

**Sponsors Brand Awareness in the post Olympic environment:  
The case study of Athens 2004.**

By Polyxeni Papanikolaou

Master's Thesis submitted to the Board of Professors  
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of the postgraduate program  
“Sports Organization and Management” of the “Department of Sports Organization and  
Management” of the University of Peloponnese in the academic field of “Sports  
Organization and Management”.

Sparta  
2012

Approved by the Board of Professors:

---

1<sup>05</sup> Supervisor : Thanos Kriemadis, Professor

---

2<sup>05</sup> Supervisor: Ourania Vrontou, Lecturer

---

3<sup>05</sup> Supervisor: Panagiotis Alexopoulos, Lecturer

## **DEDICATION**

This thesis is dedicated to Mrs. Matina and to my sister Demetra who have always stood by me.

To my parents who have given me support throughout my life.

To all my friends who believed in me.

## **ABSTRACT**

Polyxeni Papanikolaou: Sponsors Brand Awareness in the post Olympic environment:  
The case study of Athens.  
(With the supervision of Dr. Thanos Kriemadis, Professor)

The Olympic brand itself has a very strong intrinsic value and it communicates principles, feelings and emotions. Olympic sponsors extract the values that the Olympic brand stands for and given that the Olympic brands consist probably the most recognizable and respected brands it becomes clear that sponsors have a lot of benefits to gain. The primary purpose of the study was to investigate the general sponsorship framework of the 2004 Olympic Games hosted in Athens and its influence on consumers, regarding areas such as a) brand awareness; b) brand loyalty c) positive attitude and behavior; and d) ultimately, explicit perception of the brand linked to the Olympic Games. In more detail, the purpose was to assess how effective various official and exclusive (both international and national) sponsorships have been in achieving what they were designed to achieve: a link between the brand and the Olympic Games. A new tailor-made questionnaire was designed for this study. Data for this survey was collected from Athens citizens above the age of 25 years, targeting the most 'consuming' group (the 'buyers') of the population i.e. 25-50 years of age. Results showed that Olympic sponsoring does create brand awareness, however in some cases higher levels of knowledge was expected. The study must be viewed not as a scientific investigation that has reached robust analysis but as a preliminary research that has reached to some valuable conclusions which probably will need further analysis and an extension to other groups.

*Keywords: brand awareness, brand loyalty, Olympic sponsorship, Olympic brand*

## ΠΕΡΙΛΗΨΗ

Πολυξένη Παπανικολάου: Η Αναγνωρισιμότητα των Χορηγών στο Μετά- Ολυμπιακό περιβάλλον: Η Περίπτωση της Αθήνας 2004.

(Με την επίβλεψη του κ. Αθανάσιου Κριεμάδη, Καθηγητή)

