsorship actually plays in a product purchase decision which is highlighted by the fact that the most popular place to measure this is at the point of the consumer's reception of the message. In practice this should be regarded is an unreliable guide as it only establishes what the consumer intends to purchase as opposed to their actual purchase.

The research has established that as part of the marketing communications armoury sponsorship is infrequently used solely on its own. In practice complementary methodologies are widely employed to enhance the communication of the sponsorship message <P12>. Press releases, hospitality and advertising are all commonly used in association with a sponsorship. Some of these techniques overlap

with those more commonly identified with public relations, which is itself regarded as being of high importance to motorsport sponsors thereby supporting <P13>. Where specific PR techniques are concerned, increasing public awareness and perceptions of the sponsor's brand or products are regarded as being very important, whilst community involvement is not. The latter finding is a weakness in marketing communications as the potential and need to influence such audiences, particularly over environmental issues, is increasing on the political agenda.

<P14> is supported by the research in that image is agreed to be important to motorsport sponsors. The potential change of a brand or product's image through the use of sponsorship is not regarded as being as important to motorsport sponsors as image enhancement and top of mind awareness. This implies that sponsors feel that they are already at the top of their game to even be involved in motorsport. The use of sponsorship as the focus of a multi discipline marketing and communications campaign is accepted (re-affirming <P12>) but is more important to car than bike sponsors.

The audience is important to motorsport stakeholders who are specifically interested in a highly targeted, lifestyle audience who can be entertained in a unique hospitality environment thereby supporting <P15>. Staff and shareholders are not regarded as highly, particularly amongst bike sponsors, thereby indicating that another potential use of sponsorship is being missed.

To be seen amongst the leaders through a sponsorship is seen to be of great importance to motorsport sponsors and particularly those who back cars. Linking one's brand to such an association is seen as being very necessary and <P16> is therefore supported. On the financial front the driving of company sales through sponsorship is revealed as an indispensable outcome contributing as it does to an increase in revenue and thereby confirming <P17>.

To satisfy <P18> all the propositions <P1> to <P17> were compared statistically and whilst there were great similarities between the two types of sponsor there were also some differences too and these have already been discussed in the relevant section.

These differences show that motor bike sponsors are not making as much use of all aspects of their sponsorships as car sponsors

The research findings reveal a remarkably large number of common themes that are involved in the sponsorship business plans of both car and motorcycle sponsors. In practice, where sponsorship is concerned both types of sponsor have been found to possess a very similar approach to their sponsorship's contribution to their marketing communications. In Chapter 6 a number of overarching yet significant conclusions are drawn from the findings.

6.0 - DISCUSSION and CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

This study set out to enhance the understanding of the sponsorship of motorsport. No previous studies have compared and contrasted the historic evolution of motorsport sponsorship of both the four and two-wheeled variants and in the public domain there are relatively few analyses of the reasons that a sponsor might become involved with motorsport. This study has therefore attempted to address these gaps in the academic knowledge.

This final chapter reviews the significance and implications of the findings in the wider context in section 6.2 whilst reflecting on and reviewing the study objectives in section 6.3. In section 6.4 some suggestions are made regarding the wider sustainability role that it is recommended that motorsport sponsorship should ideally fulfil to secure its public acceptability and consequently its future.

Finally, section 6.5 identifies some unresolved issues that flow logically on from the study and provide a number of suggestions for areas of further research.

6.2 Reflections on the significance and wider implications of the findings

The overriding finding of the research is the similarity in attitude towards motorsport sponsorship by both bike and car sponsors.

On closer examination this is not as surprising as it might seem as for some time there have been a limited number of sponsors which have had a presence in both of the two motorsport specialisms. A selection of these is shown in Table 6.1. Interestingly there is only one motor manufacturer sponsor which has consistently straddled the two forms of the sport and that is Honda, which constructs both cars and bikes to World Championship-winning level.

These sponsors have clearly identified that they can achieve their marketing communication aims through both motorsport specialisms by targeting their respective audiences. As one might expect the list includes suppliers of motoring-orientated products such as brakes, tyres and lubricants thereby illustrating that some of the early historical reasons for undertaking a motorsport sponsorship remain true today (see Figure 2.1).

Controversial brands that welcome an association with both glamour and risk, such as tobacco and energy drinks, are there too as are clothing manufacturers which might be expected to benefit from associated merchandising opportunities. The controversial brands are making use of the opportunity to circumvent more traditional but reducing advertising opportunities through the medium of motorsport whilst the clothing manufacturers are parading their products in front of the primarily youthful audience of potential customers.

Table 6.1

Sponsors with a presence in both F1 and Moto GP during 2003

F1	Moto GP
Marlboro	Marlboro
Michelin	Michelin
Bridgeston e	Bridgeston e
Honda	Honda
Petronas	Petronas
Castrol	Castrol
Red Bull	Red Bull
Alpinestars	Alpinestars
Fila	Fila
Brembo	Brembo

One has to guess as to what might be regarded as a “controversial” product in the future. The era of tobacco sponsors in motorsport is very nearly over, with Marlboro

at the moment clinging on but coming under heavy pressure, particularly in Europe. That Philip Morris should use every opportunity to maintain their presence in motorsport through their Marlboro brand is commercially understandable due to the product awareness this has already been created during their long term presence (Table 3.32). Alcohol is similarly regarded as a potential threat to health and sometimes conjures up unwelcome associations with drink driving. The research also identifies ethical drugs and underwear as well as products associated with contraception and personal hygiene as being sensitive to some elements of the global motorsport audience. Will some types of food, for example, become the next subject for a sponsorship ban? Already in Europe advertising for some foodstuffs perceived as unhealthy is being restricted at times when children watch television and this might be the precursor of a possible attitude change towards sports sponsorship. The obesity of populations has recently been flagged as a global problem and this may possibly impact on advertising legislation in countries where this puts capacity and financial pressure on health systems. One cannot ignore the sensitivity of religious beliefs around the world either. Potential sponsors of motorsport on a global scale should be aware of such limitations in various markets.

Both types of motorsport sponsor place great importance on the associated media opportunities provided by the global television audience. This may not be so surprising when it is recognised from Chapter 3 that at one time or another Bernie Ecclestone has been involved in negotiating the television rights for not only F1 but also MotoGP. His interest is evidently still there as Ecclestone takes some credit in the literature for having brought a second US round of MotoGP to Indianapolis for 2008 ((Spurring, 2007).

Motorsport has been evolving its business plan as the number of television stations has mushroomed. Despite huge investment Formula One has tried, with only limited success, to widely offer pay-per-view coverage. Other sports, such as football and boxing, have been more successful and there are possible lessons to be learned here. One important consequence is that the huge terrestrial television coverage achieved for motorsport is very important indeed for the attraction and subsequent retention of sponsors. As Formula One entrepreneurs Bernie Ecclestone and Flavio Briatore

weigh up a personal involvement in major football team ownership (BBC News, 2007) the motorsport business plan may soon be subtly applied in other sports too. Remember that Bernie Ecclestone’s route into motorsport was as a team owner.

6.2.1 Motorsport sponsors follow product adoption theory

The literature indicates that sponsorship is potentially able to influence directly or indirectly the product adoption process (Crompton, 1996) as discussed in section 3.2.9. Table 3.10 further illustrates the ways in which a sponsorship programme may enhance the AIDA (Awareness; Interest; Desire; Action) product adoption process through its potential to provide platforms for awareness and image enhancement as well as hospitality opportunities and product trial or sales opportunities.

The findings of this study indicate that neither type of motorsport sponsor is naïve where the potential of their sponsorship investment is concerned. The results confirmed what D’Astous & Bitz (1995) had stated that sponsors in general seek the two main sponsorship objectives of awareness and corporate image quoting Armstrong (1988) and Wolton (1988). In the case of creating awareness both bike sponsors and car sponsors agreed that this is either “very important” or “important” to them (Figure 5.6). The results of this study also reveal that image enhancement too is important to sponsors thereby supporting previous research by Waite (1979). Crompton (1996) indicated that the provision of hospitality opportunities (section 3.2.8) is an important benefit of sponsorship contributing as it does towards the “Interest” element of the AIDA theory and this is confirmed by the study’s findings.

Most motorsport sponsors are therefore closely following the first two elements of the AIDA product adoption process, namely strategies to encourage “awareness” and “interest” in their products or services. Where the third AIDA element of “desire” is concerned this may be addressed through the emotional message appeal elements of motorsport such as celebrity endorsement. Emotions generated include following for a national hero, patriotism, team affiliations, glamour, success, atmospheric, satisfaction and pleasure. All potentially contribute to the desire for an associated product or service.

Motorsport sponsors of both types therefore have the opportunity to follow product adoption theory very closely as the two sport's respective marketing communication platforms provide virtually all of the opportunities that lead up to the final AIDA element of "action". If marketing communications are suitably harnessed product purchase decision opportunities may therefore be successfully provided through motorsport sponsorship.

6.3 Review of objectives

The objectives of the study are addressed through the six hypotheses H1 – H6. These are reviewed one by one.

6.3.1 Motorsport sponsorship commenced in 1968 with the John Player / Team Lotus relationship (H1)

Chapter 5 establishes that sponsorship, as it is defined for this work, actually commenced at the time that motorsport itself started at the end of the 19th century. The initial motivation for motorsport was to enhance the attributes, particularly of performance and reliability, of the earliest motor cars and motor cycles in order to generate unit sales. These manufacturers thought competition to be so important that they entered teams themselves. By definition they became the first motorsport sponsors initiating the first motorsport sponsorships.

Association with racing by passenger road car and motor cycle manufacturers continues to the present day as they are still the major backers of elite motorsport. Success in competition is still seen as being important to the image of every day vehicles as an element of decision making in the product purchase process by creating awareness, interest and desire. This confirms research on the understanding of how sponsorship marketing activity works (Verity, 2002, page 163).

Whilst a facet of the initial competitions was patriotism, with vehicles originally being painted in their national colours, it was the Americans who at an early stage

recognised the power of association with motorsport for brands other than vehicle manufacturers. As early as 1915, for example, “Silvertown Tires” and “Bull Durham” tobacco were being associated with motorsport in the USA.

Fifty-three years later the Gold Leaf Team Lotus branding started to remove national colours such as British Racing Green en masse from Formula 1 and whilst this was an obvious turning point in the all-embracing branding of racing vehicles there had been plenty of previous sponsorship activity. Component manufacturers and suppliers had been present for some time and in the 1930s Raymond Mays had formed an association with Champagne Mumm. In the 1960s both the Bowmaker and United Dominions Trust finance companies, the latter having its own F1 team which sported a curious colour scheme which certainly wasn't British Racing Green, were prominent sponsors from outside the motor industries. They were also indulging in an early example in Europe of brandstanding.

The hypothesis therefore that motorsport sponsorship commenced in 1968 with the relationship between the John Player tobacco brand and Team Lotus is therefore not supported by the research findings. It in fact started when road going motor vehicles powered by the combustion engine were first invented in the late 19th century.

6.3.2 Motorsport provides a more successful branding platform in four-wheel as opposed to two-wheeled motorsports (H2).

The research reveals a remarkable commonality in attitude towards sponsorship by both types of sponsor. This is typified by the 2007 Yamaha MotoGP motorcycle team being backed by road car manufacturer Fiat which has long been involved in F1 through Ferrari. There are, though a limited number of areas in which motor cycle sponsors do not take as much advantage of the potential of their sponsorships as car sponsors. The findings reveal that bike sponsors, for example, had not at the time of the primary research made any significant use of business to business marketing opportunities

Where brand platforms are concerned bike sponsors are keener to make use of their rider than car sponsors, partly because they are more visible and actually become a major part of the visual branding whilst competing.

A thought-provoking scenario was thrown up by Stewart (2007, pages 453 – 54) which could go some way towards explaining the differences between two and four-wheeled motorsport and their relative perceptions and investments at the time of the primary research. This is that motor cycle sport has historically been seen as “blue collar”. Motor bikes in the world outside motorsport are largely cheaper to purchase and run than cars and they are therefore available to a wider range of socio-economic groupings than is the car.

Stewart’s “blue-collar sport” assertion may also be relevant in socio-economic terms in revealing why more money has historically been spent on car racing. The history of motor cycling on the road reveals the origins of this discrepancy. In the 20th century the relatively inexpensive motorcycle was traditionally available *en masse* whereas the car, like its racing counterparts, was initially out of reach to all but the well off, like most new technologies. At an early time the car was therefore made aspirational.

Both May (2007, page 199) and Sarti (2006) make the point that of necessity Vespa and Lambretta scooters revolutionised transport specifically in Italy but also across most of Europe in the aftermath of the Second World War in economies where petrol was rationed and roads were in disrepair. Motorcycles and scooters would subsequently take on a youthful and rebellious image in the 1950s, which was fed by the banning of the 1953 film “*The Wild One*”. This may well have been one reason for Stewart’s assertion as the associations would not have been attractive to those brands which might have considered becoming involved in motorcycle racing. Meanwhile as post-war economies and affluence improved the aim of many was to own the cheap Fiat 500 or the Mini car (Austin or Morris) which quickly became widely affordable. The motorcycle and sidecar combination would then start to disappear as a favoured family means of transport (Anon, 2007, page 101).

Bernie Ecclestone has deliberately built in exclusivity to his business plan for F1 (Section 3.2.8.1) and at its extreme the creation of F1's Paddock Club fourteen years earlier than MotoGP's equivalent may be explained by or contribute to car racing's "white collar" appeal. Motorcycle racing stakeholders have a number of years to make up on F1 but have been encouraged by the number of sponsors which straddle both motorsport specialisms. Tissot's identification of a differentiation (Section 3.4.14) between F1, which is associated with up-market and luxury brands, and MotoGP being more suited to mid-price range and mass market products (McCullagh, 2008b) gives another view of the positioning of the two elements of motorsport.

There is evidence in the literature that overall there has been, and continues to be, less money in motorcycle racing than in car racing. Trimby (2007) revealed that a top team in MotoGP in 2007 would have a budget of between £4m (\$8m) and £6m (\$12m) whereas the top manufacturers in F1 were spending between £30m and £150m (Sylt & Reid, 2007). Acknowledging that these figures may not indicate the actual spend on leveraging sponsorships it is clear that car racing teams operate with considerably higher budgets than do bike racing teams. It could mean too that where MotoGP teams are concerned the total number of opportunities that are available to leverage sponsorships may have been dictated by lack of available finance.

The environment of personal transport can also see history repeating itself. The aspirational effect that the Mini and the Fiat 500 had on the movement from motorcycles to four-wheeled transport in Europe in the 1960s is being mirrored in emerging economies such as that of India (Figure 6.1). The announcement there by Tata Motors of its \$2500 (£1300) car, the Nano, was of a vehicle described as having, "a lower pollution level than two-wheelers being manufactured in India today" (Tata Motors, 2008a). This phraseology was clearly intended to raise favourable comparisons against motorcycles and also to reveal the potential of a greener type of transport. Indeed the company also admits that the Nano, "has enabled millions to dream of a life beyond the motorbike. And, to the discerning observer, has the potential of changing the demography of car ownership in India" (Tata Motors, 2008b). The Nano has additionally been described as, "the car Tata hopes will mobilise a nation, getting families in its native India off their overloaded motorbikes"

(Sunday Times, 2008). It is clear from such statements that car ownership is intended to increase at the expense of motorcycles in emerging economies such as that of India. Research by AC Nilesen (2005) created an “Aspiration Index” for car ownership and India came out on top. When more manufacturers seek to compete the aspirational demand for cars will potentially seriously affect existing motorcycle ownership. The Nano is already being marketed as “the people’s car” in India and the consequence may well be that the motorcycle is seen as something to move away from, particularly for family transport. If not already the motorbike may well then be seen as “blue collar”.

Fig 6.1

The aspirational effect of the budget car in a growing economy

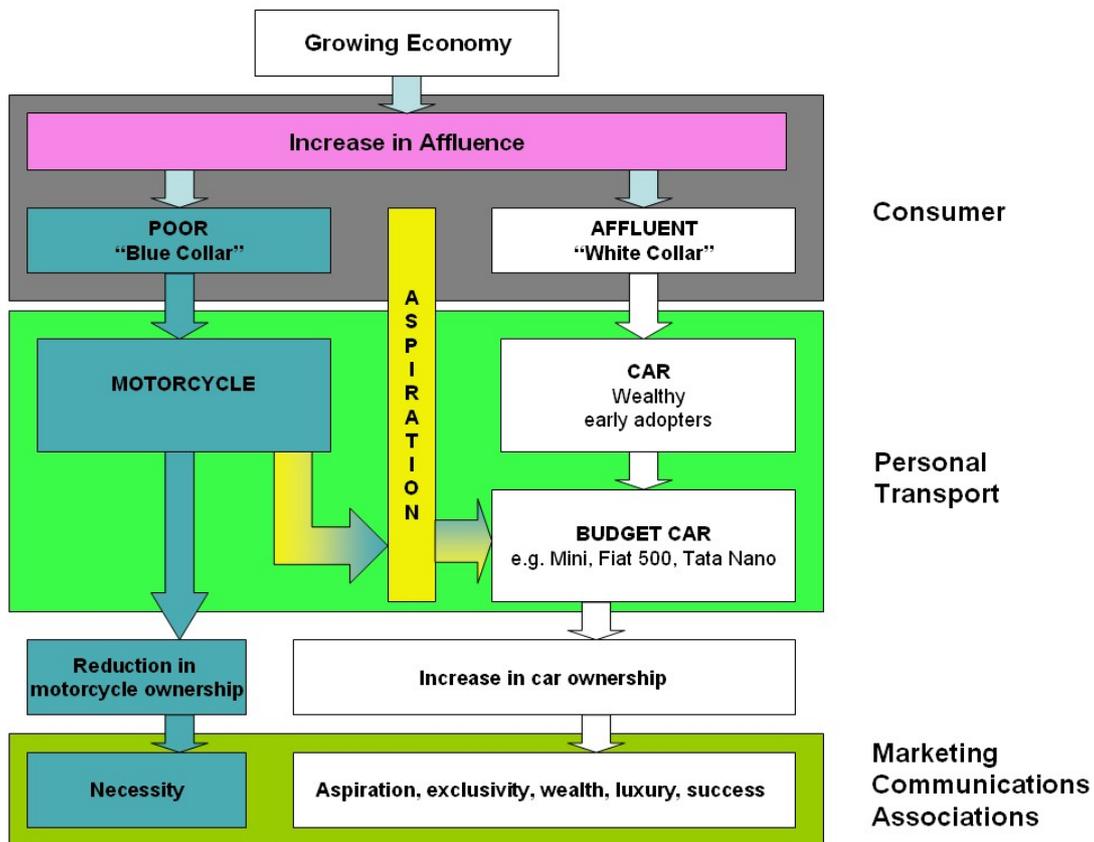


Figure 6.1 illustrates the aspirational effects of budget cars in growing economies which can be seen to be contributing to the brand associations of cars in general. As consumers are moved towards car ownership, motorcycles may increasingly be perceived as more of a necessity than a symbol of success. The associations achieved

by car ownership lend themselves more to the potential audience for four-wheeled motorsport and again may reveal why this form of the sport is perceived to be a more successful branding platform.

Such a situation could see one of two outcomes. Firstly, manufacturers of budget cars, such as the Nano, may be more predisposed to market their products through the medium of motorsport so the sponsorship finance and leveraging opportunities available to four-wheeled competition may increase. Indeed, unconfirmed rumours abound that Tata will soon be a F1 sponsor of Super Aguri possibly with the only existing Indian F1 driver, Narain Karthikeyan, at the wheel (Autosport, 2008). This, of course, maximises the potential of a “local hero” in motorsport for the sponsor as well as the patriotism of a nation. Such a scenario had certainly been the case historically with the Mini (2.4.4). Alternatively the motorcycle manufacturers may see the need to spend more on marketing communications to address their potential loss of market share. Two-wheeled motorsport could be a beneficiary of this attitude.

By virtue of the motor cycle sponsors not leveraging their sponsorships as much as car sponsors H2 is supported in that motorsport is indeed perceived to provide a more successful branding platform in four-wheel as opposed to two-wheeled motorsports.

6.3.3 Both four-wheel and two-wheel motorsport sponsors have media exposure as their primary sponsorship motivation (H3).

Media coverage and exposure is of great importance to motorsport sponsors of both types. This was established both in the literature review and is confirmed in the responses to <P6>. It is therefore right for the organisers of motorsports to concentrate on the media coverage, particularly television, given to the respective championships as it is a key motivation for all types of sponsors. H3 is supported by the research which established that both four and two-wheel motorsport sponsors have media exposure as their primary sponsorship motivation.