Το Ολυμπιακό εμπορικό σήμα έχοντας πολύ ισχυρή αξία, προκαλεί συναισθήματα και συγκινήσεις. Οι Ολυμπιακοί Χορηγοί δεδομένου ότι ήδη αποτελούν αναγνωρίσιμες και αξιοσέβαστες μάρκες, έχουν να αποκομίσουν ακόμη περισσότερα οφέλη συνδέοντας το όνομα τους με το Ολυμπιακό εμπορικό σήμα και τις αξίες που αυτό αντιπροσωπεύει. Ο πρωταρχικός σκοπός της έρευνας ήταν να μελετήσει το γενικότερο πλαίσιο της λειτουργίας των χορηγών των Ολυμπιακών Αγώνων της Αθήνας 2004 και την επιρροή του στους καταναλωτές, πάνω σε θέματα που αφορούσαν: α) την αναγνωρισιμότητα της μάρκας, β) την πίστη στην μάρκα, γ) την θετική συμπεριφορά και δ) την ανώτατη αντίληψη που αποκομίζεται για ένα εμπορικό σήμα όταν αυτό συνδέεται με τους Ολυμπιακούς Αγώνες. Πιο λεπτομερώς, ο σκοπός ήταν να αξιολογηθεί κατά πόσο υπήρξαν αποτελεσματικοί οι διάφοροι διεθνείς και εθνικοί χορηγοί στο να καταφέρουν να πετύχουν αυτό για το οποίο είχαν σχεδιαστεί από την αρχή: την σύνδεση του ονόματος τους με τους Ολυμπιακούς Αγώνες. Ένα καινούργιο, κατάλληλο ερωτηματολόγιο σχεδιάστηκε για αυτήν την μελέτη. Το δείγμα της έρευνας απαρτίστηκε από Αθηναίους πολίτες, από 25 έως 50 χρόνων, στοχεύοντας έτσι στο κομμάτι του πληθυσμού που διαθέτει την μεγαλύτερη αγοραστική δύναμη. Τα αποτελέσματα έδειξαν ότι η Ολυμπιακή Χορηγία δημιουργεί αναγνωρισιμότητα, εντούτοις σε κάποιες περιπτώσεις αναμένονταν υψηλότερα ποσοστά. Η συγκεκριμένη μελέτη μπορεί να θεωρηθεί σαν μια προκαταρκτική έρευνα, η οποία κατέληξε σε κάποια αξιολογικά συμπεράσματα, που πιθανώς θα χρειαστούν περαιτέρω ανάλυση και επέκταση σε άλλες ερευνητικές ομάδες.

Λέξεις κλειδιά: *πίστη στην μάρκα, αξία της μάρκας, Ολυμπιακή χορηγία, Ολυμπιακοί Αγώνες*

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

I would like to express the deepest appreciation to my professor, Lecturer Ourania Vrontou, she convincingly conveyed an excitement in regard to teaching and constituted a source of inspiration for me. Without her guidance and help this thesis would not have been possible.

I would also like to thank my committee members, Professor Athanasio Kriemadi and Lecturer Panagiotti Alexopoulo, for their dedication of time when I needed the most and direction.

In addition a thank you to Lecturer Stella Leivadi for lending her expertise and wisdom. A special thank you to my friend Emmanouela Skoula, for putting up with me and always giving me the right advice.

Finally, I would like to thank the University of Peloponnese for providing me with the opportunity to enhance and expand my knowledge.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT.....	iii
ΠΕΡΙΛΗΨΗ.....	iv
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.....	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	vi
LIST OF TABLES.....	viii
LIST OF FIGURES.....	ix
I. INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1. Purpose of the Study.....	4
1.2. Research Questions.....	5
1.3. Delimitations.....	5
1.4. Limitations.....	5
1.5. Basic Assumptions.....	5
1.6. Definition of Terms.....	6
1.7. Significance of the Study.....	6
1.8. Organization of the Study.....	7
II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE.....	8
2.1. Defining Sponsorship.....	8
2.2. The Benefits Derived From Sponsorship.....	10
2.3. The Process by which Sponsorship influences consumer behavior.....	11
2.4. Olympic Sponsorship.....	14
2.4.1. Parasite Marketing (Ambush Marketing).....	16
2.4.2. Effectiveness of Sponsorship challenged.....	18
2.5. Summary of Theoretical Foundations.....	19
III. RESEARCH METHODS AND PROCEDURES.....	21
3.1. Participants.....	21
3.2. Research Paradigm.....	22
3.3. Approach.....	25
3.4. Strategy.....	26

3.5. Research Tool.....	27
3.6. Sampling Method.....	28
3.7. Limitations.....	29
<b>IV. PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA.....</b>	<b>31</b>
4.1. Introduction.....	32
4.2. Research Question One.....	32
4.3. Research Question Two.....	35
<b>V. SUMMARY, DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....</b>	<b>39</b>
5.1. Summary of the Study.....	39
5.2. Discussion.....	40
5.3. Recommendations for Further Study.....	44
<b>VI. BIBLIOGRAPHY.....</b>	<b>46</b>
<b>VII. APPENDICE.....</b>	<b>51</b>
Appendix A: Questionnaire.....	51

## **LIST OF TABLES**

Table 1. List of most well known brands.....	32
Table 2. Olympic Sponsors Recalled without any choice offered.....	33
Table 3. Olympic Sponsors Recalled with categorical guidance.....	33
Table 4. Olympic Sponsors Recalled amongst four largest competitors to choose.....	34
Table 5. Participants' loyalty to Olympic Brand in comparison to competitor.....	36
Table 6. Comparing Olympic Sponsors Non-Recall without any guidance to choosing between four largest competitors.....	38



## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Sponsorship and Brand Image transfer (Source: Smith,2004).....	11
Figure 2. Model of Sponsorship’s Effectiveness (Source: Pham, 2000).....	14
Figure 3. Participants’ direct or indirect involvement to Olympic Games.....	22
Figure 4. Participants educational background.....	22
Figure 5. Ontology, Epistemology and Methodology (Source: Blanche et al., 2006).....	24
Figure 6. Sampling techniques (Source: Saunders et al., 2009).....	29
Figure 7. Brands Recalled as Olympic sponsors amongst a choice of four competitors.....	34

## **I. SPONSORS BRAND AWARENESS IN THE POST OLYMPIC ENVIRONMENT : THE CASE STUDY OF ATHENS.**

Samitas et al. (2008) argue that sponsorship has been escalated into one of the most promising marketing communications' tools because it promotes brand awareness, it establishes a positive brand image, it enhances brand recognition, it enables the development of links and attachments between the brand and the event (which is sponsored) and finally it promotes goodwill. Sponsorship has received much academic interest in the last decades fairly because it has been associated with building a good and favorable reputation for the brand or the corporation and thus creating a positive perception on the minds of consumers.

The Olympic Games is one of the most popular events in the context of mega-sport events as it attracts the attention of billions of consumers on the global level (Soderman & Dolles, 2008; Soderman & Dolles, 2010). Apostolopoulou and Papadimitriou (2004) explain that the interest in sponsoring the Olympic Games is explained by three considerable reasons: the first is that the IOC (International Olympic Committee) has managed to make the Olympic symbol one of the most recognizable brands around the world and therefore attaching a sponsorship brand on this is beneficial because it adds to the brand equity. The second is that the Olympic Games are the ultimate mega sports' event celebration that is viewed and audienced by global consumers and therefore a sponsorship brand derives from this world attention. Finally, the third reason is that the Olympic Games involve festivities of the sports and the athletes and generally reflect such a positive climate that can be leveraged by sponsors to attach their brand to the Olympic 'mood'.

In the Olympic Games framework, sponsorship eventually becomes the most dominant communication tool which can be employed by organizations and firms around the world in order to accomplish incredibly high levels of brand exposure which otherwise cannot be attained (Davou et al., 2008; Fahy et al., 2004; Farrelly et al., 2005). According to Toohey and Veal (2008) the Olympic Games through an extensive media coverage and promotion are eventually capturing audiences that no other sport event can ever achieve; similarly, the authors mention that within a period of fifteen

days (which the Olympics generally last) but also prior to the event, the audience and viewer ratings exponentially grow. In this respect thus, exposure of the brand which is attached through sponsorship with the Olympic Games grows exponentially too. The first traces of increased attention to the sponsorship of the Olympics as a marketing, promotional and communication practice are found in the 1984 Los Angeles Games, where international and national corporations sought to leverage commercial benefits through making an explicit link between their brands and the sport event (Tripodi, 2001). From that point on, Olympic Games' sponsorships have been not only gaining momentum in the marketing circles and corporate involvements, but especially they have been considered as the ultimate investment in promotion and communication that organizations can implement in order to benefit from brand associations and from experiential marketing (Davou et al., 2008). Davou et al. (2008) explain that it is the experiential marketing that eventually is targeted by sponsors in the case of the Olympic Games since integration of the experience of the event with the brands' value and equity becomes rather apparent and it is this (perceived link between the brand and the experience) that the sponsors attempt to build.