6.3.3.1 Does motorsport on television actually sell sponsor’s products?

In addressing H3 the research identified that a primary justification for most sponsors of their involvement in motorsport is the opportunity that such an arrangement provides for their brands to be exposed to potential consumers via the media and in particular television.

Doubt as to the validity of such an assumption – where awareness generated by televisual images generates product purchases – comes from researchers such as Dickinson (2000) who found that there to be no link between what people see on television and what they actually consume. According to Adlaf and Kohn (1989) and Strickland (1982 & 1983) none of the early studies that investigated the implications of both advertising and sports sponsorship by tobacco and alcohol companies established significant relationships. These investigations would have included those by Aitken *et al*, (1988), Atkin and Block (1980) and Atkin *et al* (1983 & 1984).

This counteracts voluminous research by those who have since investigated tobacco and alcohol advertising which has confirmed the potential for increased consumption especially amongst the young (ASH, 1998 & 1999; Austin and Meili 1994; Austin and Nach-Ferguson 1995; Chaloupka, 1999; Charlton *et al*, 1997; Grube 1995; Grube and Wallack 1994; Hastings *et al*, 2003; Lovato *et al*, 2003; Physicians for a Smoke-Free Canada, 2002a; Smee, 1993; Snyder, *et al*, 2006; UK Department of Health, 1999; US Surgeon General, 1989; Wyllie *et al*. 1998a & b).

Where motorsport specifically is concerned when a F1 team’s head of marketing, Scott Garrett of Williams, doesn’t believe that there is a correlation between the sales of cars and winning in F1 and that despite winning two successive world championships, with a Spanish driver (Fernando Alonso), Renault has not achieved a “significant” gain in car sales in France or Spain (F1 Racing, 2007b). Nottage (2006) differs in believing that Spanish sales of Renault have risen by ten per cent (Nottage, 2006). There is an obvious conflict of viewpoint from within the evidence in the public domain and some challenges to the established Win-on-Sunday, Sell on Monday approach. In contrast Toyota, “goes racing to sell cars” (F1 Racing, 2006a)

and whilst to date the company has never won a F1 race it is the world’s largest car manufacturer. So does motorsport sponsorship actually sell products including vehicles? Is only participation in motorsport and not success necessary to give the brand associations that lead on to product purchase decisions? There is a need to drill down further into these elements of motorsports sponsorship.

Isabelle Conner (2007) is certain, after extensive qualitative and quantitative research, that her company, ING, has reaped major awareness and specific sales benefits from its sponsorship of the Renault F1 team in 2007. Where sales are concerned thousands of accounts have been opened, credit cards opened and insurance policies started as a direct result as outlined in section 3.2.9 and in Table 3.33. Conner’s (2007) experiences on behalf of ING are unique in being not only in the public domain but also up-to-date. Until the results were revealed at the 2007 Motorsport Business Forum in Monaco many such statistics had been entirely anecdotal and unconfirmed. The pervasive atmosphere of commercial confidentiality adopted by motorsport sponsors had precluded such figures being publicly revealed as illustrated by the fundamental affect on the methodology used in this research as outlined in 4.4.5.1. ING’s experiences did not purely rely on the branding of a competition vehicle for televisual purposes although exposure in targeted media was a major purpose of a comprehensive sponsorship leveraging programme. That the media and advertising element of ING’s customer activation programme (Figure 3.1) included 74 TV channels indicates the importance to the sponsor of the television platform. Indeed many of the associated public relations events too were televisual in content such as local events, city events, driver appearances and press “feel it” events.

There is increasing evidence that companies such as Shell and ING have adopted Verity’s (2002, pages 163 - 165) definition of being “active” sponsors whereby they are actively leveraging or activating their sponsorship beyond simply creating awareness through the media.

It should be recognised that marketing is, “*the action or business of promoting and selling products or services, including market research and advertising*” (New Oxford Dictionary, 1999) and that the entire raison d’être of marketing

communications in the context of sport sponsorship is to assist in the marketing of products or services. As discussed in section 6.2.1 the respective motorsport platforms do provide all of the major elements to support AIDA product adoption theory.

ING's experiences as a sponsor confirm publicly that product purchase decisions are positively affected as a result of motorsport sponsorship (3.2.9.1.) with the documented results being shown in section 3.4.13 and Table 3.35. The company has made sure that every element of AIDA theory has been included in their business relationship with Renault F1. It would appear too that a new era has been reached in motorsport sponsorship in that a comprehensive leveraging programme, called “customer activation” by ING, is the way to make the most of a motorsport sponsorship business plan (3.2.2.1).

6.3.4 There is a positive correlation between the sponsorship aims of two-wheeled and four-wheeled motorsport sponsors (H4).

The similarity of approach to sponsorship aims by both types of motorsport sponsors are reinforced throughout the findings. Sponsors overall prioritise the backing of teams followed by that of drivers (riders) with the positioning of products being of similar importance. The potential for sales generation is regarded almost exactly by both types of sponsor. Whilst product consumers are the most important of audiences for both types of sponsor, at the time the primary research was undertaken financial institutions were the least important.

H4 is supported by the research in that there is a positive correlation between the sponsorship aims of two-wheeled and four-wheeled motorsport sponsors.

6.3.5 There is a positive correlation between the importance of different sponsorship measurement tools in two-wheeled and four-wheeled motorsport sponsors (H5).

The research identified a number of ways in which sponsorship is measured by motorsport sponsors, although overall bikes sponsors are less likely to undertake evaluation measurements. Both utilise benchmarking and tracking programmes and have almost identical views on the importance of comparing the perception of their brand against that of the competition’s brands. They do not, though, agree on the necessity for the correct identification of sponsorships nor the perceptions of brand attitudes.

H5 is therefore only partially supported in that there is some evidence of a positive correlation between the importance of different sponsorship measurement tools by two and four-wheeled motorsport sponsors but it is not universal.

6.3.6 There is a correlation between the marketing mix variables employed by motor sport sponsors in two-wheeled and four-wheeled motorsport (H6).

The research has found common attitudes being expressed by the two types of motorsport sponsors towards the traditional elements of the marketing mix such as advertising, public relations and sponsorship. Meenaghan (1991a) particularly drew attention to the potential of sponsorship to effect products and marketing communications and a correlation of the variables employed by motorsport sponsors, of both types, has been established supporting H6.

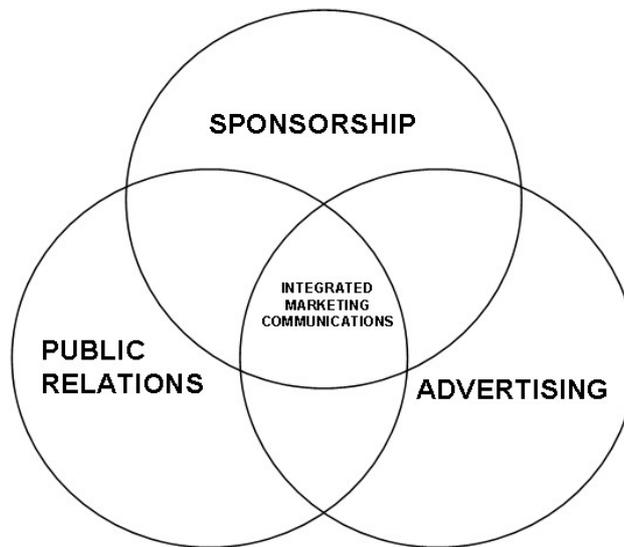
6.3.6.1. The importance of an Integrated Marketing Communications Plan

In addressing H6 the literature revealed a number of researchers specifically promoting the benefits of an integrated marketing communications plan for leveraging a sponsorship. For example Walliser (2003) and Cegarra (1994) suggest that sponsorship and advertising should be complementary (Section 3.2.3) and Shank (1999, page 357) encouraged the combination of public relations and sponsorship (Section 3.2.4). The practical motorsport illustration that supports such theories is

shown in Section 3.2.2.1 and also in Table 3.35. This is where the detail and the product purchase outcomes of ING’s integrated marketing communications plan is outlined. ING also fits Verity’s (2002, pages 163 - 165) concept of the “active sponsor”. For a sponsorship to work to best effect there is evidence that sponsorship, advertising and public relations need to work together as shown in Figure 6.2.

Fig 6.2

Sponsorship as an element of the Integrated Marketing Communications Plan



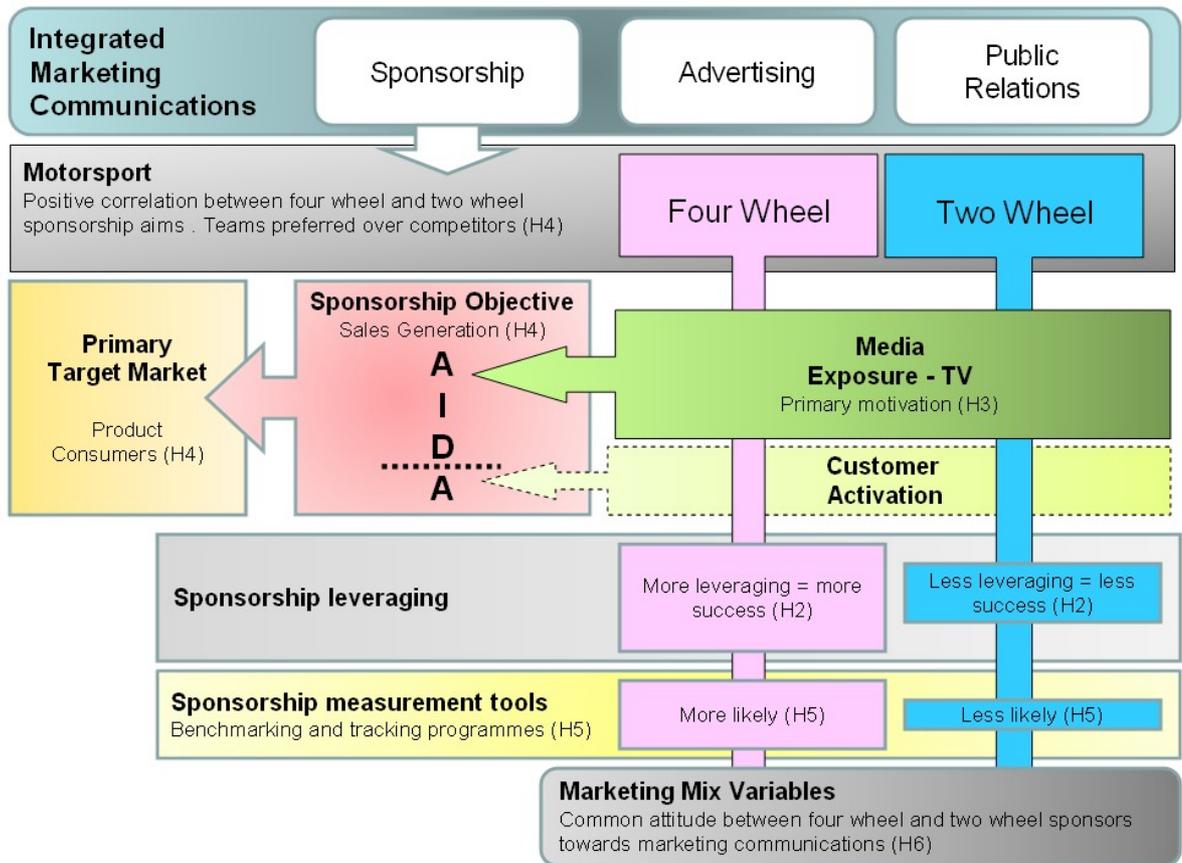
6.4 The Motorsport Sponsorship Model

The objective of the research, as stated in section 4.1, is to identify a model for the reasoning behind investment in motorsport sponsorship and to test and compare any such model against a sample made up of decision makers in both two-wheeled motor cycle racing and four-wheeled motor car racing.

This has been achieved and the resulting model is visualised in Figures 6.3 and 6.4. The former (Figure 6.3) demonstrates how the primary target market of product consumers is influenced during the product adoption process through the televising of motorsport and consequently its sponsors, whether two or four-wheeled.

Fig 6.3

The Motorsport Sponsorship Model – Part 1



The primary motivation of motorsport sponsors to use media exposure through TV broadcasts is shown to influence sales generation through the first three elements of the AIDA product purchase process. It establishes that “Awareness”, “Interest” and “Desire” may all be influenced by TV. The research postulates that the final element, namely “Action”, requires customer activation followed by leveraging by sponsors to be undertaken to increase the probability of overall sales generation and product purchase success. The research establishes in this context that four-wheeled sponsors are more likely to undertake leveraging and sponsorship measurement than their two-wheel counterparts thereby supporting the argument that the former are better at encouraging sales generation.

Fig 6.4

The Motorsport Sponsorship Model – Part 2

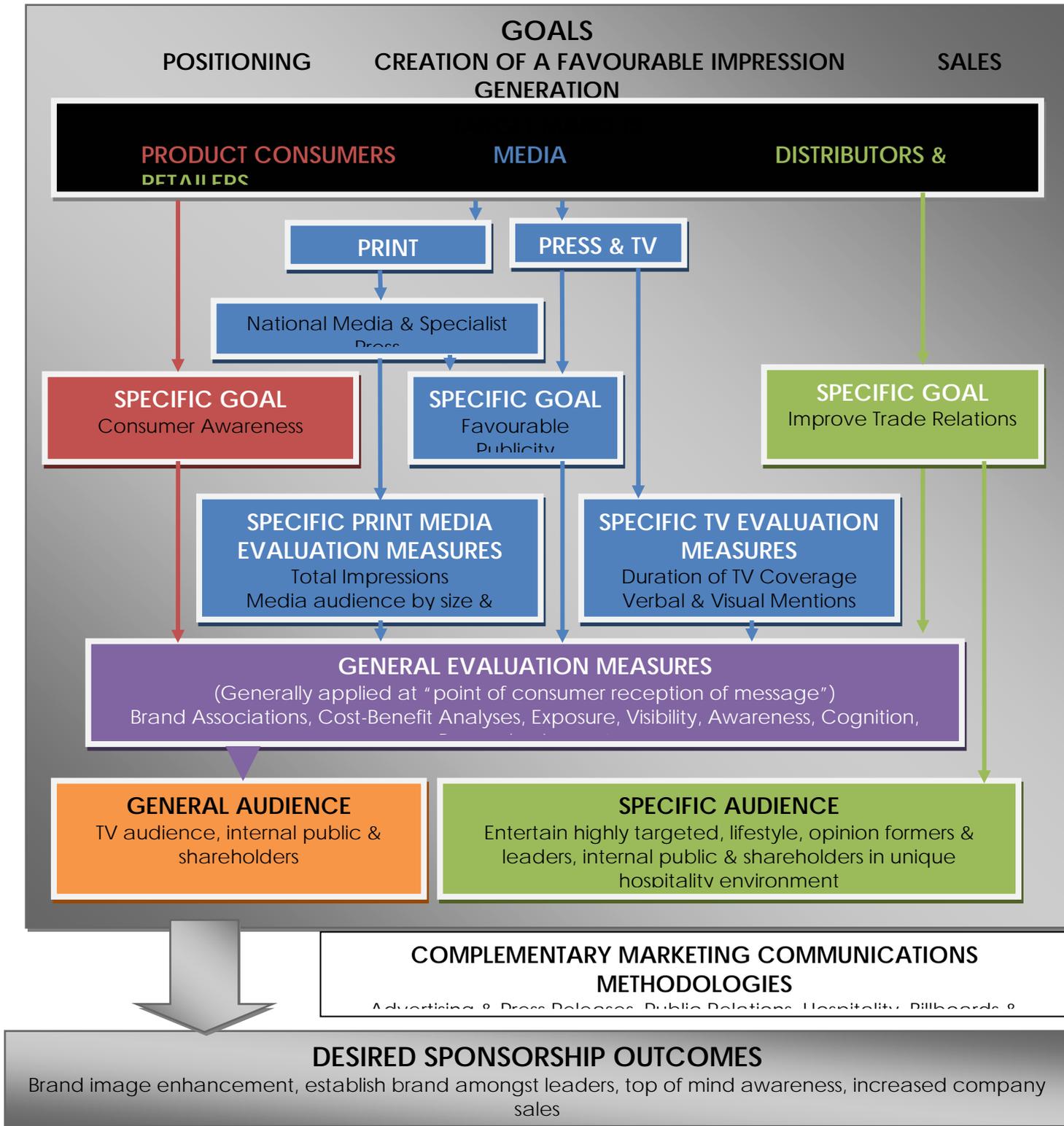


Figure 6.3 concludes by identifying a common attitude towards marketing communications and the marketing mix variables by the two types of motorsport sponsor. This is further dissected in Figure 6.4 which expands the model to include the shared common goals set by motorsport sponsors and the ways in which the specific target markets and audiences are consequentially addressed. The preferred evaluation methodologies are shown too as well as the shared outcomes.

6.5 Motorsport’s future is to lead research into greener fuels

The historical investigation of motorsport that is the foundation of this study has demonstrated that since the invention of the internal combustion engine in the late 19th century motorsport has always been at the vanguard of technological developments intended to feed through to personal transport. There is no reason to think that this will not continue to be the case.

The necessity to focus even more on this route is illustrated by the crusade of Max Moseley, the President of the FIA, to force F1 to acknowledge the big picture of public (and therefore political) concern over carbon emissions. He is well aware of the perception in some quarters of motorsport being both profligate and polluting (Codling, 2007). Tony Purnell and Peter Wright, consultants to the FIA, have also identified that, “Formula One is open to justifiable criticism that it is not just wasteful, but actually glorifies excess, flying in the face of societal problems such as global warming” (Spurring, 2007b).

The technological expertise in motorsport is ideally placed to undertake and continue research into alternative fuels and propulsion systems that will considerably reduce CO2 emissions. All this needs is the appropriate legislation from the sport’s governing bodies. The evidence demonstrates that both the FIA and the FIM are well aware of the potential here to secure the future of motorsport (Section 2.4.7). The associations created through the motorsport platform would be important attributes for many sponsors but particularly the motor manufacturers who are already addressing not only the necessary technologies but also their image in satisfying the demands of their customers.

Motorsport’s future *raison d’être* should be to accelerate the technological development of both leaner, cleaner and more efficient propulsion systems as well as the “greener” fuels that will power personal transport in the future. Such development has historically been accelerated through the demands of competition. If it does this the positive image projected by motorsport will be considerably enhanced with the general population thereby also guaranteeing the necessary sponsorship income streams.

6.6 Unresolved issues and suggestions for further research

A number of unresolved issues were not addressed by the research.

6.6.1 Are suitable motorsport sponsorship leveraging programmes being employed?

The assertions made in the literature about the effect of sponsorship on product purchase decisions requires definitive investigation. ING have shown publicly that it is possible to create business and to generate sales through their motorsport sponsorship. Wider investigation should be undertaken to examine the leveraging programmes of motorsport sponsors to see if they satisfactorily build on the assumptions where the AIDA product adoption theory is concerned.

6.6.2 The potential of the Internet for motorsport sponsors

“Through the internet and other digital forms the media has developed in a way that didn’t exist when I started in Formula 1[1994]. It is all so much more intense now.”

Red Bull F1 driver David Coulthard (Coulthard, 2007, page
291)

At the time the primary research was undertaken the Internet and the World Wide Web were not perceived to be a major contributor to the elements involved in the

marketing communications mix. Consequently no questions were posed in the research instrument regarding the Internet and its potential for leveraging or complementing sponsorships. No respondents referred to an on-line presence either in the open questions.

During the course of the research this situation has changed dramatically as websites, e-commerce and targeted Internet advertising have become increasingly important in the world of marketing communications. That ING's F1 motorsport sponsorship customer activation programme should include 85 portals (Conner, 2007), which was more than the television channels targeted (75), indicates how important an on-line presence has become. That ING specifically uses portals such Yahoo and CNN to leverage and raise awareness (F1 Racing, 2007c) is an important indicator. It should be noted that CNN is both a portal as well as a television channel so there is an overlap here especially as television pictures are now commonplace on the Web. It should be born in mind too that the Internet, through the medium of the World Wide Web, is looking to provide broadcast quality television in the near future.

Research has revealed that Europeans now spend more of their week online than they do reading newspapers or magazines (BBC News, 2006b) and the web is said to influence purchase decisions – online and offline – “more than any other factor” (DoubleClick.com, 2006). Indeed traditional television advertising revenues have suffered as a result of competition from the digital media in general, of which the Internet is a major element. By 2007 the Internet was attracting 27% of user's media consumption and was only beaten by television with 34% (Durman, 2007). Additionally in the UK online advertising has grown “from being the smallest market sector in 2003 to the third largest in 2007” and looks set to overtake spending on TV advertising by then end of 2009 . The second, third and fourth largest industry categories to make use of online advertising are Automotive (11.9%) Technology (10.4%) and Finance (10%) so the relevance of the new media is clear as all of these categories are well represented amongst motorsport sponsors (IAB, 2008).