Olympic Games' sponsoring has further attracted the attention of researchers and marketing academics due to the enormous dollar amounts invested and devoted to funding this mega sport event (Samitas et al., 2008; Tripodi, 2001; Tripodi et al., 2003). Sponsorship amounts have increased dramatically from 1976 Olympics in Montreal and the 1984 Olympics in Los Angeles. Particularly, in 1976 a respective number of six hundred sponsors paid approximately a cumulative of 4 million dollars, whereas in 1984 a number of thirty two top sponsors invested each from 4 million to 12 million (Crompton, 2004). The following Olympiads generated greater sponsorship amounts; Barcelona in 1992 collected some 175 million dollars, Atlanta's sponsorship in 1996 amounted to 350 million dollars and Sydney's 2000 sponsorship reached above 500 million dollars (Carter & Wilkinson, 2000; Crompton, 2004;). Athens in 2004 additionally collected almost 570 million dollars from sponsors (Papadimitriou et al., 2008). It is quite clear that sponsorship grows at a fast rate and this only concerns the top sponsoring corporations/organizations. The Olympic Games apart from top sponsorships (mainly international) rely heavily on national sponsorships as well. According to Giannoulakis et al. (2008) the largest portion of the revenues of the Olympic Games come from such marketing and communications tools; in the 2002 Winter Olympic Games in Seoul the revenue sources from sponsorships reached 53%

while in the 2004 Olympic Games in Athens the contribution of top sponsors only reached 23% (international sponsors).

The rationale behind Olympic Games' sponsorship is viewed by Renard and Sitz (2011) as being derived from the assumption that organizations and corporations that decide to officially attach their corporate brand with the mega sport event, expect to maximize the returns on investment (ROI). Given that the Olympic Games is a global phenomenon and it does not involve only the hosting country, but it is fundamentally addressed to the international markets, sponsorships are sought to be marketing/communication practices that can have the ultimate positive and favorable results on the awareness, recognition, preference and attitude towards the brands (sponsoring brands). Fahy et al. (2004) explain that the benefits of sponsorship extend to more than brand -associated advantages; particularly the authors posit that in the special case of Olympic sponsorship, organizations can build or improve competitive advantage in the communications and marketing relationships. Alternatively, Mason (2005) states that Olympic sponsorship can go even further than the competitive advantage to create a favorable climate for positive consumer behavior. These are then considered to be significant returns on the sponsorship investments that allow corporate brands to be linked in an explicit and direct manner with the world's largest celebration of sports (Farrelly et al., 2005; Senguin & O'Reilly, 2008).

While on a theoretical level sponsorship has been appraised and its value has been acknowledged, on the practical level many researchers or practitioners express concerns regarding the actual results and the effectiveness of sponsorship given that a parallel marketing practice has also grown in regards to event- brand association. Tripodi (2001) define it as parasite marketing or ambush marketing and it is actually the attempt of corporate brands to associate themselves with an event without being obliged or being required to pay for official sponsorship. Such practices are very often and frequent in the Olympic Games and potentially reduce the effectiveness of the top sponsors or the official sponsors. The rationale behind this practice, according to Farrelly et al. (2005) is that corporate brands try to benefit equal advantages to those of official sponsors by avoiding paying the sponsors' rights fees while at the same time being exposed and communicated during the staging and the implementation of the event. In the case of the Olympic Games such practices may involve the buying of advertising space during the broadcasting of the games (at the international level), promoting products directly associated with tangible assets of the Olympic Games (such

as the Olympic mascots), using the Olympic Games trademark and logo explicitly or implicitly in their advertising campaign (running throughout the period as well as prior to the Games) and related activities which gradually provide a misleading assumption to viewers and consumers that the particular brands are sponsoring the mega event. This parasite or ambush marketing has grown into a major challenge in the sponsorship of the Olympic Games, where organizations are required to invest huge amounts of capital and money in order to make their brand visible (Seguin & O'Reilly, 2008). According to Farrelly et al. (2005) and Smith (2004) such marketing communications practices eventually affect the extent of effectiveness of sponsorship.

### ***1.1. Purpose of the study***

On the one hand sponsorship has been growing at a very fast rate given that more and more international and domestic (in each different case of staging the Olympic Games) corporations invest enormous amounts in order to achieve an explicit association between their brands and the Olympic brand, but on the other hand there is some evidence that in many instances the effectiveness of sponsorships (in providing and yielding the desired results in terms of brand equity, brand recognition, brand preference and good will) is challenged because of a general confusion that is created by parallel marketing and communication activities linked to the Olympic brand thought without having the official and exclusive right to sponsor the Games. As Seguin and O'Reilly (2008) explain, it is a great obstacle for sponsors to design and strategize an effective communication practice drawn from exclusive attachment of the brand to the Olympics, but it is an even greater obstacle for these same sponsors to compete with brands that indirectly and without the resource allocation committed become associated with the Olympics in the minds of consumers.

Having as a starting point this theoretical problem which poses some limitations to the effectiveness of sponsorship, the dissertation takes as a case study the 2004 Olympic Games hosted by Athens in order to investigate the general framework of sponsorship and its influences on the consumers regarding areas such as a) brand awareness; b) brand recognition; c) positive attitude, behavior; and d) ultimately explicit perception of the brand linked to the Olympic Games. In more details, the purpose is to assess how effective have been various official and exclusive (both international and national)

sponsorships in achieving what they were designed to achieve in the first place: a link between the brand and the Olympic Games.

### **1.2 Research Questions**

The research questions to be examined are :

1. What is the level of awareness and loyalty towards the Athens 2004 Olympic Sponsors seven years after the games in Greece?

More specifically:

2. Is Olympic Sponsorship effective in creating a long term brand awareness?
3. Is Olympic Sponsorship effective in creating a long term brand loyalty?

### **1.3. Delimitations**

The study will be delimited to Athens citizens above the age of 25 years old, taking into consideration that seven years ago the same age group is considered a group with restricted consuming behavior. Therefore the study is heavily targeting the most 'consuming' group (the 'buyers') of the population i.e. 25 – 50 years of age. Data for this study will only be collected from graduate students of higher education institutions since the pilot study which included all age and educational backgrounds demonstrated the over-engineered character of the provided questionnaire.

### **1.4. Limitations**

The limitation of the study was recognized as the follow:

1. The respondents' honesty, accuracy, and objectivity when completing the questionnaire.
2. The study must be viewed not as a scientific investigation that has reached robust analysis but as a preliminary research that has reached to some conclusions which probably will need further analysis

### **1.5. Basic Assumptions**

1. Olympic sponsorship creates brand awareness.

2. The questionnaire will be suitable for identifying sponsors brand awareness in the post Olympic environment.

### ***1.6. Definition of Terms***

**Olympic Games:** The Olympic Games is one of the most popular events in the context of mega-sport events as it attracts the attention of billions of consumers on the global level (Soderman & Dolles, 2008; Soderman & Dolles, 2010).

**Sponsorship:** Sponsorship is a confirmed part of the corporate marketing mix and integrated marketing communications (Carter & Wilkinson, 2000; Renard & Sitz, 2011). Soderman & Dolles (2008) state that sponsorship is actually the marketing practice which involves explicit linkages between what the event that is sponsored stands for and what the brand attempts to communicate to its target markets. According to Renard and Sitz (2011) sponsorship is a fee-related ‘business transaction’ which gives the right to the sponsor to use the brand of the event or the trademark of the event in order to achieve greater benefits which can be relevant to the brand exposure and brand value.

**Ambush Marketing:** Tripodi (2001) defines as parasite marketing or ambush marketing, the attempt of corporate brands to associate themselves with an event without being obliged or being required to pay for official sponsorship.