The impact on marketing communications of the Internet is already being investigated by motorsport sponsors. For example the Australian beer brand Foster's entered into

an on-line campaign when they sponsored ITV's F1 website - itv-f1.com. The sponsorship was designed to increase online presence and brand awareness, encourage interaction with and deliver value back to Foster's UK customer, increase synergy with the Foster's Formula 1 sponsorship and to communicate the Foster's brand values and personality. Post-campaign, awareness that Foster's was associated with Formula 1 on the Internet increased by 20.9% as a result (ITV, 2005).

Foster's chose to sponsor itv-f1.com partly because it was perceived to reach a well established community of, “young upmarket males who are Foster's core demographic”. Subsequent analysis of the site's usage revealed that the Foster's market had been reached with 82% of users being ABC1 Adults, 61% being male and 39% aged between 29-34. The fact that 8.5 million page impressions were recorded in one month and that 700,000 unique users visited the site during the British Grand Prix weekend (ITV, 2005) illustrated the potential of the Internet where marketing communications associated with motorsport is concerned.

Similarly, the Lucky Strike tobacco brand sponsorships of both Formula One and MotoGP was intended to target an audience through the digital media of the time in addition to the more traditional TV channels (BAT, 1999b & 1999c). Whilst this research primarily recognised the influence of cable and satellite television the same philosophy may be applied to the Internet. Young people in particular are recognised as early adopters of new media capabilities and would therefore be perceived as a very receptive audience for such technologies (BAT, 1999a).

Given that one of the reasons given for the loss of F1 television coverage by ITV to the BBC for 2009 was that “fans will be able to enjoy uninterrupted, state of the art and innovative coverage from BBC Sport, across all of our TV, radio and new media platforms”, according to Dominic Coles, BBC Director of Sports Rights, indicates the growing importance of new media (Press Association, 2008).

More research needs to be undertaken to establish how the Internet now impacts on behalf of motorsport sponsors overall and how the digital media, such as for example YouTube, may be harnessed both now and in the future.

6.6.3 The influence of television

The findings of this research reveal that media coverage and exposure is of the greatest importance to both types of motorsport sponsor.

Where recipients of television and therefore sponsorship messages are concerned visual imagery has been found to be preferred to the written word by young adults (Postman, 1986; Reeves and Nass, 1996; Fam & Waller, 2006) but television advertising itself can be disliked (Biel and Bridgwater, 1990). There is criticism in the literature too that in evaluating advertising plans the size of audiences is considered more than the desires of consumers (Miller, 2004; Rotfeld, 2006). The latter is an allegation that may certainly be levelled at motorsport promoters who largely justify the existence of their competitions on the size of audiences. Indeed the core business plan behind most advertising campaigns is tied to the size of viewer, listener or readership audiences. But how many individuals within the respective audience are actually receptive to the motorsport sponsor’s message? Could there in practice be message wastage here that could be eliminated by different targeted marketing communications methodologies?

The implications of such academic theories and their relationship to marketing objectives associated with television and motorsport should be investigated in more detail.

6.6.4 The Internal Public

In section 5.6 the research established that it is twice as important for bike sponsors to influence the “internal public” than car sponsors. The reasoning behind this finding is unclear and this requires further investigation to achieve clarity.

6.7 The Research Journey

The research journey has been lengthy as the researcher has had a personal and enthusiastic interest in motorsport since 1968.

This interest developed from being an amateur competitor and then an official before writing extensively about the sport including three F1 team histories in book form. In examining the sport through this preliminary desktop research it became apparent that in order for motorsport competitors to be able to compete that a whole series of business skills were necessary. This realisation led to two conference papers (Grant-Braham 1996 & 2002) and two refereed articles (Carter *et al* 1998; Jones & Grant-Braham, 2000).

This early research triggered a realisation that not only is motorsport a competition between competitors on a track but also a competition to obtain the finances necessary to compete. It came as a revelation that just under this superficial surface motorsport has to be very big business in itself. Originally the researcher just followed the individuals, in driver and team principal form, but now an equal if not larger curiosity has been aroused into where the finances come from to sustain global competition at the pinnacle of motorsport. The concept that the sport's major income is actually sustained on worldwide television audience figures and that such ratings must compete with local programming in more than a hundred countries has been the major outcome of the research journey.

The researcher has sought to see how sponsors justify the large sums involved in their financial commitments to teams and competitors. The researcher had a number of anecdotal ideas but these needed to be investigated and either justified or rejected. The journey has had to involve an academic examination of marketing communication theory which was then applied to sport in general and subsequently motorsport. Whilst building this knowledge during the journey it became evident that F1, as the chosen example of four-wheeled motorsport, was not alone in its approach and the research was subsequently extended to include two-wheeled competition in the form of MotoGP. It had become obvious during the primary research stage that

some sponsors were involved in both racing specialisms and so it was entirely justifiable to make comparisons. The findings are therefore relevant to many other televisual sports too.

The research journey has exposed marketing communications and production adoption theories closely linked to sponsorship that were previously unknown to the researcher. Similarly the importance of the selection of the most appropriate methodology for such research was revealed on the back of one well intentioned, yet false start.

The history is seen as the foundation of the work and this has yielded the evolution and refinement of motorsport sponsorship over the last century or so and it is hoped that overall, when combined with the business literature and the primary findings, that this will contribute to the body of knowledge in a number of academic specialisms.

That the research should have taken a long time might be felt to have been frustrating but in practice to the researcher this has, with hindsight, been beneficial. It has enabled refining to take place and for the space to be created to contemplate implications of what has been revealed. A far more robust piece of research has resulted.

Appendix 1 - WSB Television Exposure analysis

Typical Sponsorship Exposure Results

Sponsor Category	Exposure per Race (sec)	Sightings per Event	Average Exposure per Sighting (sec)	Total Exposure per Season (sec)	Approx. TV Media Value (million \$US)
Golden Sponsor	1,300	270	4.8	15,600	61.3
Official Sponsor	1,000	240	4.2	12,000	40.7
Timing Sponsor (including graphic super-imposition)	1,200	280	4.3	14,400	47.5
Three Race Package (based on 4 boards, each 10m x 2m)	300	140	2.1	900	12.6
Single Race Package (based on 4 boards, each 10m x 2m)	300	140	2.1	300	4.2

Results are based on actual averaged data from the 2003 season

(Source: Superbike World Championship, 2005)

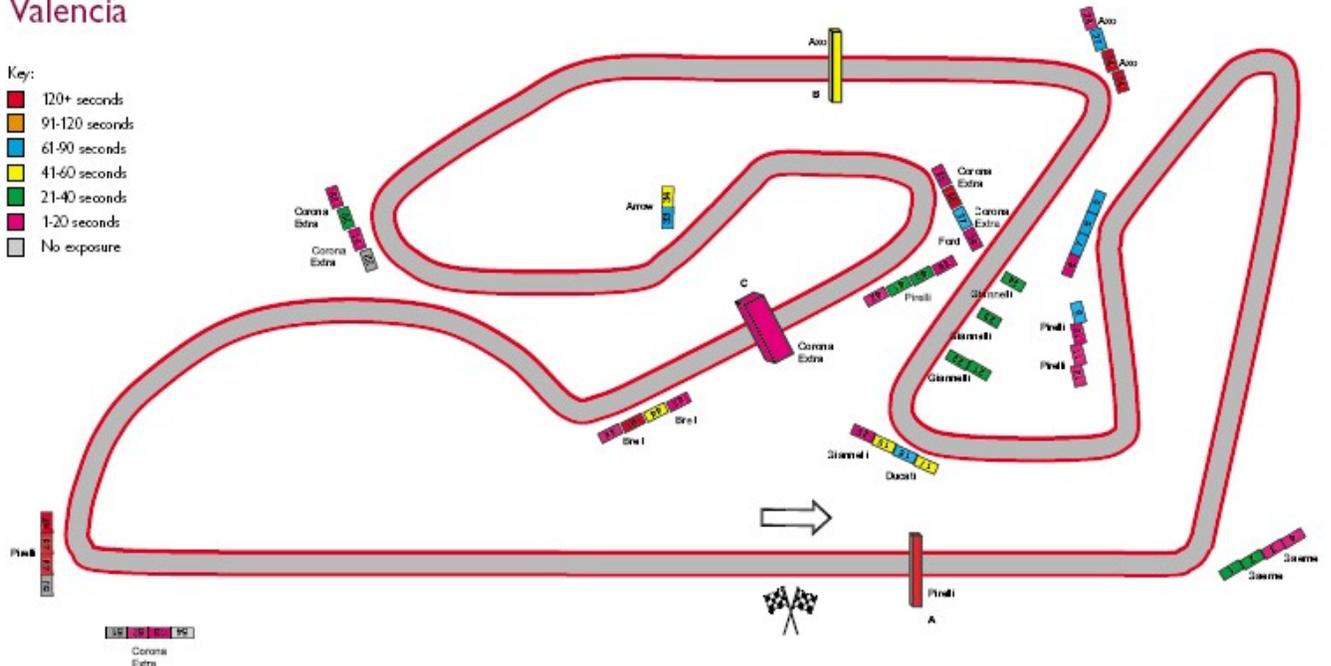
Television Exposure by Advertising Board - 2004 SBK Superbike World Championship Round 1 - Valencia

Circuit Board Analysis

Valencia

Key:

- 120+ seconds
- 91-120 seconds
- 61-90 seconds
- 41-60 seconds
- 21-40 seconds
- 1-20 seconds
- No exposure



Television Exposure by Advertising Board - 2004 Superbike World Championship Round 1 -Valencia

Top 8 Boards



Board Number 47 - 96 seconds exposure
 Board Number 48 - 290 seconds exposure



Board A - 115 seconds exposure



Board Number 36 - 99 seconds exposure



Board Number 25 - 133 seconds exposure
 Board Number 26 - 101 seconds exposure



Board Number 45 - 103 seconds exposure

Top30 Boards

Rank	Board No.	Board Exp. (secs)
1	49	0:02:07
2	48	0:04:50
3	25	0:02:13
4	Bridge A	0:01:55
5	45	0:01:43
6	26	0:01:41
7	36	0:01:39
8	47	0:01:36
9	6	0:01:17
10	37	0:01:17
11	27	0:01:12
12	9	0:01:10
13	18	0:01:10
14	5	0:01:05
15	7	0:01:04
16	33	0:01:02
17	44	0:00:57
18	17	0:00:52
19	19	0:00:51
20	Bridge B	0:00:43
21	34	0:00:42
22	40	0:00:37
23	23	0:00:30
24	21	0:00:29
25	22	0:00:28
26	1	0:00:27
27	24	0:00:26
28	2	0:00:25
29	30	0:00:25
30	41	0:00:23

Board No.	Board Exp. (secs)	Board No.	Board Exp. (secs)
Bridge A	115	Bridge B	43
1	24	29	4
2	25	30	25
3	12	31	2
4	12	32	0
5	65	33	62
6	77	34	42
7	64	35	2
8	12	36	99
9	70	37	77
10	20	38	2
11	11	39	1
12	7	40	37
13	14	41	23
14	11	42	1
15	12	Bridge C	10
16	4	43	1
17	52	44	57
18	70	45	103
19	51	46	2
20	15	47	96
21	29	48	290
22	28	49	427
23	30	50	0
24	26	51	0
25	133	52	16
26	101	53	4
27	72	54	0
28	4		

(Source: Superbike World Championship, 2005)

Appendix 2 – Covering Letter



Vice-Chancellor:
Professor Gillian L Slater
MSc MA DPhil CMath
FIMA FRSA

**School of
Service Industries**

***Serving the needs of
the Food, Hospitality,
Retail & Tourism
Industries***

Head of School
Professor Nigel Hemmington
BSc(Hons) PhD
FHCIMA FICPD

Dear

As part of my PhD studies I am undertaking an analysis of sponsorship and business support of motor sport.

Your company is well known for its support of motor cycling in particular and I would be most grateful if you would could take a few minutes to complete the enclosed confidential questionnaire, and return it to me in the pre-paid envelope.

I am fully aware of the sensitivity of any information given and would assure you that unless you were to indicate on the questionnaire that you would like to receive an executive summary of the findings there is no way that I can match up results to any particular organisation. In any case you have both my personal assurance and that of the University that no information on specific organisations will be revealed to anyone else and that the results will be entirely couched in generalities and trends rather than specifics.

Should you wish to ask me anything about the research I can be contacted on bbraham@bournemouth.ac.uk and I do hope that you will feel able to help.

Thank you in anticipation

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to be "B Grant-Braham", written over a horizontal line.

Bruce Grant-Braham

Enc:

Appendix 3 – Final Questionnaire



This questionnaire is entirely confidential and no individual will be identified in any report. The information you provide, will be aggregated into a PHD study investigating commercial support within the motor sport industry. The results from this research will be available in the form of an executive summary.

Simply choose your answer and tick the appropriate box or write in the space provided. There is also a general comments section at the end of the questionnaire for any additional comments or suggestions you may have.

Q1 Which sector of motor sport do you support?

Q2 How long have you been a supporter of motor sport?

Q3 Which of the following relationships, best describes your motor sport support?

- Title Sponsor
- Major Sponsor
- Technical Partner
- Official Supplier
- Other

Please specify _____

Q4 Please rank the following type of support from 1 to 4 in order of its importance its to you, where 1 is the most important and 4 is the least important.

- Team
- Event
- Driver
- Other

Please specify _____

Q5 Please rank the following list from 1 to 6 in order of what you want your support to achieve, where 1 has the most priority and 6 the least priority:

- Positioning
- Advertising
- Sales generation or promotion
- Indirect persuasion
- A favourable impression of your band
- Other

Please specify _____

Q6 Please rank the following markets from to 1 to 5 in order of who you wish to influence, where 1 is the market you most wish to influence and 5 is the least:

- Internal Public
- Key decision-makers
- Specific target markets
- Business to Business
- Other

Please specify _____

Q7 Please indicate which of the following you classify as your target market(s)?

- Product consumers
- Company staff
- Sales force
- Shareholders
- Distributors and retailers
- Suppliers
- Financial institutions
- Industry and government decision-makers
- Media
- Leisure Groups
- Local Community
- Other

Please specify _____

Q8 Do you evaluate your support?

- Yes
- No Please go to Q17

Q9 Do you measure the level of media coverage and exposure that your support receives?

- Yes Please go to Q13
- No Please go to Q20

Q10 Please tick which of the following print media measurements you use?

National media

Specialist press

Total impressions

Extent of news coverage

Media audience by size and composition ..

Number of logo exposures

Clear sightings of logo

Other

Please specify _____

Q11 Please tick which of the following television broadcast media measurements you use?

Duration of TV coverage

Verbal mentions

Visual mentions

Total TV exposure generated

Extent of news coverage

Media audience by size and composition ..

Number of logo exposures

Clear sightings of logo

Other

Please specify _____

Q12 Please tick which of the following wireless media measurements you use?

Duration of radio mentions

Extent of news coverage

Radio promotions

Media audience by size and composition ..

Other

Please specify _____

Q13 Please tick which of the following you measure?

Brand liking or positive brand associations

Communication effectiveness

Sales effectiveness

Guest feedback

Cost-benefit analysis

Q14 Which of the following do you measure for: your company or brand?

Exposure

Attention

Cognition

Behaviour

Visibility

Persuasive impact

Awareness

Image creation for brand or company

Impact

Impact recall

Familiarity

Favourability

Q15 Please state where you measure your support success?

Message Channel

Consumer Reception

Consumer's Sales Purchases

Other

Please state _____

Q16 Do you have a bench marking / tracking programme to measure.....

.....the correct identification of sponsorship with event / team

.....perception of brand relative to competition

.....perception of attributes associated with the brand

Q17 Which if any of the following do you use to complement your support.

Billboards

Signs

Press Releases

Advertising

Hospitality

Q18 Where your support is concerned how important is 'Public Relations'?

	Very Important	Important	Neither important nor unimportant	Unimportant	Very unimportant
Public relations overall	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Community involvement	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Public awareness	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Public perception	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Counter adverse publicity	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Enhance commitment to community	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q19 Where your support is concerned how important is the 'Media'?

	Very Important	Important	Neither important nor unimportant	Unimportant	Very unimportant
Press or TV coverage	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Favourable publicity from association	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Identity with market segment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Facilitate prospecting salesmen	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Consumer awareness	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Differentiate product	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Facilitate business to business marketing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q20 Where your support is concerned how important is 'Image'?

	Very Important	Important	Neither important nor unimportant	Unimportant	Very unimportant
Enhancing company image	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Provide central focus for multi-discipline marketing and communications campaign	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Generate image benefits in the media	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Increase 'Top of Mind' awareness	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Image change	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q21 Where your support is concerned how important is the 'Audience'?

	Very Important	Important	Neither important nor unimportant	Unimportant	Very unimportant
Entertaining clients	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Improving staff relations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Reach highly targeted audience	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Goodwill amongst opinion formers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Reassure shareholders	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Aid staff relations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Assist staff recruitment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Provide unique hospitality environment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Improve trade relations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Identify with lifestyle audience	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Please return the survey in the prepaid envelope provided or alternatively send it to: Bruce Grant-Braham -
School of Service Industries, Talbot Campus, Fern Barrow, Poole, Dorset BH12 5BB

Additional Information

Whilst the responses to the questions are entirely confidential, an indication of the following would be helpful to the research.

Your position / Job

Title: _____

How long your organisation has been involved in 'Motor Sport' sponsorship? _____ Years

Please can you describe the type of product(s) your organisation offers?

Executive Summary

If you would like a copy of the Executive Summary at the conclusion of this research please add your contact details below:

Name.....

Company.....

Address:.....

.....

.....

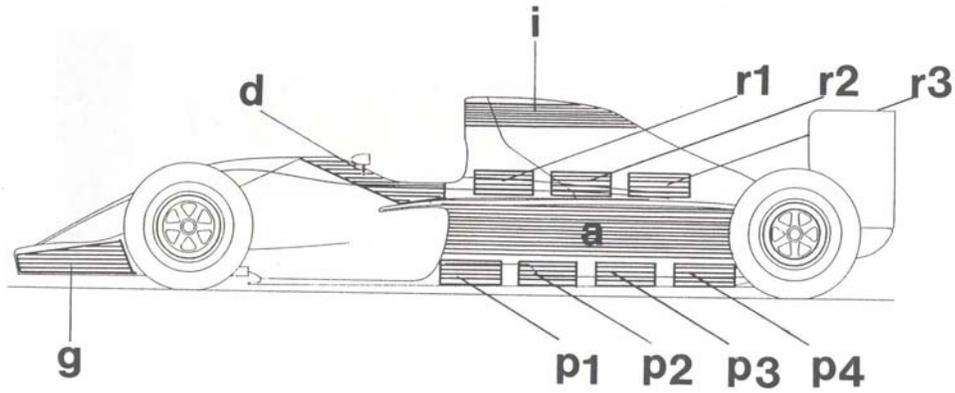
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Postcode:.....

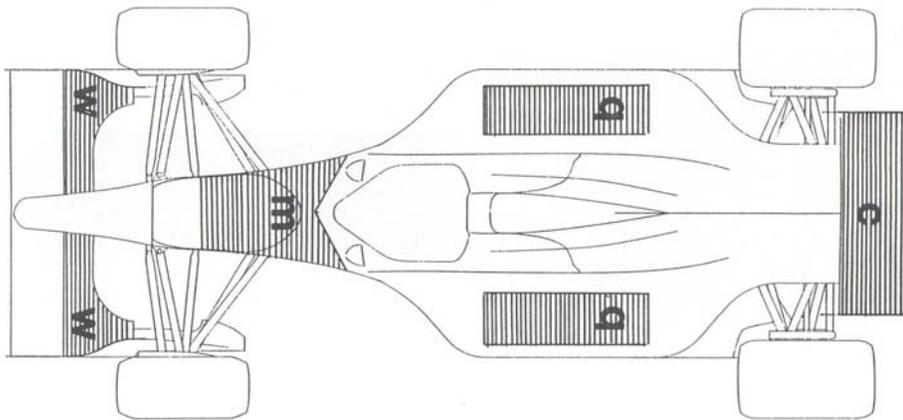


Appendix 4 - Car and bike sponsor logo placement

a) Racing car – F1



The shaded areas on the Lola F1 car, above and below, indicate areas of the bodywork available for sponsors to purchase. Areas not shaded on the engine cover and the rear wing end plates had already been allocated to a title sponsor.



b) Racing bike – MotoGP

Branding opportunities

Title sponsor

Fundamental livery of bike, rider, all support vehicles, pit & paddock paraphernalia, team clothing, web-site, stationary and merchandise in corporate colours and style
Branding in all areas shown above plus rider



Secondary sponsor

Branding available in individual areas shown above
Identification on rider, team clothing, web-site, stationary, selected merchandise and support vehicles

Associate sponsor

Branding available in equivalent area as shown above
Identification on web-site, selected team stationary, merchandise and support vehicles

Technical sponsor

Branding available in equivalent areas as shown above
Identification on web-site, selected team stationary, merchandise and support vehicles

Note: Colour scheme shown for illustration purposes only.