**Brand :** “A name, term, sign, symbol, design or a combination of these that identifies the makers or seller of the product or services” (Kotler et al, 2005, pp 549).

**Brand Awareness:** Is one of the core values of brand equity. It has to do with the capacity of a consumer to distinguish a brand amongst other brands (Aaker, 1991).

**Brand Loyalty:** “The attachment that a consumer has to a brand” (Aaker, 1991, pp.39)

**Brand Equity:** “A set of brand assets and liabilities linked to a brand, its name and symbol, that add to or subtract from the value provided by a product or service to a firm and/or to that firm’s customers” (Aaker, 1991, pp 15).

### ***1.7. Significance of the Study***

The purpose of the dissertation has been clarified, but within the greater aim specific objectives are to be accomplished. These include: a) the review of relevant studies and sources which reveal how sponsorship functions in regards to achieving the

targets concerning brand associations in order to create a basis for the research study; b) the investigation of the case of 2004 Olympics in Athens in regards to the sponsorship's effects on the minds of consumers towards specific brand outcomes; c) the assessment of sponsorship as an ultimate marketing and communication tool in the case of the Olympic Games; and d) the generation of results and outcomes in terms of explicit association of the brand and the Olympic Games. These objectives serve one purpose that is critical for this study; to produce recommendations that adhere to the framework of sponsorship and particularly to sponsorship of the Olympics. The level of significance for the present study is increased in its capacity to produce generalizations to other post-Olympic environments seeking knowledge on the sponsorship effectiveness. Taking into consideration the evident lack of relevant studies, then the provided output generates an invaluable tool for further related research to enhance knowledge on Olympic sponsorship.

### ***1.8. Organization of the Study***

The statement of the problem, research questions, delimitations, limitations, basic assumptions, definition of terms, significance of the study, and organization of the study are defined in Chapter I. The review of literature is presented in Chapter II. Chapter III presents the methods and procedures utilized in the collection and analysis of data collected. Chapter IV presents an analysis of data collected, and the findings. Finally, Chapter V summarizes the study, and presents the discussion and recommendations based on the findings of the study.



## **II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

The literature review chapter presents the theory that is related to the sponsorship as means of marketing communications, the effectiveness of sponsorship in achieving its objectives, the Olympic sponsorship as a differentiated communications and promotional tool for brands, the challenges to the effective sponsorship and finally some practices that have been found to threaten the role of sponsorship in increasing brand awareness and transferring brand image. Part of the literature review is also devoted to the theories which relate to the mechanisms by which sponsorship affects consumer behavior.

### ***2.1 Defining Sponsorship***

Sponsorship is defined in various forms by different researchers or academics, primarily based on the several features and benefits that are stressed in each occasion. For example, Tripodi (2001) describes sponsorship as a fundamental promotional activity undertaken by corporations in order to extract commercial value. Polonsky and Speed (2001) view sponsorship as a commercial activity that is build around the right that is granted to the sponsoring organization or the sponsoring brand to make use of 'associations'; these associations are developed between the brand and the sponsored event and aim at endorsing the values and the image of the event to the brand personality. In special regards to these associations advocated by these authors, Soderman and Dolles (2008) state that sponsorship is actually the marketing practice which involves explicit linkages between what the event that is sponsored stands for and what the brand attempts to communicate to its target markets. According to Renard and Sitz (2011) sponsorship is a fee-related 'business transaction' which gives the right to the sponsor to use the brand of the event or the trademark of the event in order to achieve greater benefits which can be relevant to the brand exposure and brand value. Such definitions of sponsorship give a general picture of the specific communication

and marketing tool but add little to the understanding and knowledge of sponsorship (Tripodi, 2001).

Sponsorship is a confirmed part of the corporate marketing mix and integrated marketing communications (Carter & Wilkinson, 2000; Renard & Sitz, 2011). This implies that the particular activity is not to be considered outside of the marketing framework for each respective brand, but it should be constituting an inseparable practice in the marketing area which is to enhance the remaining promotional activities (Pham, 2000; Senguin & O'Reilly, 2008). Sponsorship, according to Mason (2005) actually extends the brand associations that marketing and branding have already established through related programs or techniques and most importantly it expands the potential target market to which these associations are addressed. Therefore, sponsorship involves the simultaneous use of the values communicated by an event and the expansion and intensification of the relevant marketing communications that the corporate brand has been surrounded by.

Sponsorship pertains to official and exclusive link with an event at the exchange of rights' fees (Tripodi, 2001). The sponsors invest money resources in order to fund the event and to produce revenues for the respective event. In addition to that however, sponsors may also make agreements for providing free services which are necessary for the implementation of the event and balance in this way two contributions: income contribution and service contribution (Hede & Kellett, 2011). In each of these cases, the sponsors can act in the following ways in terms of leveraging the associations: use the logo or the trademark of the event in its communication messages (Crompton, 2004; Fahy et al., 2004; Tsiotsou & Alexandris, 2009); use brand logo on the tangible assets of the event (Renard & Sitz, 2011); relate the event's features and characteristics with the brand identity (Ruth & Simonin, 2003); use advertising space in the premises or facilities that the event takes place (Soderman & Dolles, 2008; Soderman & Dolles, 2010); and finally use advertising space and time during the broadcast of the event if its nature permits it (Mason, 2005). These leverages that sponsorship offers to the organizations are all equally targeting two fundamental aspects: brand awareness and brand equity (Ruth & Simonin, 2003).

## ***2.2 The Benefits derived from Sponsorship***

Sponsorship as any other communications tool practiced by corporations offers considerable benefits which are spotted both in the short run and in the long run (Senguin & O'Reilly, 2008). Tsiotsou and Alexandris (2009), discuss about the outcomes of sponsorship and suggest that there are three distinguishing constructs: the brand image of the sponsor, the purchase intentions and the word of mouth communications. The outcomes of sponsorship in terms of brand image are pertinent to the brand associations: attributes, benefits and attitudes. The associations on brands' attributes, as the authors explain, are based on product related or non-product related characteristics and involve the assessment of consumers on these features as shaped through the sponsorship. The associations on brands' benefits relate to the consumers' perception of the value of the brand; and finally the attitudes relate to the consumers' evaluation of the overall brand. These outcomes of sponsorship can be considered as short – term benefits because they involve the perceptions of consumers on the brand while the sponsorship is taking place and throughout the event. The remaining two constructs, alternatively can be considered as long term outcomes and these are the purchase intentions and world of mouth communications. Purchase intentions (positive consumer behavior) is fundamentally the most important benefit derived from sponsorship as it reflects the willingness and the activity of purchase of the brand due to the specific marketing communications practice. Furthermore, word of mouth communications (which is based on the notion of consumers' recommending the brand) is also critical because it reveals again a positive perception and expands the market base.