(Courtesy of Pagett Racing)

The illustration above indicates the prime positions for sponsor logos on a racing bike. These positions remain basically the same for all racing motor bikes. The picture below indicates how these areas are used in practice.



c) Motorcycle Rider

Because the major visible surfaces of a bike can be obscured by the rider the latter becomes an intrinsic part of the visible platform for sponsorship logos.





d) Automobile manufacturer sponsors MotoGP team

A major turning point in motorsport sponsorship as an automobile manufacturer sponsors a MotoGP team.

The Fiat Yamaha MotoGP Team was created for the 2007 season making use of Valentino Rossi as its lead rider and consequential celebrity endorser.

The success of the partnership was attributed by Paul Serracanta, Commercial Director of Dorna Sports, to the “*shared values that transcend the crude analysis that would say fast motorcycles could not be used to promote the sales of cars. Where others might have seen incompatibility Fiat saw aspects that it wanted customers to see in itself – dynamism, youthfulness, technology, speed*” (McCullagh, 2008b).



Appendix 5 – Tables

Table 3.6

<u>WHY COMPANIES SPONSOR</u>	
<u>To increase company name awareness through:</u>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• On-site exposure• Peripheral media acknowledgment and attention• Dual name reinforcement and synergism with sponsorship opportunity• Public relations• Customized product or service branding with sponsorship opportunity• Theme marketing, advertising and promotional campaigns correlating with sponsorship opportunity• Use of sponsorship as a medium	
<u>Identification with particular lifestyle or audience composition:</u>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Have sponsorship influence and attention rub off on their corporate image• Help position event as hero, thus recouping benefits• Companies are known by the company they keep. Effective imaging• Capitalize on groups commitment to culture through authentic, meaningful events• Demographics are compatible to our core consumers now, or in the future.	
<u>To differentiate their product and/or services from their competitors:</u>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Gain (exclusivity) through partnership• Associate with what is vogue. Stay actively tuned to trends and interests• Focus on community and capitalize on benefits through involvement in lifestyle beliefs and interests• Be a leader through active involvement• Actively seek out active consumers• Use sponsorship in conjunction with conventional media	
<u>Enhance Commitment to communities or groups:</u>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Through niche marketing reach highly defined consumers with little or no waste• Bring more to the sponsorship opportunity than initially exists• Develop group allies through effective sponsorship positioning• Build continuing partnerships through positive company and employee actions• Corporate endorsement may increase attention to property	
<u>Business to Business Marketing:</u>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Client and employee hospitality• Sharing the sponsorship alliance and opportunities with other partners can enhance future trade• Facilitate cross-promotional links• Diversify and expand the reach of all partners• Perceived credibility of the sponsorship opportunity by peers, competitors, customers and employees	
<u>Merchandising opportunities – income generation extensions:</u>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Supporting merchandise and apparel that self-markets and enhances trade• Discounts, sweepstakes, sampling, sales, contests and incentives• Retailer/product/brand promotions	
<u>Shape or reinforce public perception:</u>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Bring company within public focus at public/grassroots level• Create tangible relationships with long term value• Advertising campaign endorsing or promoting you affiliation, utilizing related graphics and editorial• Credibility and image of organizers	
<u>Administrative impact:</u>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Ease of transition in to sponsorship opportunity• Organizers commitment to the success of the sponsor• Stability of sponsorship opportunity	
<u>Impact bottom line:</u>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Company brand, product, service loyalties• Recovery of customers through more targeted marketing practices• Serves as rallying point for sales incentive programmes• Expands opportunities to multiple partners• Savings to company advertising budgets, depending on level of media connections• Self liquidating sponsor position or investment to other beneficiaries• Exclusivity options• Long term opportunities	

(Source: SponsorVision® internet pages, 1997)

Table 3.12 - EVALUATION CRITERIA

IMAGE AND AWARENESS

- Does it provide a good fit with the brand or corporate positioning?
- Is it unique, or is there a danger of its being submerged under other similar activities?
- Does the event have a legitimacy and identity of its own, or will it rely on the sponsor creating an identity?
- Is the activity strongly associated with other sponsors? Is sponsor "clutter" a problem?
- Can the event be incorporated into your mainstream advertising?
- Does the event/sport or activity have a clean image, or is it associated with violence or hooliganism (like British soccer), or drugtaking (like athletics)? Will that image affect the sponsor?
- Can the sponsor's name be associated with the event?
- How visible will the sponsorship be?
- What level of media coverage is expected?
- Will television cover the event?
- Will the media include the sponsor's name?
- Is signage available? What will be the amount, location, percentage of total and quality of the signage?
- Will competitors have access to signage? Remember that perimeter advertising or other signage can, like hospitality, brochure advertising and many other links, often be bought at events without becoming a sponsor?
- Will the audience be confused by co-sponsorship deals?

AUDIENCE

- What is the audience for the event?
- Do the event participants fit with a target audience in terms of demographics and psychographics?
- How many participants can be reached?
- How many fans will attend the event?
- Do non-participant fans fit with a target audience?
- How do fans of the proposed activity compare with average consumers of your brand? If the sponsorship is for a brand of gin, say you may discover that an average gin consumer drinks ten measures a week. Thus you can relate participants and fans of any activity to your average consumer for your product.)
- What level of fan involvement is there with the activity? Do they relate to it in an active manner?
- Do the audience for the event tend to be loyal brand purchasers?
- Do you want to reach loyal brand consumers or to make converts?
- Is the target audience geographically correct? If you are looking for a local or regional audience are you wasting money on an event that produces a national or international audience?
- Can the event be used to reach special interest groups or specialist markets?

SALES

- Has the sponsorship the potential to effect sales (on a regional basis perhaps)?
- Does it have sales promotion potential?
- Are there any distribution benefits, either wholesale or retail?
- Can your distributors get involved or be reached by the sponsorship? Are there any other trade tie-in possibilities?
- Are there any on-site sampling opportunities?
- Are there on-site sales outlets?
- Are competitors able to sell on-site?

MISCELLANEOUS

- How difficult or easy is entry into the sponsorship?
- Is it a sole or co-sponsorship opportunity?
- Are co-sponsors acceptable?
- What level of advertising and PR activity will the promoter/organiser invest in the event?
- Does the event provide employee motivation or training opportunities?
- Are there chances for personality or charity tie-ins to enhance the sponsorship?
- What manpower will the sponsor need to put into the project?
- How much control will the sponsor have?
- Does the event have continuity or is it a one-off?
- Can the event be extended or transferred to another region/country if successful?
- Are there possible long-term benefits or opportunities?
- Is it a simple or complex event?
- Are there spin-off or mini-events surrounding the main event that can provide added benefits?
- Is the event manageable and do the organisers have the necessary experience?
- Are there any legal restraints (tobacco or drinks companies need to be especially careful on this point), or are there dangers of controversy with the sponsorship?
- Can the event be test marketed - produced on a small or local scale before extending to the main market?
- Can results of success or failure be measured?
- Does the timing of the event fit with the training needs of the promotion being undertaken?
- Are there merchandising opportunities?
- Are there hospitality opportunities that will appeal to your key guests? Do the right facilities exist?
- Does the event add an extra dimension to your communication activities that aids the projection of a product lifestyle image?
- Are there revenue possibilities associated with the event?
- Will your involvement aid the event

(Source; Sleight, 1989, pages 111-112)

Table 3.24

Air time achieved during the 2004 F1 Championship

Brand	Team	Seconds	Team share	Total F1 Coverage
Marlboro	Ferrari	13,608	34.50%	9.84%
Vodafone	Ferrari	9786	24.81%	7.08%
Mild Seven	Renault	6490	25.91%	4.69%
Shell	Ferrari	5737	14.55%	4.15%
Elf	Renault	5582	22.29%	4.04%
Lucky Strike / Luckies	B.A.R.	4875	26.14%	3.53%
Honda	B.A.R.	4560	24.45%	3.30%
West	McLaren	4294	30.07%	3.11%
Ferrari	Ferrari	4170	10.57%	3.02%
HP	Williams	40443	28.08%	2.92%
I-Mode	Renault	3314	13.23%	2.40%
Siemens	Various	3016	Na	2.18%
Bud	Williams	2960	20.56%	2.14%
HSBC	Jaguar	2885	36.07%	2.09%
Michelin	Various	2392	Na	1.73%
Panasonic	Toyota	2360	42.59%	1.71%
Alpine Stars	Various	2340	Na	1.69%
B.A.R-BarCode	B.A.R.	2311	12.39%	1.67%
Telefonica	Renault	2176	8.69%	1.57%
Bridgestone	Various	1992	Na	1.44%
Credit Suisse	Sauber	1872	42.53%	1.35%
Benson & Hedges	Jordan	1707	37.72%	1.23%
Red Bull	Various	1628	Na	1.18%
Deutschvemogens'	Ferrari	1521	3.86%	1.10%
555	B.A.R.	1435	7.69%	1.04%

(Source: F1 Racing, 2005a)

Table 3.39
Edwards’ Five Stage Process

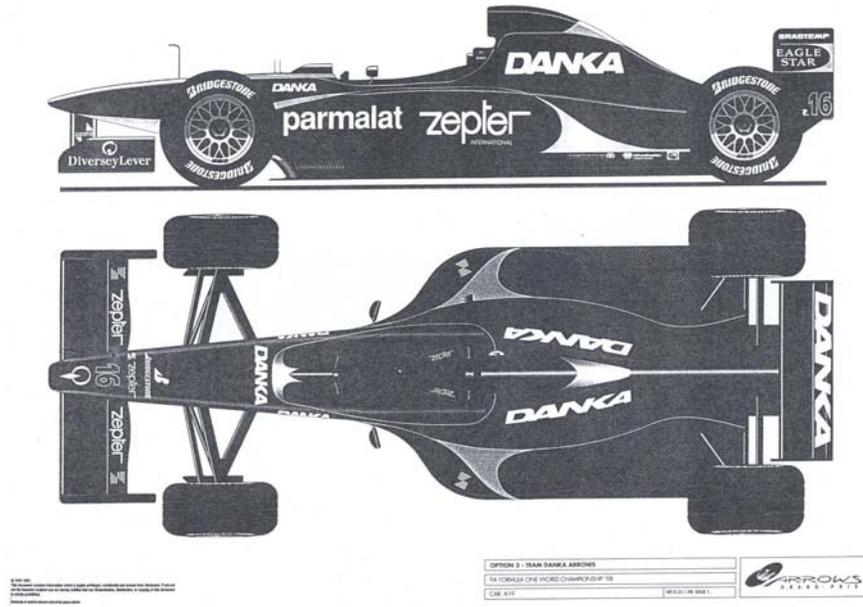
<p>1) The Platform</p> <p>The platform consists of two elements:</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Drivers • The Cars • The Teams • The Championship <p>a) The Racing Team – cars, drivers, team manager, mechanics, circuit hospitality staff, the promoter, publicity, sponsor liaison and technical support groups</p>	<p>b) The Championship series of races in which the team participates.</p>	
<p>2) The Benefits of the Platform</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • TV • Press • Radio • Live Audience 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Exhibitions • Recall promotions • Specialised press coverage • Trade fairs • Race day consumer promotions • Trackside support advertising • Photography • Point of sale promotions with car and driver • Specialised PR activities • Specialised radio coverage • Internal race reports • Circuit entertaining for VIPs, distributors, retailers, customers and staff • Film work • Racing car shows • Merchandising of branded teamwear via circuit sales, mail order, franchising, petrol station forecourts • Retailer incentive promotions • Consumer promotions • Sales force incentive promotions • Use of team in advertising • Motor Shows • Audience involvement and merchandising • Design • Video • PR 	
<p>3) The method from platform to Target</p>	<p>Produces Information</p> <p>Throughout the year, the team’s constant participation in motor sport produces information.</p>	<p>Instant activity</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Live audience • Circuit activities • TV • Radio • Press <p>Which is used as a basis for</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Promotions • Merchandising • Advertising <p>European Office</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • USA Office • UK Office • Company • Agency <p>This information is routed in three ways, as shown in column three, to maximise its effect on the target areas of product promotion and customer relations.</p>	<p>The Target</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Product Promotion • Customer Relations
<p>4) Product Promotion</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National and Regional Press • Specialist Press • Trade Press • Public Exhibitions 		

<p>5) Customer Relations</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Merchandising • The use of the team in advertising • Support media advertising • Point of sale promotions with car and driver • Circuit promotions • Deferred specialized television programmes • Deferred specialized radio programmes <p>This shows the various areas in which the platform can be made to work to promote the product to the consumer.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Circuit entertaining • Dealer retailer Staff Incentive Competitions • Trade Fairs and Exhibitions • Internal Press 	<p>(Source: Adapted from Edwards, G., “Speeding into export markets”, <i>Accountancy</i>, November 1987, pages 172 – 174)</p>	
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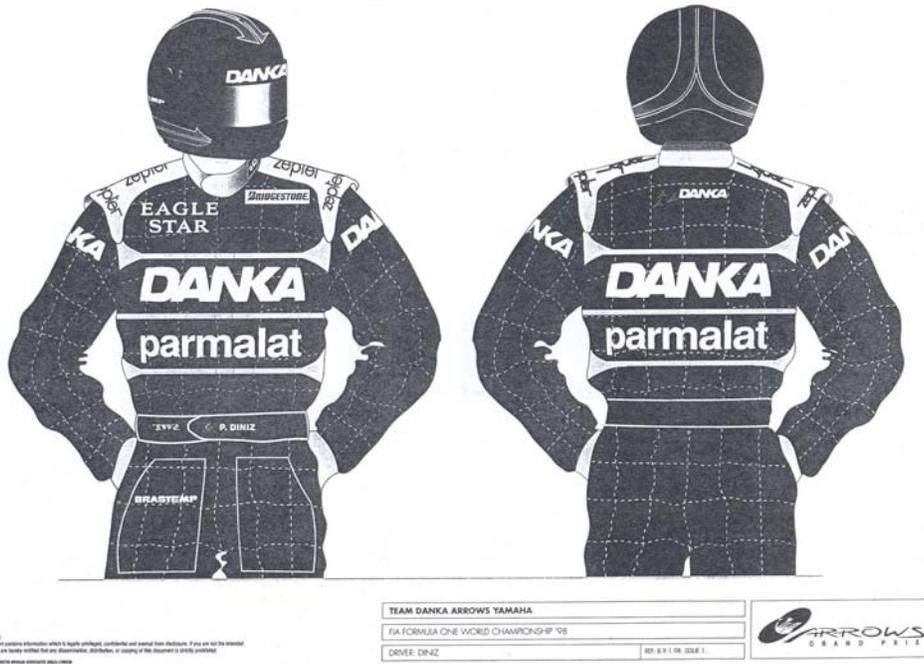
Appendix 6 - Team Sponsor Logo Placement

The following illustrations show how corporate branding may be applied across a complete team and its drivers. Missing are the additional opportunities afforded by team uniforms.

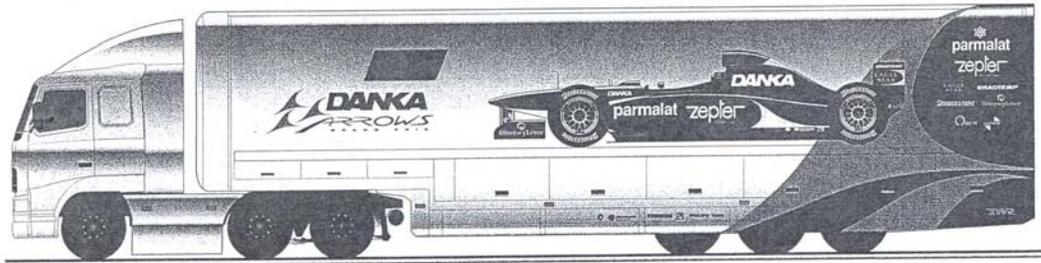
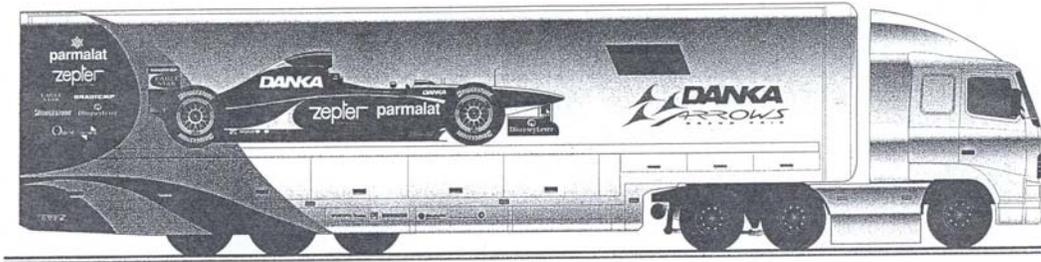
F1 race cars



Driver Race Suits and Helmets



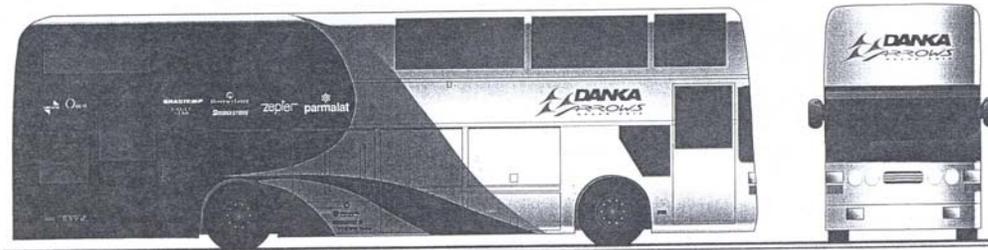
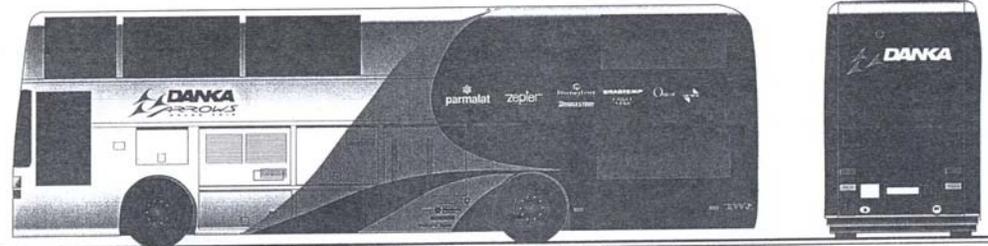
Team Transporters



© 2008 DANKA
 The Danka Arrows transporter vehicle is a highly professional, sophisticated and customised Formula 1 race car
 with the highest standards of safety and reliability. It is designed, built and tested to the highest standards of safety and reliability.
 It is a highly professional, sophisticated and customised Formula 1 race car.

TEAM DANKA ARROWS		
FA FORMULA ONE WORLD CHAMPIONSHIP '08		
TRANSPORTER	801 & 101 100, 8004 1	

Team Motorhomes



© 2008 DANKA
 The Danka Arrows motorhome vehicle is a highly professional, sophisticated and customised Formula 1 race car
 with the highest standards of safety and reliability. It is designed, built and tested to the highest standards of safety and reliability.
 It is a highly professional, sophisticated and customised Formula 1 race car.

TEAM DANKA ARROWS		
FA FORMULA ONE WORLD CHAMPIONSHIP '08		
MOTORHOME	801 & 101 100, 8004 1	

Appendix 7 - Mini Production Statistics



Mini Coopers winning the Monte Carlo Rally in 1964, 1965, 1966 (excluded) and 1967

Mini

1959	19,749	1970	278,950	1981	69,986	1992	26,195
1960	116,677	1971	318,475	1982	56,297	1993	20,468
1961	157,059	1972	306,937	1983	49,986	1994	20,417
1962	216,087	1973	295,186	1984	35,038	1995	20,378
1963	236,713	1974	255,336	1985	34,974	1996	15,638
1964	244,359	1975	200,293	1986	33,720	1997	16,938
1965	221,974	1976	203,575	1987	37,210	1998	14,311
1966	213,694	1977	212,323	1988	36,554	1999	11,738
1967	237,227	1978	196,799	1989	40,998	2000	7070
1968	246,066	1979	165,502	1990	46,045		
1969	254,957	1980	150,067	1991	35,007	Total	5,505,874

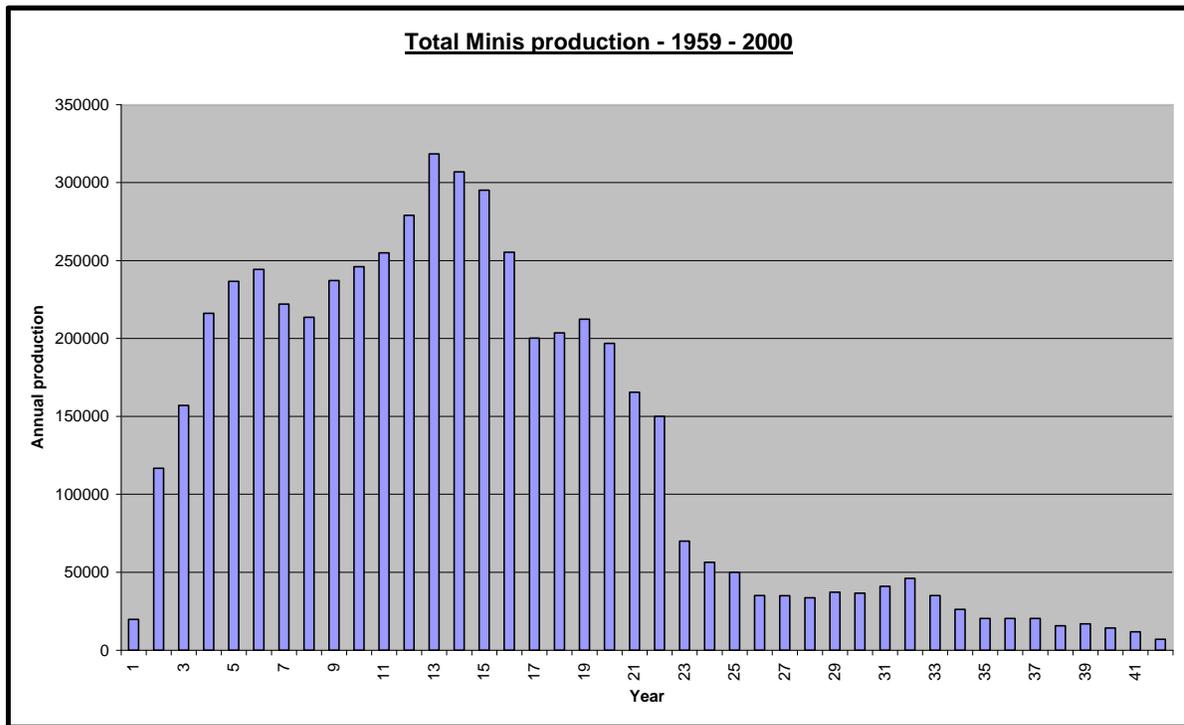
Notes:

Figures cover production at Longbridge, Cowley and Seneffe, and include CKD kits.

Mini Production Figures

Source: <http://www.austin-rover.co.uk> [Accessed 29.11.05]

The works Mini Coopers won the Monte Carlo Rally in 1964 (year 6), 1965 (year 7), 1966 (year 8) but they were subsequently excluded whilst achieving enormous publicity and 1967 (year 9).



Whilst Mini production was falling away during 1964 (year 6) and 1965 (year 7) until bottoming out in 1966 (year 8) at 213,694 units, production subsequently rose sharply to a peak in 1971 (year 13) of 306,937 Minis built.

Whilst the wider picture of industry mergers, competition from Germany and Japan, and industrial relations certainly impacted upon production, the figures seem to indicate the possibility of a rise in demand for the vehicle following on from the Monte Carlo successes. Other intangible elements of the marketing mix cannot be excluded but from the evidence it would appear that “competition” may well have contributed overall to the perception and then production of the Mini brand.

There is therefore some evidence to back up Hamilton’s assertion that, “when the Minis won the Monte Carlo Rally, that blew their sales sky high, particularly in Europe” (Holbrook, 2002, page 74).

Appendix 8 - Frequency Tables

How long have you been a supporter of moto...

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Less than 1 year	1	1.0	1.1	1.1
	1 to 2 years	4	4.1	4.3	5.3
	3 to 4 years	11	11.2	11.7	17.0
	5 to 6 years	13	13.3	13.8	30.9
	7 to 8 years	9	9.2	9.6	40.4
	9 to 10 years	9	9.2	9.6	50.0
	16 to 20 years	11	11.2	11.7	61.7
	21 to 50 years	21	21.4	22.3	84.0
	51 + years	15	15.3	16.0	100.0
	Total	94	95.9	100.0	
Missing	System	4	4.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Title Sponsor

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	61	62.2	64.9	64.9
	yes	33	33.7	35.1	100.0
	Total	94	95.9	100.0	
Missing	System	4	4.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Major Sponsor

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	57	58.2	60.6	60.6
	yes	37	37.8	39.4	100.0
	Total	94	95.9	100.0	
Missing	System	4	4.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Technical Partner

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	46	46.9	48.9	48.9
	yes	48	49.0	51.1	100.0
	Total	94	95.9	100.0	
Missing	System	4	4.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Official Supplier

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	46	46.9	48.9	48.9
	yes	48	49.0	51.1	100.0
	Total	94	95.9	100.0	
Missing	System	4	4.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Participating team

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	86	87.8	91.5	91.5
	yes	8	8.2	8.5	100.0
	Total	94	95.9	100.0	
Missing	System	4	4.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Event / Series Sponsor

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	87	88.8	92.6	92.6
	yes	7	7.1	7.4	100.0
	Total	94	95.9	100.0	
Missing	System	4	4.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Product Support / Supplier

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	86	87.8	91.5	91.5
	yes	8	8.2	8.5	100.0
	Total	94	95.9	100.0	
Missing	System	4	4.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Media Sponsor

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	91	92.9	96.8	96.8
	yes	3	3.1	3.2	100.0
	Total	94	95.9	100.0	
Missing	System	4	4.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Licence Sponsor

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	92	93.9	97.9	97.9
	yes	2	2.0	2.1	100.0
	Total	94	95.9	100.0	
Missing	System	4	4.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Merchandiser

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	93	94.9	98.9	98.9
	yes	1	1.0	1.1	100.0
	Total	94	95.9	100.0	
Missing	System	4	4.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Team

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	44	44.9	50.6	50.6
	2	27	27.6	31.0	81.6
	3	15	15.3	17.2	98.9
	4	1	1.0	1.1	100.0
	Total	87	88.8	100.0	
Missing	System	11	11.2		
Total		98	100.0		

Event..

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	10	10.2	11.8	11.8
	2	22	22.4	25.9	37.6
	3	40	40.8	47.1	84.7
	4	13	13.3	15.3	100.0
	Total	85	86.7	100.0	
Missing	System	13	13.3		
Total		98	100.0		

Driver..

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	14	14.3	17.5	17.5
	2	35	35.7	43.8	61.3
	3	23	23.5	28.8	90.0
	4	7	7.1	8.8	98.8
	13	1	1.0	1.3	100.0
Total	80	81.6	100.0		
Missing	System	18	18.4		
Total		98	100.0		

Other

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	19	19.4	39.6	39.6
	2	1	1.0	2.1	41.7
	3	1	1.0	2.1	43.8
	4	27	27.6	56.3	100.0
	Total	48	49.0	100.0	
Missing	System	50	51.0		
Total		98	100.0		

Please Specify

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid		73	74.5	74.5	74.5
	Constructor	4	4.1	4.1	78.6
	Contracted Teams or by sale to private teams	1	1.0	1.0	79.6
	High profile, high tech, leading edge, world wide	1	1.0	1.0	80.6
	League	1	1.0	1.0	81.6
	Motorsport development	1	1.0	1.0	82.7
	motorsports development	1	1.0	1.0	83.7
	Motorsports development	1	1.0	1.0	84.7
	Motorsports Development	1	1.0	1.0	85.7
	Product	2	2.0	2.0	87.8
	Sactioning Body/Series	8	8.2	8.2	95.9
	Sanctioning Body/Series	1	1.0	1.0	96.9
	Series	3	3.1	3.1	100.0
	Total	98	100.0	100.0	

POSITIONING

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	22	22.4	25.6	25.6
	2	34	34.7	39.5	65.1
	3	13	13.3	15.1	80.2
	4	8	8.2	9.3	89.5
	5	7	7.1	8.1	97.7
	6	2	2.0	2.3	100.0
	Total	86	87.8	100.0	
Missing	System	12	12.2		
Total		98	100.0		

ADVERTISING

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	7	7.1	8.0	8.0
	2	21	21.4	24.1	32.2
	3	20	20.4	23.0	55.2
	4	30	30.6	34.5	89.7
	5	8	8.2	9.2	98.9
	6	1	1.0	1.1	100.0
	Total		87	88.8	100.0
Missing	System	11	11.2		
Total		98	100.0		

SALES GENERATION OR PROMOTION

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	27	27.6	31.0	31.0
	2	12	12.2	13.8	44.8
	3	26	26.5	29.9	74.7
	4	10	10.2	11.5	86.2
	5	12	12.2	13.8	100.0
	Total		87	88.8	100.0
Missing	System	11	11.2		
Total		98	100.0		

INDIRECT PERSUASION

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	4	4.1	4.7	4.7
	2	5	5.1	5.8	10.5
	3	8	8.2	9.3	19.8
	4	18	18.4	20.9	40.7
	5	41	41.8	47.7	88.4
	6	10	10.2	11.6	100.0
Total		86	87.8	100.0	
Missing	System	12	12.2		
Total		98	100.0		

A FAVOURABLE IMPRESSION OF YOUR BRAND

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	29	29.6	33.0	33.0
	2	18	18.4	20.5	53.4
	3	16	16.3	18.2	71.6
	4	17	17.3	19.3	90.9
	5	8	8.2	9.1	100.0
	Total	88	89.8	100.0	
Missing	System	10	10.2		
Total		98	100.0		

Other

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid		61	62.2	62.2	62.2
	1 - awareness	1	1.0	1.0	63.3
	1 - Tech feedback	2	2.0	2.0	65.3
	2 - informal relationship building with clients, analysts, media	1	1.0	1.0	66.3
	3 - Image up of the company	1	1.0	1.0	67.3
	5 - Marketing	1	1.0	1.0	68.4
	5 - Marketing	8	8.2	8.2	76.5
	6 - Brand Exposure	1	1.0	1.0	77.6
	6 - Employee programs	2	2.0	2.0	79.6
	6 - Employee Programs	1	1.0	1.0	80.6
	6 - new business	1	1.0	1.0	81.6
	6 - Product Lease	2	2.0	2.0	83.7
	6 - technology transfer	3	3.1	3.1	86.7
	6 - Technology transfer	1	1.0	1.0	87.8
	6	12	12.2	12.2	100.0
	Total	98	100.0	100.0	

Internal public

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	10	10.2	11.6	11.6
	2	16	16.3	18.6	30.2
	3	11	11.2	12.8	43.0
	4	35	35.7	40.7	83.7
	5	14	14.3	16.3	100.0
Total		86	87.8	100.0	
Missing	System	12	12.2		
Total		98	100.0		

Key decision makers

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	15	15.3	17.9	17.9
	2	29	29.6	34.5	52.4
	3	29	29.6	34.5	86.9
	4	7	7.1	8.3	95.2
	5	3	3.1	3.6	98.8
	31	1	1.0	1.2	100.0
Total		84	85.7	100.0	
Missing	System	14	14.3		
Total		98	100.0		

specific target markets

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	40	40.8	48.8	48.8
	2	27	27.6	32.9	81.7
	3	10	10.2	12.2	93.9
	4	5	5.1	6.1	100.0
Total		82	83.7	100.0	
Missing	System	16	16.3		
Total		98	100.0		

Business to business

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	9	9.2	10.7	10.7
	2	16	16.3	19.0	29.8
	3	30	30.6	35.7	65.5
	4	29	29.6	34.5	100.0
	Total	84	85.7	100.0	
Missing	System	14	14.3		
Total		98	100.0		

Other

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	13	13.3	40.6	40.6
	2	1	1.0	3.1	43.8
	4	4	4.1	12.5	56.3
	5	14	14.3	43.8	100.0
	Total	32	32.7	100.0	
Missing	System	66	67.3		
Total		98	100.0		

Other please specify

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid		80	81.6	81.6	81.6
	Business Clients and Prospects	1	1.0	1.0	82.7
	for brand awareness	1	1.0	1.0	83.7
	General Consumer	9	9.2	9.2	92.9
	General consumers overall	2	2.0	2.0	94.9
	General Consumers overall	1	1.0	1.0	95.9
	Global customers	1	1.0	1.0	96.9
	Media Outlets	3	3.1	3.1	100.0
	Total	98	100.0	100.0	

Please indicate which of the following you classify as your target markets - Product consumers

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	14	14.3	14.7	14.7
	Product consumers	81	82.7	85.3	100.0
	Total	95	96.9	100.0	
Missing	System	3	3.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Please indicate which of the following you classify as your target markets - Company staff

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	71	72.4	74.7	74.7
	Company staff	24	24.5	25.3	100.0
	Total	95	96.9	100.0	
Missing	System	3	3.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Please indicate which of the following you classify as your target markets - Sales force

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	76	77.6	80.0	80.0
	Sales force	19	19.4	20.0	100.0
	Total	95	96.9	100.0	
Missing	System	3	3.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Please indicate which of the following you classify as your target markets - Shareholders

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	70	71.4	73.7	73.7
	Shareholders	25	25.5	26.3	100.0
	Total	95	96.9	100.0	
Missing	System	3	3.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Please indicate which of the following you classify as your target markets - Distributors and retailers

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	45	45.9	47.4	47.4
	Distributors and retailers	50	51.0	52.6	100.0
	Total	95	96.9	100.0	
Missing	System	3	3.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Please indicate which of the following you classify as your target markets - Suppliers

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	77	78.6	81.1	81.1
	Suppliers	18	18.4	18.9	100.0
	Total	95	96.9	100.0	
Missing	System	3	3.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Please indicate which of the following you classify as your target markets - Financial institutions

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	88	89.8	92.6	92.6
	Financial institutions	7	7.1	7.4	100.0
	Total	95	96.9	100.0	
Missing	System	3	3.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Please indicate which of the following you classify as your target markets - INdustry and govt decision makers

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	69	70.4	72.6	72.6
	INdustry and govt decision makers	26	26.5	27.4	100.0
	Total	95	96.9	100.0	
Missing	System	3	3.1		
Total		98	100.0		

**Please indicate which of the following you classify as your target markets -
Media**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	37	37.8	38.9	38.9
	Media	58	59.2	61.1	100.0
	Total	95	96.9	100.0	
Missing	System	3	3.1		
Total		98	100.0		

**Please indicate which of the following you classify as your target markets - Leisure
groups**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	75	76.5	78.9	78.9
	Leisure groups	20	20.4	21.1	100.0
	Total	95	96.9	100.0	
Missing	System	3	3.1		
Total		98	100.0		

**Please indicate which of the following you classify as your target markets - Local
community**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	81	82.7	85.3	85.3
	Local community	14	14.3	14.7	100.0
	Total	95	96.9	100.0	
Missing	System	3	3.1		
Total		98	100.0		

**Please indicate which of the following you classify as your target markets -
Other**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	93	94.9	97.9	97.9
	Other	2	2.0	2.1	100.0
	Total	95	96.9	100.0	
Missing	System	3	3.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Other

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	96	98.0	98.0	98.0
Clients	1	1.0	1.0	99.0
Men 20-35 yrs old	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
Total	98	100.0	100.0	

Do you evaluate your support

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Yes	82	83.7	83.7	83.7
No	16	16.3	16.3	100.0
Total	98	100.0	100.0	

Do you measure the level of media coverage...

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Yes	77	78.6	96.3	96.3
No	3	3.1	3.8	100.0
Total	80	81.6	100.0	
Missing System	18	18.4		
Total	98	100.0		

Please tick which of the following print m... - National Media

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 0	7	7.1	15.9	15.9
National Media	37	37.8	84.1	100.0
Total	44	44.9	100.0	
Missing System	54	55.1		
Total	98	100.0		

Please tick which of the following print m... - Specialist press

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 0	10	10.2	22.7	22.7
Specialist press	34	34.7	77.3	100.0
Total	44	44.9	100.0	
Missing System	54	55.1		
Total	98	100.0		

Please tick which of the following print m... - Totalimpressions

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	23	23.5	52.3	52.3
	Totalimpressions	21	21.4	47.7	100.0
	Total	44	44.9	100.0	
Missing	System	54	55.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Please tick which of the following print m... - Extent of news coverage

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	30	30.6	68.2	68.2
	Extent of news coverage	14	14.3	31.8	100.0
	Total	44	44.9	100.0	
Missing	System	54	55.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Please tick which of the following print m... - Media audience by size and composition

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	23	23.5	52.3	52.3
	Media audience by size and composition	21	21.4	47.7	100.0
	Total	44	44.9	100.0	
Missing	System	54	55.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Please tick which of the following print m... - Number and logo exposures

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	27	27.6	61.4	61.4
	Number and logo exposures	17	17.3	38.6	100.0
	Total	44	44.9	100.0	
Missing	System	54	55.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Please tick which of the following print m... - Clear sightings of logo

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	28	28.6	63.6	63.6
	Clear sightings of logo	16	16.3	36.4	100.0
	Total	44	44.9	100.0	
Missing	System	54	55.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Please tick which of the following print m... - Other

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	43	43.9	97.7	97.7
	Other	1	1.0	2.3	100.0
	Total	44	44.9	100.0	
Missing	System	54	55.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Please specify

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	97	99.0	99.0	99.0
	Product Launch Promotions	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
	Total	98	100.0	100.0	

Please tick which of the following televis... - Duration of TV coverage

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	15	15.3	34.1	34.1
	Duration of TV coverage	29	29.6	65.9	100.0
	Total	44	44.9	100.0	
Missing	System	54	55.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Please tick which of the following televis... - Verbal mentions

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	23	23.5	52.3	52.3
	Verbal mentions	21	21.4	47.7	100.0
	Total	44	44.9	100.0	
Missing	System	54	55.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Please tick which of the following televis... - Visual mentions

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	18	18.4	40.9	40.9
	Visual mentions	26	26.5	59.1	100.0
	Total	44	44.9	100.0	
Missing	System	54	55.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Please tick which of the following televis... - Total TV exposure generated

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	18	18.4	40.9	40.9
	Total TV exposure generated	26	26.5	59.1	100.0
	Total	44	44.9	100.0	
Missing	System	54	55.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Please tick which of the following televis... - Extent of news coverage

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	27	27.6	61.4	61.4
	Extent of news coverage	17	17.3	38.6	100.0
	Total	44	44.9	100.0	
Missing	System	54	55.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Please tick which of the following televis... - Media audience by size and composition

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	22	22.4	50.0	50.0
	Media audience by size and composition	22	22.4	50.0	100.0
	Total	44	44.9	100.0	
Missing	System	54	55.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Please tick which of the following televis... - Number of logo exposures

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	31	31.6	70.5	70.5
	Number of logo exposures	13	13.3	29.5	100.0
	Total	44	44.9	100.0	
Missing	System	54	55.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Please tick which of the following televis... - Clear sighting of logo

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	23	23.5	52.3	52.3
	Clear sighting of logo	21	21.4	47.7	100.0
	Total	44	44.9	100.0	
Missing	System	54	55.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Please tick which of the following televis... - Other

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	43	43.9	97.7	97.7
	Other	1	1.0	2.3	100.0
	Total	44	44.9	100.0	
Missing	System	54	55.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Please tick which of the following televis... - code 10

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	44	44.9	100.0	100.0
Missing	System	54	55.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Please specify

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid		98	100.0	100.0	100.0

Please tick which of the following wireles... - Duration of radio mentions

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	21	21.4	67.7	67.7
	Duration of radio mentions	10	10.2	32.3	100.0
	Total	31	31.6	100.0	
Missing	System	67	68.4		
Total		98	100.0		

Please tick which of the following wireles... - Extent of news coverage

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	12	12.2	38.7	38.7
	Extent of news coverage	19	19.4	61.3	100.0
	Total	31	31.6	100.0	
Missing	System	67	68.4		
Total		98	100.0		

Please tick which of the following wireles... - Radio promotions

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	11	11.2	35.5	35.5
	Radio promotions	20	20.4	64.5	100.0
	Total	31	31.6	100.0	
Missing	System	67	68.4		
Total		98	100.0		

Please tick which of the following wireles... - Media audience by size and composition

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	19	19.4	61.3	61.3
	Media audience by size and composition	12	12.2	38.7	100.0
	Total	31	31.6	100.0	
Missing	System	67	68.4		
Total		98	100.0		

Please tick which of the following wireles... - Other

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	31	31.6	100.0	100.0
Missing	System	67	68.4		
Total		98	100.0		

Please specify

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid		98	100.0	100.0	100.0

Please tick which of the following you mea... - Brand liking or positive brand associations

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	19	19.4	26.8	26.8
	Brand liking or positive brand associations	52	53.1	73.2	100.0
	Total	71	72.4	100.0	
Missing	System	27	27.6		
Total		98	100.0		

Please tick which of the following you mea... - communication effectiveness

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	27	27.6	38.0	38.0
	communication effectiveness	44	44.9	62.0	100.0
	Total	71	72.4	100.0	
Missing	System	27	27.6		
Total		98	100.0		

Please tick which of the following you mea... - sales effectiveness

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	45	45.9	63.4	63.4
	sales effectiveness	26	26.5	36.6	100.0
	Total	71	72.4	100.0	
Missing	System	27	27.6		
Total		98	100.0		

Please tick which of the following you mea... - guest feedback

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	39	39.8	54.9	54.9
	guest feedback	32	32.7	45.1	100.0
	Total	71	72.4	100.0	
Missing	System	27	27.6		
Total		98	100.0		

Please tick which of the following you mea... - cost-benefit analysis

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	27	27.6	38.0	38.0
	cost-benefit analysis	44	44.9	62.0	100.0
	Total	71	72.4	100.0	
Missing	System	27	27.6		
Total		98	100.0		

Which of the following do you measure for ... - Exposure

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	3	3.1	4.7	4.7
	Exposure	61	62.2	95.3	100.0
	Total	64	65.3	100.0	
Missing	System	34	34.7		
Total		98	100.0		

Which of the following do you measure for ... - Attention

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	37	37.8	57.8	57.8
	Attention	27	27.6	42.2	100.0
	Total	64	65.3	100.0	
Missing	System	34	34.7		
Total		98	100.0		

Which of the following do you measure for ... - Cognition

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	45	45.9	70.3	70.3
	Cognition	19	19.4	29.7	100.0
	Total	64	65.3	100.0	
Missing	System	34	34.7		
Total		98	100.0		

Which of the following do you measure for ... - Behaviour

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	46	46.9	71.9	71.9
	Behaviour	18	18.4	28.1	100.0
	Total	64	65.3	100.0	
Missing	System	34	34.7		
Total		98	100.0		

Which of the following do you measure for ... - Visibility

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	27	27.6	42.2	42.2
	Visibility	37	37.8	57.8	100.0
	Total	64	65.3	100.0	
Missing	System	34	34.7		
Total		98	100.0		

Which of the following do you measure for ... - Persuasive impact

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	51	52.0	79.7	79.7
	Persuasive impact	13	13.3	20.3	100.0
	Total	64	65.3	100.0	
Missing	System	34	34.7		
Total		98	100.0		

Which of the following do you measure for ... - Awareness

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	22	22.4	34.4	34.4
	Awareness	42	42.9	65.6	100.0
	Total	64	65.3	100.0	
Missing	System	34	34.7		
Total		98	100.0		

Which of the following do you measure for ... - Image creation for brand or company

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	29	29.6	45.3	45.3
	Image creation for brand or company	35	35.7	54.7	100.0
	Total	64	65.3	100.0	
Missing	System	34	34.7		
Total		98	100.0		

Which of the following do you measure for ... - Impact

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	45	45.9	70.3	70.3
	Impact	19	19.4	29.7	100.0
	Total	64	65.3	100.0	
Missing	System	34	34.7		
Total		98	100.0		

Which of the following do you measure for ... - impact recall

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	46	46.9	71.9	71.9
	impact recall	18	18.4	28.1	100.0
	Total	64	65.3	100.0	
Missing	System	34	34.7		
Total		98	100.0		

Which of the following do you measure for ... - familiarity

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	41	41.8	64.1	64.1
	familiarity	23	23.5	35.9	100.0
	Total	64	65.3	100.0	
Missing	System	34	34.7		
Total		98	100.0		

Which of the following do you measure for ... - favourability

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	39	39.8	60.9	60.9
	favourability	25	25.5	39.1	100.0
	Total	64	65.3	100.0	
Missing	System	34	34.7		
Total		98	100.0		

Please state where you measure your support... - Message Channel

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	39	39.8	58.2	58.2
	Message Channel	28	28.6	41.8	100.0
	Total	67	68.4	100.0	
Missing	System	31	31.6		
Total		98	100.0		

Please state where you measure your support... - Consumer Reception

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	31	31.6	46.3	46.3
	Consumer Reception	36	36.7	53.7	100.0
	Total	67	68.4	100.0	
Missing	System	31	31.6		
Total		98	100.0		

Please state where you measure your support... - Consumer's Sales Purchases

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	42	42.9	62.7	62.7
	Consumer's Sales Purchases	25	25.5	37.3	100.0
	Total	67	68.4	100.0	
Missing	System	31	31.6		
Total		98	100.0		

Please state where you measure your support... - Other

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	50	51.0	74.6	74.6
	Other	17	17.3	25.4	100.0
	Total	67	68.4	100.0	
Missing	System	31	31.6		
Total		98	100.0		

Please State

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid		82	83.7	83.7	83.7
	3	1	1.0	1.0	84.7
	Feedback	1	1.0	1.0	85.7
	Field Survey	9	9.2	9.2	94.9
	Market Research	3	3.1	3.1	98.0
	Seminar attendance	2	2.0	2.0	100.0
	Total	98	100.0	100.0	

Do you have a bench marking / tracking pro... -the correct identification of sponsorship with event /team

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	7	7.1	15.2	15.2
the correct identification of sponsorship with eve	39	39.8	84.8	100.0
	Total	46	46.9	100.0	
Missing	System	52	53.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Do you have a bench marking / tracking pro... -perception of brand relative to competition

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	13	13.3	28.3	28.3
perception of brand relative to competition	33	33.7	71.7	100.0
	Total	46	46.9	100.0	
Missing	System	52	53.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Do you have a bench marking / tracking pro... -perception of attributes associated with the brand

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	16	16.3	34.8	34.8
perception of attributes associated with the brand	30	30.6	65.2	100.0
	Total	46	46.9	100.0	
Missing	System	52	53.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Which, if any, of the following do you use... - Billboards

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	44	44.9	52.4	52.4
	Billboards	40	40.8	47.6	100.0
	Total	84	85.7	100.0	
Missing	System	14	14.3		
Total		98	100.0		

Which, if any, of the following do you use... - Signs

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	49	50.0	58.3	58.3
	Signs	35	35.7	41.7	100.0
	Total	84	85.7	100.0	
Missing	System	14	14.3		
Total		98	100.0		

Which, if any, of the following do you use... - Press releases

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	15	15.3	17.9	17.9
	Press releases	69	70.4	82.1	100.0
	Total	84	85.7	100.0	
Missing	System	14	14.3		
Total		98	100.0		

Which, if any, of the following do you use... - Advertising

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	14	14.3	16.7	16.7
	Advertising	70	71.4	83.3	100.0
	Total	84	85.7	100.0	
Missing	System	14	14.3		
Total		98	100.0		

Which, if any, of the following do you use... - Hospitality

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	17	17.3	20.2	20.2
	Hospitality	67	68.4	79.8	100.0
	Total	84	85.7	100.0	
Missing	System	14	14.3		
Total		98	100.0		

Public relations overall

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	62	63.3	69.7	69.7
	Important	22	22.4	24.7	94.4
	Neither important nor unimportant	3	3.1	3.4	97.8
	Unimportant	2	2.0	2.2	100.0
	Total	89	90.8	100.0	
Missing	System	9	9.2		
Total		98	100.0		

Community involvement

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	10	10.2	13.0	13.0
	Important	22	22.4	28.6	41.6
	Neither important nor unimportant	34	34.7	44.2	85.7
	Unimportant	10	10.2	13.0	98.7
	Very unimportant	1	1.0	1.3	100.0
	Total	77	78.6	100.0	
Missing	System	21	21.4		
Total		98	100.0		

Public awareness

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	38	38.8	45.2	45.2
	Important	34	34.7	40.5	85.7
	Neither important nor unimportant	10	10.2	11.9	97.6
	Unimportant	2	2.0	2.4	100.0
	Total	84	85.7	100.0	
Missing	System	14	14.3		
Total		98	100.0		

public perceptions

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	45	45.9	54.9	54.9
	Important	29	29.6	35.4	90.2
	Neither important nor unimportant	3	3.1	3.7	93.9
	Unimportant	5	5.1	6.1	100.0
	Total	82	83.7	100.0	
Missing	System	16	16.3		
Total		98	100.0		

counter adverse publicity

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	20	20.4	27.4	27.4
	Important	15	15.3	20.5	47.9
	Neither important nor unimportant	25	25.5	34.2	82.2
	Unimportant	11	11.2	15.1	97.3
	Very unimportant	2	2.0	2.7	100.0
	Total	73	74.5	100.0	
Missing	System	25	25.5		
Total		98	100.0		

enhance commitment to community

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	6	6.1	8.5	8.5
	Important	20	20.4	28.2	36.6
	Neither important nor unimportant	40	40.8	56.3	93.0
	Unimportant	3	3.1	4.2	97.2
	Very unimportant	2	2.0	2.8	100.0
	Total	71	72.4	100.0	
Missing	System	27	27.6		
Total		98	100.0		

Press or TV coverage

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	76	77.6	85.4	85.4
	Important	9	9.2	10.1	95.5
	Unimportant	1	1.0	1.1	96.6
	Very unimportant	3	3.1	3.4	100.0
	Total	89	90.8	100.0	
Missing	System	9	9.2		
Total		98	100.0		

Favourable publicity from association

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	38	38.8	44.7	44.7
	Important	32	32.7	37.6	82.4
	Neither important nor unimportant	11	11.2	12.9	95.3
	Unimportant	1	1.0	1.2	96.5
	Very unimportant	3	3.1	3.5	100.0
	Total	85	86.7	100.0	
Missing	System	13	13.3		
Total		98	100.0		

Identity with market segment

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	32	32.7	40.5	40.5
	Important	32	32.7	40.5	81.0
	Neither important nor unimportant	13	13.3	16.5	97.5
	Unimportant	1	1.0	1.3	98.7
	Very unimportant	1	1.0	1.3	100.0
	Total	79	80.6	100.0	
Missing	System	19	19.4		
Total		98	100.0		

Facilitate prospecting salesmen

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	5	5.1	7.0	7.0
	Important	22	22.4	31.0	38.0
	Neither important nor unimportant	31	31.6	43.7	81.7
	Unimportant	12	12.2	16.9	98.6
	Very unimportant	1	1.0	1.4	100.0
	Total	71	72.4	100.0	
Missing	System	27	27.6		
Total		98	100.0		

Consumer awareness

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	38	38.8	46.3	46.3
	Important	35	35.7	42.7	89.0
	Neither important nor unimportant	4	4.1	4.9	93.9
	Unimportant	4	4.1	4.9	98.8
	Very unimportant	1	1.0	1.2	100.0
	Total	82	83.7	100.0	
Missing	System	16	16.3		
Total		98	100.0		

Differentiate product

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	21	21.4	26.6	26.6
	Important	38	38.8	48.1	74.7
	Neither important nor unimportant	17	17.3	21.5	96.2
	Unimportant	2	2.0	2.5	98.7
	Very unimportant	1	1.0	1.3	100.0
	Total	79	80.6	100.0	
Missing	System	19	19.4		
Total		98	100.0		

Facilitate business to business marketing

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	17	17.3	21.8	21.8
	Important	50	51.0	64.1	85.9
	Neither important nor unimportant	7	7.1	9.0	94.9
	Unimportant	4	4.1	5.1	100.0
	Total	78	79.6	100.0	
Missing	System	20	20.4		
Total		98	100.0		

Enhancing Company image

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	68	69.4	73.9	73.9
	Important	20	20.4	21.7	95.7
	Neither important nor unimportant	4	4.1	4.3	100.0
	Total	92	93.9	100.0	
Missing	System	6	6.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Provide central focus for multi-discipline marketing and communications campaign

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	25	25.5	29.1	29.1
	Important	43	43.9	50.0	79.1
	Neither important nor unimportant	14	14.3	16.3	95.3
	Unimportant	4	4.1	4.7	100.0
	Total	86	87.8	100.0	
Missing	System	12	12.2		
Total		98	100.0		

Generate image benefits in the media

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	34	34.7	37.4	37.4
	Important	37	37.8	40.7	78.0
	Neither important nor unimportant	14	14.3	15.4	93.4
	Unimportant	6	6.1	6.6	100.0
	Total	91	92.9	100.0	
Missing	System	7	7.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Increase 'Top of Mind' awareness

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	42	42.9	46.2	46.2
	Important	40	40.8	44.0	90.1
	Neither important nor unimportant	5	5.1	5.5	95.6
	Unimportant	4	4.1	4.4	100.0
	Total	91	92.9	100.0	
Missing	System	7	7.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Image Change

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	24	24.5	30.0	30.0
	Important	14	14.3	17.5	47.5
	Neither important nor unimportant	33	33.7	41.3	88.8
	Unimportant	6	6.1	7.5	96.3
	Very unimportant	3	3.1	3.8	100.0
	Total	80	81.6	100.0	
Missing	System	18	18.4		
Total		98	100.0		

Entertaining clients

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	33	33.7	35.5	35.5
	Important	33	33.7	35.5	71.0
	Neither important nor unimportant	27	27.6	29.0	100.0
	Total	93	94.9	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Improving staff relations

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	18	18.4	19.4	19.4
	Important	35	35.7	37.6	57.0
	Neither important nor unimportant	29	29.6	31.2	88.2
	Unimportant	10	10.2	10.8	98.9
	Very unimportant	1	1.0	1.1	100.0
	Total	93	94.9	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Reach highly targeted audience

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	44	44.9	47.3	47.3
	Important	28	28.6	30.1	77.4
	Neither important nor unimportant	19	19.4	20.4	97.8
	Unimportant	2	2.0	2.2	100.0
	Total	93	94.9	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Goodwill amongst opinion formers

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	15	15.3	16.5	16.5
	Important	48	49.0	52.7	69.2
	Neither important nor unimportant	24	24.5	26.4	95.6
	Unimportant	4	4.1	4.4	100.0
	Total	91	92.9	100.0	
Missing	System	7	7.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Reassure shareholders

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	10	10.2	11.4	11.4
	Important	20	20.4	22.7	34.1
	Neither important nor unimportant	38	38.8	43.2	77.3
	Unimportant	11	11.2	12.5	89.8
	Very unimportant	9	9.2	10.2	100.0
	Total	88	89.8	100.0	
Missing	System	10	10.2		
Total		98	100.0		

Aid staff relations

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	3	3.1	3.5	3.5
	Important	28	28.6	32.6	36.0
	Neither important nor unimportant	42	42.9	48.8	84.9
	Unimportant	9	9.2	10.5	95.3
	Very unimportant	4	4.1	4.7	100.0
	Total	86	87.8	100.0	
Missing	System	12	12.2		
Total		98	100.0		

Assist staff recruitment

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	4	4.1	4.7	4.7
	Important	22	22.4	25.9	30.6
	Neither important nor unimportant	35	35.7	41.2	71.8
	Unimportant	18	18.4	21.2	92.9
	Very unimportant	6	6.1	7.1	100.0
	Total	85	86.7	100.0	
Missing	System	13	13.3		
Total		98	100.0		

Provide unique hospitality environment

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	27	27.6	29.7	29.7
	Important	42	42.9	46.2	75.8
	Neither important nor unimportant	17	17.3	18.7	94.5
	Unimportant	1	1.0	1.1	95.6
	Very unimportant	4	4.1	4.4	100.0
	Total	91	92.9	100.0	
Missing	System	7	7.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Improve trade relations

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	14	14.3	14.9	14.9
	Important	43	43.9	45.7	60.6
	Neither important nor unimportant	30	30.6	31.9	92.6
	Unimportant	4	4.1	4.3	96.8
	Very unimportant	3	3.1	3.2	100.0
	Total	94	95.9	100.0	
Missing	System	4	4.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Identify with lifestyle audience

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	22	22.4	25.0	25.0
	Important	42	42.9	47.7	72.7
	Neither important nor unimportant	13	13.3	14.8	87.5
	Unimportant	9	9.2	10.2	97.7
	Very unimportant	2	2.0	2.3	100.0
	Total	88	89.8	100.0	
Missing	System	10	10.2		
Total		98	100.0		

Specific brand promotion

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	46	46.9	48.9	48.9
	Important	36	36.7	38.3	87.2
	Neither important nor unimportant	6	6.1	6.4	93.6
	Unimportant	6	6.1	6.4	100.0
	Total	94	95.9	100.0	
Missing	System	4	4.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Market positioning for company or brand

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	53	54.1	57.6	57.6
	Important	27	27.6	29.3	87.0
	Neither important nor unimportant	8	8.2	8.7	95.7
	Unimportant	4	4.1	4.3	100.0
	Total	92	93.9	100.0	
Missing	System	6	6.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Increase company or brand awareness

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	47	48.0	50.0	50.0
	Important	40	40.8	42.6	92.6
	Neither important nor unimportant	3	3.1	3.2	95.7
	Unimportant	4	4.1	4.3	100.0
	Total	94	95.9	100.0	
Missing	System	4	4.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Place brand amongst "leaders"

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	64	65.3	68.1	68.1
	Important	26	26.5	27.7	95.7
	Neither important nor unimportant	1	1.0	1.1	96.8
	Unimportant	3	3.1	3.2	100.0
	Total	94	95.9	100.0	
Missing	System	4	4.1		
Total		98	100.0		

Increase company sales

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	38	38.8	43.7	43.7
	Important	38	38.8	43.7	87.4
	Neither important nor unimportant	10	10.2	11.5	98.9
	Unimportant	1	1.0	1.1	100.0
	Total	87	88.8	100.0	
Missing	System	11	11.2		
Total		98	100.0		

Provide merchandising opportunities

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	16	16.3	18.8	18.8
	Important	38	38.8	44.7	63.5
	Neither important nor unimportant	20	20.4	23.5	87.1
	Unimportant	10	10.2	11.8	98.8
	Very unimportant	1	1.0	1.2	100.0
	Total	85	86.7	100.0	
Missing	System	13	13.3		
Total		98	100.0		

Impact bottom line

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Important	16	16.3	19.3	19.3
	Important	40	40.8	48.2	67.5
	Neither important nor unimportant	16	16.3	19.3	86.7
	Unimportant	11	11.2	13.3	100.0
	Total	83	84.7	100.0	
Missing	System	15	15.3		
Total		98	100.0		

Corporate image

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	30	30.6	35.7	35.7
	2	14	14.3	16.7	52.4
	3	6	6.1	7.1	59.5
	4	12	12.2	14.3	73.8
	5	9	9.2	10.7	84.5
	6	5	5.1	6.0	90.5
	7	3	3.1	3.6	94.0
	8	5	5.1	6.0	100.0
	Total	84	85.7	100.0	
Missing	System	14	14.3		
Total		98	100.0		

Cover target audience

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	18	18.4	21.4	21.4
	2	12	12.2	14.3	35.7
	3	9	9.2	10.7	46.4
	4	7	7.1	8.3	54.8
	5	10	10.2	11.9	66.7
	6	9	9.2	10.7	77.4
	7	4	4.1	4.8	82.1
	8	15	15.3	17.9	100.0
	Total	84	85.7	100.0	
Missing	System	14	14.3		
Total		98	100.0		

Potential TV coverage

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	11	11.2	12.6	12.6
	2	8	8.2	9.2	21.8
	3	5	5.1	5.7	27.6
	5	15	15.3	17.2	44.8
	6	22	22.4	25.3	70.1
	7	13	13.3	14.9	85.1
	8	13	13.3	14.9	100.0
	Total	87	88.8	100.0	
Missing	System	11	11.2		
Total		98	100.0		

Potential press coverage

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	3	3.1	3.6	3.6
	2	3	3.1	3.6	7.1
	3	3	3.1	3.6	10.7
	4	11	11.2	13.1	23.8
	5	11	11.2	13.1	36.9
	6	12	12.2	14.3	51.2
	7	23	23.5	27.4	78.6
	8	16	16.3	19.0	97.6
	73	1	1.0	1.2	98.8
	83	1	1.0	1.2	100.0
	Total	84	85.7	100.0	
Missing	System	14	14.3		
Total		98	100.0		

Media coverage

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	6	6.1	7.0	7.0
	2	6	6.1	7.0	14.0
	3	9	9.2	10.5	24.4
	4	13	13.3	15.1	39.5
	5	19	19.4	22.1	61.6
	6	17	17.3	19.8	81.4
	7	14	14.3	16.3	97.7
	8	2	2.0	2.3	100.0
	Total	86	87.8	100.0	
Missing	System	12	12.2		
Total		98	100.0		

Company or product awareness

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	19	19.4	22.1	22.1
	2	6	6.1	7.0	29.1
	3	24	24.5	27.9	57.0
	4	11	11.2	12.8	69.8
	5	15	15.3	17.4	87.2
	6	5	5.1	5.8	93.0
	7	3	3.1	3.5	96.5
	8	3	3.1	3.5	100.0
	Total	86	87.8	100.0	
Missing	System	12	12.2		
Total		98	100.0		

Name recognition

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	6	6.1	7.0	7.0
	2	30	30.6	34.9	41.9
	3	19	19.4	22.1	64.0
	4	10	10.2	11.6	75.6
	5	2	2.0	2.3	77.9
	6	7	7.1	8.1	86.0
	7	8	8.2	9.3	95.3
	8	4	4.1	4.7	100.0
	Total	86	87.8	100.0	
Missing	System	12	12.2		
Total		98	100.0		

Name awareness

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	5	5.1	6.2	6.2
	2	17	17.3	21.0	27.2
	3	18	18.4	22.2	49.4
	4	17	17.3	21.0	70.4
	6	6	6.1	7.4	77.8
	7	10	10.2	12.3	90.1
	8	8	8.2	9.9	100.0
	Total	81	82.7	100.0	
	Missing	System	17	17.3	
Total		98	100.0		

Appendix 9 – Journal Articles

Motor Racing Sponsorship and the Product Adoption Process

● **Keywords:** Sponsorship, Marketing Communications, Motor Sport, Formula One, Advertising

The Contribution of Motor Racing Sponsorship to the Product Adoption Process

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ABSTRACT

This paper examines the concept of sponsorship as an element of the marketing communications mix. The particular interest of the researchers is the contribution that sports sponsorship may make towards brand personality and awareness in the consumer's product adoption process. The paper is part of a pilot study that made use of a target sample in the preliminary investigation of the awareness of brands found within F1 motor racing. Previous research is confirmed by the study, which establishes high awareness for some sponsors in the form of association of their brands with F1. It does not categorically establish, though, that the total awareness may be attributed solely to sponsorship but it is recognised that complimentary promotion and advertising programmes may make substantial contributions too. What is evident is that the research shows that awareness levels of some brands associated with F1, especially those involving tobacco, is very high amongst young adults. If the tobacco companies have been so successful in creating awareness why can this not also be turned to the advantage of many more non-tobacco brands? The paper identifies the need for more detailed research in this sphere.

Introduction

Corporations continually seek new media opportunities for their marketing communications activities (1). The use of sport as a vehicle

for communicating marketing messages has been long established with advertising signs at sports stadiums and arenas demonstrating the use of place-based media (2, 3). There is however confusion when it comes to attempting to define the activity of using the participants in a sporting event as the means of communication. The Incorporated Society of British Advertisers (4) say that technically having brand and product messages/symbols on participants is advertising. To many people the inseparability of the event, its participants and what they are wearing/driving takes this form of communication beyond that of the static advertising bill board.

Place-based marketing embraces the delivery of promotional messages at particular sites in order to influence immediate or subsequent purchase behaviour (1). The locations for such place-based media include large-scale special occasions referred to as hallmark events (5). People are attracted to these events by a common bond, which will be an interest in a particular activity pertinent to the event. It is argued that a corporation which associates its name or brand with an event can share in the image of the event itself for an effect called brandstanding. The association of their brand, which could be a product or a service, with an event of interest to consumers creates for that brand an aura of excitement, interest and reliability, and renewed vitality (6).

It is suggested that major motor racing championships, such as the sixteen or so Grand Prix races held each year, can each be described as a hallmark event. The audience, whether physi-



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cally present or watching remotely through the medium of television, are bound together by a common interest in the sport of and its participants. Hallmark events and their sites offer opportunities for both sponsorship and advertising (3). The benefit to corporations of being involved in sponsorship at hallmark events is that there is message clutter in the wider marketplace so to be associated with a one-off event is a major benefit and has the potential to be newsworthy in its own right (7). This paper attempts to give an overview of the relationship between brands and sports sponsorship looking in detail at the ways this has been incorporated into the area of F1. It then reports on a pilot study into the awareness of brands associated with F1 motor racing.

Brands and Brand Names

"A brand is a product that provides functional benefits plus added values that some consumers value enough to buy" (8).

Whilst there are several definitions of a brand in the literature, the one quoted above is felt not only to be contemporary but it also acknowledges the concept of added value products.

In examining brands it should be recognised that a "brand name" as such may be any word or illustration that clearly distinguishes one seller's products from another and the association with an effective logo can enhance the impact and reinforce the name. Brands can become extremely powerful in their ability to instill a three dimensional character for a product that is not easily copied or damaged by the efforts of competitors (9).

While all brands are products or services, in that they serve a functional purpose, not all products are brands. Brands can add to functionality in four separate ways:

- *Attributes* - A brand is associated with certain product attributes. For example, Mercedes suggests such attributes as well engineered, 'durable,' 'high prestige,' 'expensive' and 'high re-sale value.'

- *Benefits* - Customers do not buy attributes, they buy benefits. Therefore attributes must be translated into functional and emotional benefits. These include self-worth as epitomised by Peugeot's "Hero inside yourself" advertising montage for their 405 model.
- *Values* - A brand also says something about buyers' values. Thus Mercedes buyers value safety, durability and prestige.
- *Personality* - A brand also projects a personality. Mercedes might be a wealthy, middle-aged business executive. The brand will attract people whose actual or desired self-images match the brand's image (10).

The right brand personality elicits an emotional response from consumers enabling them to express their own self or ideal self (11). Similar products may possess different personalities (12) with, for example, in the tobacco field the Virginia Slims brand tending to be feminine in comparison to Marlboro which is perceived as masculine (13).

Brands make products easy to identify especially if they have a strong and distinctive visual presence that makes them stand out in a complex and crowded market place. Brands can also add value to products through a brand personality, which induces concepts such as familiarity and known reliability. The brand may add value through association with, for example, masculinity or femininity, or alternatively through a psycho self-fulfilling effect (8).

Branding may help a manufacturer segment a product whilst additionally giving it a competitive positioning strategy (9) with a major aim being to encourage loyalty in the form of repeat purchases. The target consumers from whom to encourage brand loyalty are non-loyal buyers, non-users and loyal buyers of other brands (14) with high level sponsorships being acknowledged as one element of the marketing com-



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munication mix. The most important element, though, is the creation of a brand personality with the Marlboro Country tobacco brand, for example, exhibiting the non-product-related characteristic of its symbol (13).

What is Sponsorship?

The term sponsorship means different things to different audiences and while in the United States it may commonly refer to the commercial backing of a television programme elsewhere, and in other situations, it may refer to government subsidy. This confusion has been recognised and for the purposes of this paper sponsorship will refer to instances where a company communicates with its target market or with elements of its environment for commercial ends (15).

While the marketing literature provides a variety of definitions of commercial sponsorship in the case of motorsport the most relevant are those which specifically refer to the commercial return gained from the arrangement. For example sponsorship has been defined as: "The payment of a fee by a company in return for the right to a public association with an activity, item or person, where the purpose is the achievement of a commercial objective" (16). Similarly, where motor racing is concerned, another appropriate definition is: "... an investment, in cash or kind, in an activity, in return for access to the exploitable commercial potential associated with that activity" (15, 17, 18).

Definitions that refer to non-commercial reasons for sponsorship (19), philanthropy, charity or patronage arrangements are not relevant in the highly developed business of motor sport.

Sponsorship and Sport

Sponsorship has been identified as one of the intrinsic elements of business involvement with sport (20). This has proven attractive to commercial sponsors because it is perceived to transcend many barriers. Social, national, ethnic or economic differences count for little amongst true fans of sport as the language of excellence and achievement on the field of play

is the same for everyone (21). This statement has been called into question by activities such as football hooliganism but is seen to hold true in other sports. By the association of brands or products with a sport, a corporation may target the widest possible market with the minimum need to change the message. Equally with so many sports on offer it is possible to segment communications to reach particular groups of consumers. In the context of sport, sponsorship allows a corporation to deliver its message to consumers who are relaxed, in a state of mind and in an environment that makes it likely that they will be receptive (22).

Sport is perceived in the marketing communications literature to be in a unique situation as illustrated by the following quotation: "Sport's ability to have its promotional expenditures underwritten by corporate partners through sponsorships.....is unequalled in any other segment of the economy" (23).

Sport is acknowledged to be the most popular destination for sponsorship because it exhibits a number of inherent advantages (24). It has high levels of visibility, the ability to capture a full range of demographic and psychographic segments and the scope to target mass markets or specific niches. The capacity to cross national boundaries is also there as is the ability to break down cultural barriers. Sport is additionally attractive to television coverage because of low production costs and the provision of all round family entertainment (25, 26).

As a consequence of the successful application of sport marketing the financial backing of sport for marketing purposes has grown into a huge global industry. In the United States and the UK sport has proved to be the most popular of sectors for attracting sponsorship with between 75% and 80% of total sponsorship spending (26). The other potential destinations for corporate sponsorship, including the arts, attracts the balance of the finance.

Sponsorship in Motor Racing

Having examined the generalities of sponsorship and its relationship with sport it is now necessary to examine the specific literature

concerning sponsorship in motor racing.

It has been said that, "if television coverage provides the oxygen for Formula 1, sponsorship is its life-blood" (27). Motor racing is the most sponsored of sports, receiving many tens of millions of pounds annually. In the United States, for example, it is calculated as being a \$1 billion industry (28, 29). The reason for such investment is that if it is handled astutely, motor racing may be among the most effective of marketing platforms (30). Indeed the FIA F1 World Championship is alleged to be the most televised global sport, comparable only with the Summer Olympics and the FIFA World Cup. Unlike its two major competitors which take place every four or five years F1 is an annual sport that lasts for seven months each year. It attracts an annual television audience of more than six billion through 26,400 hours of coverage in over 130 broadcasting countries (31). In 1996 the cumulative F1 TV audience was nearly 41 billion (40,992,557,185) and 57% of all 18 to 35-year-olds (worldwide) watched more than two grands prix (32).

Indeed, motor racing's global popularity and wide appeal means that sponsors have potential to reach the world's richest markets simultaneously via one method of communication - television (33). Only football, boxing and snooker are viewed more regularly on television by men in the UK and more than two thirds of men claim to have an interest in motor sport generally. Levels of interest are high throughout all the demographic groups although this is particularly to be found amongst young, high social status groups (31).

If the comparisons are made with alternative marketing communications channels the monies spent on backing a F1 racing team, for example, are regarded as good value. Benetton, an Italian clothing firm and notable F1 sponsor, illustrated this by saying that to them "F1 costs nothing - if you have all this free advertising, you will keep going because there is no other way to get such world-wide publicity". As an example of the scale of this investment Mild Seven Benetton Renault Team's budget for 1997, incidentally, was £35m (34).

Motor racing sponsorship has a number of opportunity advantages over other sports. Firstly, racing cars and drivers offer the chance to use moving and living promotional tools. Secondly, the sport provides the possibility for versatile sponsorship programmes and the successful use of joint arrangements, benefiting two or more corporate sponsors concerned commercially, allowing each lower sponsorship premiums (21/30). Both a clearly defined audience and television exposure may be achieved with brands being flexibly promoted through options such as sponsorship of hall-mark events, series, drivers or teams. Careful market-by-market targeting can permit the efficient allocation of marketing funds (29).

The success of motor racing where corporate sponsorship is concerned is attributed to synergy or the fact that cars are part of people's everyday lives and such familiarity is a large asset (35). Indeed, such synergy reflects the television audience profile of F1 and fits the bill for advertisers, particularly those marketing motoring-orientated brands (36). Whilst one might expect this to solely mean that the sport is attractive to motor manufacturers, in addition motoring-associated brands may find synergy too. One such campaign involved ICI in 1976 when that company used motor racing sponsorship not only as an advertisement for their motoring products but also used the cars themselves as research test beds (30).

Non-Car Brand Advertising

Increasingly, though, the high profile of F1 has attracted non-car brands into the sport especially those which have experienced advertising problems, even bans, in the traditional media. Most high profile of these have been the tobacco and cigarette companies.

A marketing term that complements synergy is "fit" and variations on this theme that have brought sponsors into motor racing include the attraction of the sport's perception of excellence - primarily mechanical - which attaches to a successful racing team as well as the prestige of the hallmark events themselves (30). Similarly a major financial services sponsor of

F1 said that his firm saw the future of money being driven by technology; his firm wanted to be part of what is arguably the most technologically advanced sport in the world (37).

Sport in general is an activity that holds great interest, much of which is emotional, surrounding individual players, teams or nationalities. If this interest and emotion coincides with the target market sponsorship will enable a brand to establish itself as being more relevant to the potential consumer by establishing it as being "for people like me" (38). Indeed Olympic sponsors AT&T described sports events as having an "emotional, high-impact appeal" (39). One of the emotions generated by sport is the pleasure derived from and the wish to be associated with success. Success in competition or competitive action not only boosts interest but much of sports marketing thrives on winners (24). Motor racing is not short of winners with which to be associated.

Sponsors of motor sport have an underlying desire to associate with success, particularly with pinnacle events such as F1. There is less need to win on the track, as the very fact of participation at the highest level is perceived as success.

Sponsorship and Corporate Communications

It is generally accepted (15) that the four basic elements of marketing communications are personal selling, advertising, sales promotion and public relations. It would certainly appear from this categorisation that sponsorship contributes both to sales promotion and public relations whilst a relationship with advertising may be argued. It is recognised that in moving consumers through the various stages of the buying process different elements of the communications mix may be combined and therefore become complimentary (40). Research (41) has indicated that because of the level of attention generated by sponsoring messages that sponsoring can be firmly recognised as an element of marketing communications.

The American Marketing Association (15, 42, 43) defined the four conventional forms of marketing communications (excluding word of

mouth) as being advertising, personal selling, publicity and sales promotion and it is evident that sponsorship straddles most of these in one way or another. When tobacco companies use sponsorship its function is similar to that of advertising and when in motor sport it is used by oil companies and motor manufacturers it may be regarded as promoting sales (15).

Similarly it has been said (25) that the role of sponsorship in the communications mix is as an adaptable medium. It may be used as part of an integrated package that can complement advertising, sales promotion and public relations in developing consumer awareness, formulating attitudes and enhancing the company's image.

Sponsorship is especially good at achieving positioning where corporate and brand image development or enhancement are the key factors, whilst also helping to achieve an intimate and more emotionally involved relationship with a target audience (22).

Rothmans do not believe that watching one of their cars will make a spectator become a smoker. Awareness of the company or brand, they say, is not equivalent to the propensity to purchase. An advertisement convinces people to buy whilst sponsorship only creates awareness of the company and its trademark (44). Sponsorship may, though, be viewed as a means of persuasion and whilst being fundamentally different to traditional advertising it is regarded as persuading indirectly (45).

Sponsorship and Product Purchase Decisions

"Unless your audience is aware of your product they cannot make any of the decisions, purchasing or otherwise, that you would like them to make" (46).

Awareness is regarded in the marketing communications literature through quotations such as that above, as an important element of the consumer's product purchase decision. Both the AIDA (Awareness-Interest-Desire Action) concept (22, 47, 48) and the hierarchy-of-effects model (49) have been identified as the stages through which potential consumers proceed before purchasing a product. Their rela-

Table 1: Relationship Between the AIDA and Heirarchy-of-Effects Models

AIDA Stages	Heirarchy-of-Effects Stages
Awareness	Awareness
	Knowledge
Interest	Linking
	Preference
Desire	Intention
Action	Purchase

Source: Reference 22

tionship is compared in Table 1. Where the AIDA stages are concerned it may be argued that sponsorship may influence awareness, interest and desire for a brand or product. Similarly, where the heirarchy-of-effects stages are concerned, sponsorship may influence awareness, knowledge, liking and in some instances intention. The perceived effects of sponsorship are further illustrated in Table 2.

Documented results of the effects of motor racing sponsorship are hard to come by as many are shrouded in commercial secrecy but a number of examples have been quoted in the marketing communications literature.

Between 1974 and 1978, for example, research into the degree of brand association of sponsored activities (Table 3) showed big increases for motor racing sponsors particularly Marlboro which demonstrated a dramatic 36% increase in awareness level between 1974 and 1980 (17). Research has demonstrated that there is a high level of association of brands

with motorsport having shown, for example, that 57% of adults nationally in the UK were able to spontaneously name a brand associated with motorsport (33). Table 4 shows the results.

This research started to introduce the concept that the length of time that a sponsor had been involved in a particular sponsorship deal affected consumer awareness. Indeed, Rothmans were to admit that, "it took time to reap the full benefits of a sponsorship programme" (50). After initial research into their backing of the Rothmans Williams Renault F1 team they were encouraged by the results which had pointed towards significant increases in levels of brand awareness. This was in contrast to other views from within the same company (44), where it had been possible to directly evaluate the effects of the sponsorship, which was shown to have reflected a sales increase.

Research

In constructing the research it was recognised

Table 3: Motor Racing Sponsorship Awareness

Sponsor	Percentage of Respondents Mentioning Each Sponsor			
	1974	1974	1974	1974
Texaco	18	45	47	60
John Player	22	43	44	66
Marlboro	6	25	42	55
Rothmans	11	13	13	50
None/Don't Know	35	20	19	n/a

Reference: 18

Table 4: Peak Spontaneous Awareness of Motorsport Sponsors

Motor Racing Sponsor	%	Start of Deal
Marlboro	20	1974
Benetton	19	
Renault	11	
Rothmans	10	
Ford	8	1967
Dunlop	8	

Source: Adapted from RSL Sponsortest as quoted in Reference 33

Table 5: Unprompted Spontaneous Awareness of Formula 1 Brands

Ranking	Brand	Percentage of Correspondents Mentioning Each Brand		
		Total Sample %	Male %	Female %
1	Marlboro	96	100	90
2	Benetton	71	74	65
3	Ferrari	67	77	50
4	Benson & Hedges	60	71	40
5	Renault	56	74	25
6	Goodyear	55	69	30
7	Rothmans	53	63	35
8	Bridgestone	42	63	5
9	Camel	36	37	35
10	Fosters	35	34	35
11	Michelin	33	23	40
12	Elf	31	40	15
13	Pirelli	31	29	35
14	Shell	29	40	10
15	Ford	25	29	20
16	Dunlop	24	23	25
17	Canon	20	30	20
18	Honda	20	26	10
19	Lotus	20	26	10
20	Mobil	20	23	15
21	Silk Cut	20	26	10
22	Mclaren	18	14	25
23	Texaco	18	26	5
24	Labatts	15	17	10
25	Mercedes	15	17	10
26	Peugeot	15	17	10
27	John Player Special	13	17	5
28	Jordan	11	9	15
29	Red Bull	11	9	15
30	Mild Seven	9	11	5
31	BP	7	9	5
32	Casino	7	11	0
33	Kodak	7	9	5
34	BAT	5	6	5
35	BMW	5	9	0
36	Coca Cola	5	6	5
37	Hewlett Packard	5	6	5
38	HSBC	5	9	0
39	Lucky Strike	5	3	10
40	Moet & Chandon	5	0	15
41	Tag Heuer	5	9	0
42	West	5	9	0
43	Castrol	4	3	5
44	Cosworth	4	6	0
45	Esso	4	6	0

Table 5: Continued

46	Firestone	4	3	5
47	McDonald's	4	6	0
48	Mugen	4	6	0
49	Uniroyal	4	6	0
50	Danka	2	3	0
51	DeLonghi	2	3	0
52	Durex	2	3	0
53	Embassy	2	0	5
54	Fiat	2	3	0
55	Fuji	2	3	0
56	Gallaher	2	0	5
57	Gitanes Blanc	2	3	0
58	Gulf	2	3	0
59	Kenwood	2	3	0
60	Lamborghini	2	3	0
61	Malaysian Government	2	3	0
62	Martini	2	3	0
63	Mintex	2	3	0
64	Motorola	2	3	0
65	MTV	2	3	0
66	Nat West	2	3	0
67	Parmalat	2	3	0
68	Q8	2	3	0
69	RAC	2	3	0
70	7-Up	2	3	0
71	Stella	2	3	0
72	Sun Microsystems	2	3	0
73	Swatch	2	3	0
74	Total	2	3	0
75	Toyota	2	3	0
76	Vauxhall	2	3	0
77	Winfield	2	3	0
78	Xerox	2	3	0
79	Yamaha	2	3	0
80	Yellow Pages	2	3	0

Sample: 55 in total - 35 male, 20 female, age range 18-27, average age 20.4.

Note: Data collection took place before the start of the 1998 F1 season

Motor Racing Sponsorship and the Product Adoption Process

that existing public evidence of the effects of advertising and sponsorship largely surrounded the implications of tobacco and in particular cigarette brand marketing. Evidence shows that cigarette advertising eases the transition into regular smoking, creates a culture supportive of cigarette smoking (51, 52) and is particularly effective amongst young people. Adolescents, in fact, represent the largest, growing market for the cigarette industry (53).

Both the manufacturers of the Marlboro brand and Imperial Tobacco recognise that youngsters or adolescents are important markets for their products (54). Research, in fact, shows that children and adolescents can recall and recognise cigarette advertisements and identify specific brands (55). Some young smokers find cigarette advertisements emotionally appealing suggesting that advertising may reinforce an image of the self that is successful, attractive or glamorous (56). These are attributes often attached to F1 too and more research has established that children associate brands that sponsored racing cars with people who liked "excitement and fast racing cars" (57).

A recent study examined whether there is evidence that motor racing is associated with increased risk of smoking in children, whether regular smoking increases in association with watching motor racing and whether motor racing has a significant effect when other known influences are taken into account. The results showed that boys who named motor racing as their favourite sport were significantly more likely than others to name the Marlboro and Camel cigarette brands both of which at the time of that research were commonly seen in the context of motor racing on television (58).

The research sample was intended to reflect the youth of the world-wide F1 TV audience (31, 32) and parallel research that had shown that young higher social status groups are most interested in motorsport (33). It comprised 55 individuals picked at random aged between 18 and 27 years-of-age (35 males and 20 females). They were asked to identify as many brands as they could that they associated with F1 motor racing. When we consulted our own sample we

found some remarkable results (Table 5). For example, all of the males and 96% of the females associated the Marlboro cigarette brand with F1 - a very pleasing result if you happened to be a part of Philip Morris' marketing but not so welcome if you were a government intent on reducing tobacco orientated sponsorship or advertising.

Interestingly, a number of brands were associated by the sample with F1 that have no current participation in the sport. For example Camel, Michelin, Pirelli, Lotus, John Player Special and Dunlop boasted above average awareness levels despite having been out of the sport for some time. A recent research study in France (59) revealed that 25% of French people thought that Michelin was still in F1 despite the company having pulled out in 1984.

Conclusion

The creation of awareness of a brand or product is one of the essential elements of the adoption process. Sport, and in the subject of this paper motor sport, provides an opportunity for sponsorships to either replace or complement traditional advertising to achieve product awareness.

Awareness of a brand may in some cases take time to establish and the effect, as previously mentioned, can continue long after the direct sponsorship participation has ceased. This is particularly true in motor sport where the sponsor has become synonymous with a title such as Marlboro McLaren, John Player Special or Fosters British Grand Prix. In several instances the F1 sponsors have been named by the sample as long as five years after their sponsorship has ceased demonstrating the power of the messages that have been transmitted and retained.

The sample referred to in this paper indicates that powerful associations and awareness of brands and products in F1 have been created. Whilst tobacco brands have been particularly successful further research is necessary, firstly, to establish the detailed contribution that these messages may make in the market place to the eventual adoption and purchase of products.

Secondly, further research might establish how non-tobacco brands might achieve similar levels of awareness through the medium of motor sport. ●

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Keywords: Hospitality, Sport, Sponsorship, Formula 1 Advertising, Branding, Events, Advantage



Winning Competitive Advantage in Relationship Marketing Through Formula One

Abstract: The operation of a Formula 1 team is totally dependent upon its ability to attract sponsorship finance and then to effectively service such sponsors. For example, hospitality at Grand Prix and other related events may be used by sponsors to improve both internal and external relationships. A Formula 1 team should co-ordinate its sponsorship programmes to help its sponsors obtain the maximum benefit from their investment.

The research for this paper found that some Formula 1 teams tend to be reactive in their approach to sponsorship acquisition and servicing and it identifies a need for them to become more proactive in their approach.

Teams recognise the mutual value of hospitality orientated entertaining for both the sponsors and themselves. However, this paper identifies that Formula 1 teams have the opportunity to strengthen their existing sponsorship programmes and to attract further investment through creative approaches that provide maximum sponsor value. The paper also identifies that in addition to providing hospitality at Formula 1 Grand Prix and test sessions that participation events are becoming increasingly popular. This represents an area of potential for Formula 1 teams to mix existing clients with potential investors to both strengthen existing programmes and to attract new sponsorships. The paper suggests that Formula 1 teams should seriously consider such corporate hospitality participation events to help them enhance their marketing relationships.

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F1 motor racing becomes a sport for two hours on a Sunday afternoon sixteen times a year when twenty-two drivers compete for motor racing's world drivers' and constructors' championships. For the rest of the year, F1 is a business. For an F1 team to survive it needs sponsorship finance, which makes up the majority of its annual budget.

Academically, therefore, it is necessary to consider how teams encourage businesses to sponsor them and how these sponsors are then serviced.

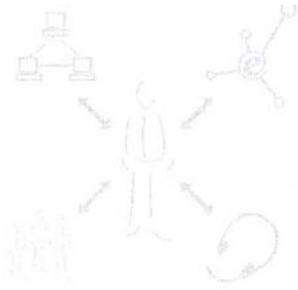
This paper focuses on how F1 teams use hospitality and corporate entertaining to encourage the investment of new partners and to maximise the opportunities for the renewal of existing sponsorship programmes.

The research upon which this paper is based

aims to identify current innovative hospitality practices within F1 and in so doing, establish whether or not teams are currently using hospitality to its full effect.

The findings of this research were established from a wide range of literature and were selected according to their relevance in answering the following objectives:

- Establish the current standards and provision of hospitality in F1.
- Establish how teams currently use hospitality and corporate events
- Establish the methods teams use to attract new sponsors using hospitality and why these methods are adopted
- Establish the current trends in corporate hospitality and F1



Methodology

An extensive range of secondary data was collected and reviewed over the period 1996-2000. The data included hospitality and sponsorship journals; motorsport related articles, books and academic papers.

Interviews were used to evaluate current hospitality practices and formed the investigation's primary research. These overcame some of the problems encountered when reviewing the secondary data. Interviews included F1 team representatives, to establish the standard of hospitality provision provided by today's Grand Prix teams; commercial managers of companies currently providing hospitality to corporate partners within F1, to understand the value of client entertaining; and representatives of F1 sponsors, to identify the importance of hospitality to them.

A major constraint on the investigation was the commercially sensitive nature of the information associated with F1 teams and their commercial partners.

The hypothesis addressed identified that there are areas in which teams can further enhance sponsorship programmes and acquisition through corporate hospitality. It is also recognised that the use of hospitality by one team will differ from that of another and so the results aim to identify a variety of hospitality practices adopted by several F1 teams.

Definitions

Hospitality, as far as F1 is concerned, may be defined as an opportunity for sponsors to make "face-to-face contact with selected publics in a prestigious social context"⁽⁹⁾. The most applicable definition of sponsorship in F1 is, "an investment, in cash or kind, in an activity, in return for

access to the exploitable commercial potential associated with that activity"⁽¹⁰⁾.

Sponsorship opportunities

Sleight⁽¹³⁾ referred to the need to allow not only for the direct costs but also the indirect costs of sponsorship. He identified that any sponsorship project needed to be supported by a marketing communications budget and that this will typically double the cost of the sponsorship. "Typical ratios", he said, "are 1:1 or 1:1.5 for direct to indirect costs". Otter⁽¹⁰⁾ estimated that for each dollar spent on the buying, another three dollars is spent on the exploitation of sponsorship.

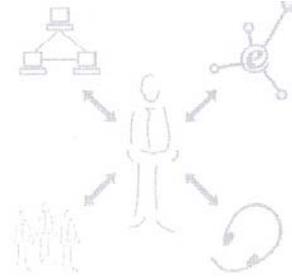
Andrews & Tucker⁽¹⁾ quoted Bob Roper of Rothmans who said that, "prospective sponsors should realise that you could not simply pay the sponsorship fee and sit back and watch it happen for the company". Sponsorship in practice cost a lot more and has to be worked through background activities.

In F1 the teams have employed a variety of innovative methodologies including participation events to enhance their sponsorship arrangements which prominently feature hospitality.

F1 Paddock Club

The "F1 Paddock Club", owned and managed by Allsport Management, is the most prestigious hospitality provision within F1. Its primary purpose is to enable F1 sponsors to entertain their guests at Grands Prix in the finest of surroundings. The facilities and service on offer are of the highest standard as VIP guests may be entertained in their own private customised suite

Facilities on offer in the "Paddock Club" include:



- Full Buffet Breakfast, Lunch and Afternoon Tea.
- A selection of the finest wines served throughout the day.
- Pit lane walkabouts allowing guests to see into the team garages at predetermined times over the weekend.
- Souvenir shops.
- Shoe shiners, hairdressers, magicians and other similar entertainment.

Organisations sponsor F1 for different reasons but often it is because the company wishes to communicate their corporate name, brand or image across international boundaries. Hospitality is acknowledged as an effective method of enhancing the initial sponsorship investment for both internal and external relationship marketing activities.

Team Suites and Motorhomes

Each F1 team uses their own private suite or motorhome primarily for their own internal relationship marketing purposes. Teams, however, also use such facilities at test days and private events where there is a lack of permanent hospitality.

F1 test sessions

A F1 test session provides an ideal opportunity for teams to demonstrate to potential clients the benefits of F1 at first hand. At some circuits, such as Silverstone, teams have their own private corporate viewing suites and make use of these to entertain sponsors and potential sponsors at such test sessions. For example, at the pre-British Grand Prix test session at Silverstone in July 1999, Jordan entertained up to five hun-

dred guests per day. Guests were entitled to a garage tour and had lunch in the team's suite, located in the pits. To add value to the sponsor's day, the F1 drivers made an appearance for a short question and answer session to demonstrate to sponsors and guests that they are valued.

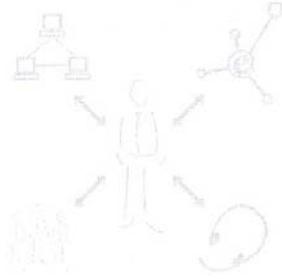
Event Vision Grand Prix Ball

Event Vision Grand Prix Ball Ltd is an organisation, which has created new marketing opportunities for commercial partners. These benefit from branding at the Ball where they are able to entertain clients, VIP guests and prospective business partners at what is a glamorous event. Each Ball is held on the same weekend as the Grand Prix itself and with the key ingredients of celebrities, drivers, glamour and prestigious locations, the events are growing in popularity with average attendances of one thousand guests.

Williams F1 Conference Centre

The Williams F1 team have created a purpose built conference centre at their Grove headquarters which offers the highest standards of presentation, hospitality and prestige. The conference rooms comprise a 100-seat theatre and smaller boardroom suites. The F1 theme is incorporated into the conferences by the presence of the Williams Grand Prix collection of F1 cars and memorabilia. These are on permanent display and a team representative is available to show guests around the collection and to provide an up-to-date insight into the world of F1.

The Williams F1 Conference Centre provides an excellent facility for companies who wish to incorporate a racing theme into their meetings.



The example of Pearl Assurance

The vast majority of sponsorship associations in F1 prove successful for all parties. One such experience is that of Pearl Assurance which sponsors the Jordan Grand Prix team. The company wanted to change its perception in the minds of its 3.5 million customers and 8000 staff believing that F1 would provide a suitable vehicle. As well as major branding on both the car and drivers the sponsorship programme is supported by hospitality at Grands Prix. Pearl purchased the right to use Jordan's name and drivers in its advertising as well as to commission jointly branded merchandise. Personal appearances by drivers at hospitality events and factory visits were incorporated too by Pearl in their external marketing strategy, which helped to change the corporate perceptions of existing customers. New business has also been encouraged.

Even the staff canteen at Pearl's Peterborough headquarters has been designed and decorated to simulate a pit-stop. This association is aimed to demonstrate to staff that they are both valued and part of the team. Pearl has also called a meeting room the "Jordan Room". This room has a table, but no chairs, is painted yellow (the colour of the Jordan car) and all meetings are timed. It is designed for management use in making quick decisions⁴⁹.

Mixing business with pleasure

F1 sponsors use their association with the sport to communicate with their staff and customers through a variety of different marketing methods. However, perhaps the most effective way a company can impress potential or existing customers and reward staff is through the use of corporate hospitality.

Hospitality – an effective marketing tool

Corporate hospitality is used as a way of communicating a message through the medium of entertainment. Corporate hospitality represents a subtle way of driving a sales message and can be harnessed to improve both internal and external relations.

In 1995, a survey conducted by Anglia Polytechnic University showed that corporate hospitality was big business. The survey found that 73% of companies reported greater customer loyalty as a direct result of entertaining and over 50% reported increased sales and new business⁵⁰. This survey argued that if corporate hospitality is organised properly it might be very beneficial.

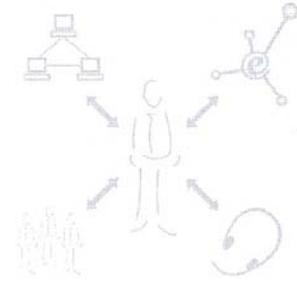
Because of the high cost of a Grand Prix weekend a technique adopted by several teams is to invite potential sponsors along to F1 test days and for factory tours to allow the customer see what they can expect at first hand.

Supplementing the initial sponsorship programme with hospitality at Grands Prix is a positive strategy used to impress guests with the implicit excitement and glamour. Guests feel valued and privileged to attend such events.

Conclusions and recommendations

The hospitality facilities that exist within Formula 1 are more than adequate to make corporate entertaining a significant part of any sponsorship programme. However, the research showed that simply providing sponsors with the facilities to entertain is not enough. Teams should ideally advise potential or existing sponsors so that they may gain the full potential from their sponsorship arrangement⁵¹.

F1 teams should become more proactive and creative in their approaches toward sponsorship



acquisition and servicing. Unfortunately sometimes the approach by some teams to sponsors is "once they've signed we can relax"⁽⁴⁾. This should never be the case and teams should continuously strive to improve their existing sponsorship programmes. Informal discussions with potential investors should be followed up so that existing sponsors obtain the best possible return for their investment. Teams should also continuously review their approach to their hospitality and marketing practices particularly as the forthcoming ban on tobacco advertising is set to have major sponsorship implications.

Having studied the literature it can be concluded that the majority of client entertaining conducted at Grands Prix and test days is successful for both parties. The 'sit back and relax' approach identified by Baldock⁽⁴⁾, is becoming less evident amongst the majority of teams. Those, such as Arrows and Stewart, are demonstrating that teams are successfully providing networking opportunities for their sponsors.

Teams must also recognise the significance and importance of test days both to support existing sponsorship programmes and to introduce potential sponsors to the benefits of F1 sponsorship. The importance of entertaining potential is stressed by Nigel Green, supplier programme manager for the Arrows F1 team. The test day represents an ideal opportunity for a team to introduce the potential of F1 sponsorship in an informal environment⁽⁶⁾. The security and atmosphere at test days is often relaxed compared with Grands Prix meetings but it is important for a team to ensure that guests are still treated as VIP's and that the service and facilities provided by the team are exclusive to them.

Team motorhomes are invaluable to test days as they supplement the lack of permanent facilities and give guests the expected and necessary privacy. Benetton and BAR have recognised the growing importance of the motorhome as an entertainment unit and have developed their motorhomes to suit the growing demand⁽⁷⁾.

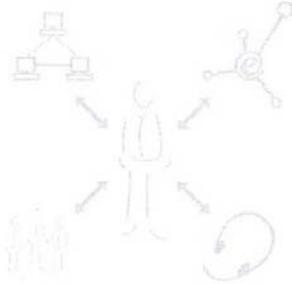
It is recommended that a team issue its guests with day passes to maintain control over the access to its facilities. Previously, due to the relaxed atmosphere at test sessions, sponsors and guests from rival teams have visited team pit garages and hospitality areas. For a team to offer exclusivity to its guests and sponsors this must be prevented. Exclusive areas should be restricted solely to team members and guests.

The popularity of participation days should be considered by a team both to support existing sponsorship programmes and to encourage new investment. Participation days should be incorporated into potential and existing sponsorship programmes to show a proactive and creative approach to sponsorship servicing.

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British American Racing:

<http://www.britishamericanracing.com>

Ferrari: <http://www.ferrari.it>

Jaguar: <http://www.jaguar-racing.com>

Jordan Mugen Honda:

<http://www.jordangp.com>

Minardi: <http://www.minardi.it>

Orange Arrows F1 Team:

<http://www.arrows.com>

Prost: <http://www.prostgp.com>

Red Bull Sauber Petronas: <http://www.redbull-sauber.ch>

West McLaren Mercedes:

<http://www.mclaren.co.uk/>

Williams F1: <http://www.williamsf1.co.uk>

Other:

PSM: <http://www.f1.co.uk>

FIA: <http://www.fia.com>

Grand Prix Ball: <http://grandprixball.com>

Pearl: <http://www.pearl.co.uk>

Silverstone: <http://www.silverstone-circuit.co.uk>

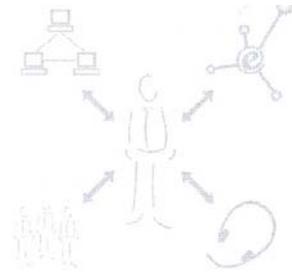
Williams Conference Centre:

<http://www.williamsf1.co.uk/conference/html/index.html>

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CASE STUDY



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GLOSSARY

List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

AFL	American Football League
AIDA	Attention Interest Desire Action
AMA	American Motorcyclist Association
ASH	Action on Smoking and Health
AT&T	American Telephone and Telegraph Company
BAR	British American Racing
BARB	Broadcasters Audience Research Board
BAT	British American Tobacco
BBC	British Broadcasting Corporation
BP	British Petroleum
BRDC	British Racing Drivers Club
BRM	British Racing Motors
BTCC	British Touring Car Championship
CART	Champ Car World Series
CDG	Centreline Downwards Generating
CPT	Cost Per Thousand
CRM	Cause Related Marketing
DORNA	Dorna Sports, S.L.
DVD	Digital Versatile Disc
EBU	European Broadcasting Union
EEMS	Energy Efficient Motorsport
ESPN	Entertainment and Sports Programming Network
ETCC	European Touring Car Championship
FIA	Federation Internationale de l'Automobile
FIFA	Federation Internationale de Football Association
F1	Formula One
F2	Formula Two
F3	Formula Three
F3000	Formula 3000
FVL	Formula Vauxhall Lotus
FICM	Federation Internationale des Clubs Motocyclistes
FIM	Federation Internationale de Motocyclisme
FISA	Federation Internationale du Sport Automotiv
FOCA	Formula One Constructors Association
FOM	Formula One Management
GBT	Global Brand Tracker (Shell)
GP	Grand Prix
GPCA	Grand Prix Constructors and Entrants Association
GPWC	Grand Prix World Championship
HP	Hewlett Packard
HSMO	Her Majesty's Stationery Office
IRL	Indy Racing League
IRTA	International Racing Teams Association
ISBA	Incorporated Society of British Advertisers
ISC	International Sportsworld Communications
ISS	Institute of Sports Sponsorship
ITV	Independent Television

KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin statistical test
MIA	Motorsport Industry Association
MotoGP	FIM Road Racing World Championship Grand Prix
MPR	Marketing Public Relations
NASCAR	North American Stock Car Automobile Racing
PGA	Professional Golfers Association
PR	Public Relations
RAC	Royal Automobile Club, UK
R&D	Research and Development
SLEC	Slavica Ecclestone
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
STCC	Swedish Touring Car Championship
UEFA	Union of European Football Associations
VIP	Very Important Person
WFM	World Federation of Motorsport
WHO	World Health Organisation
WRC	World Rally Championship
WSB	World Superbike

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