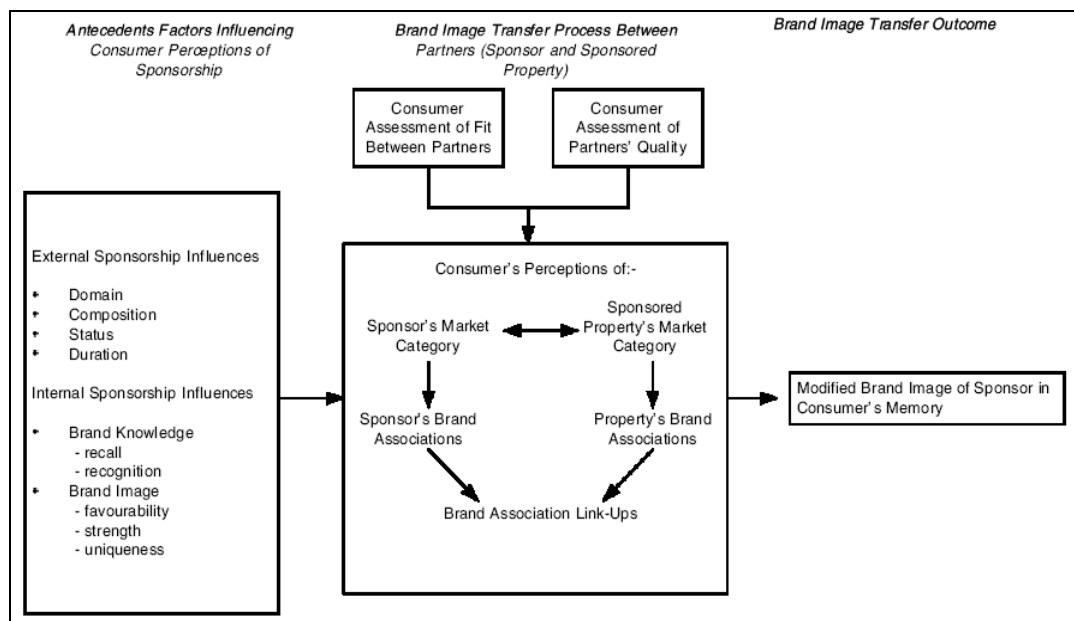
Apostolopoulou and Papadimitriou (2004) alternatively provide a list of sponsorship objectives which are then translated to benefits. These include: “a) sponsorship allows corporate brands to transform the events' spectators or viewers into potential clients or customers; b) sponsorship enables corporate brands to be massively exposed to international and national markets through media coverage; c) sponsorship eventually develops strategic public relations for the corporate brand; d) sponsorship can strengthen the brand image, by promoting favorable to consumers' minds associations; e) sponsorship, finally, can transform brand awareness and brand recognition into brand preference.”

Sponsorship is also viewed as an effective tool to increase shareholder value and develop stakeholder relationships (amongst which are the customers as well) (Fahy et al., 2004; Ruth & Simonin, 2003; Sequin & O'Reilly, 2008). In more details and in terms of the relationships with the customers, Soderman and Dolles (2010) explain that sponsorship allows corporations and brands to develop or extend links with target markets by using means of communications through the sponsored events.

The presentation of the benefits derived from sponsorship reveals that there is a diversity of objectives and variety of advantages attached to this marketing tool. For this very reason, as Hede and Kellett (2011) and Papadimitriou et al. (2008) comment, sponsorship has become one of the most heavily practiced marketing communications method and has attracted the interest of the researchers.

### 2.3 The process by which Sponsorship influences consumer behavior

Positive consumer behavior is the ultimate objective and the overall purpose of sponsorship (Ruth & Simonin, 2003; Senguin & O'Reilly, 2008). According to Smith (2004) the process by which sponsorship influences consumer behavior should be explored through the process of transferring brand image (brand image transfer, BIT) (Figure 1).



**Figure 1**, Sponsorship and Brand Image Transfer.

(Source: Smith, 2004)

It is this mediator that then is set to affect consumers' perceptions and eventually behaviors. Smith (2004) uses two theories to explain the process; the first theory is the categorization theory which is based on the cognitive learning of consumers and the second theory is the Associative Network theory which is based on the memory and the ability of consumers to make associations in the minds.

The categorization theory actually refers to the degree in which consumers perceive the fit between the event and the sponsor and consequently create an image of the sponsor's brand as this is communicated (Chien et al., 2011). Smith (2004) explains that each event promotes a "schema" which reflects the cognitive aspect of consumers' understanding and learning of the event. The schema constitutes a category in which the consumers classify the event and therefore the sponsors of the event fall in the categories formed in the consumers' minds. If there is proper match between the category and the sponsors' brands then it is more likely that the brand image is transferred to the target markets and the objectives of sponsorship are achieved. Pentecost and Sunita (2006) further add that the categorization theory in fact explains how the consumers' perceptions are influenced provided that these consumers have at least some knowledge and understanding of the brands that are sponsoring the event; this allows categorization and evaluation of the fit between the sponsor and the event.

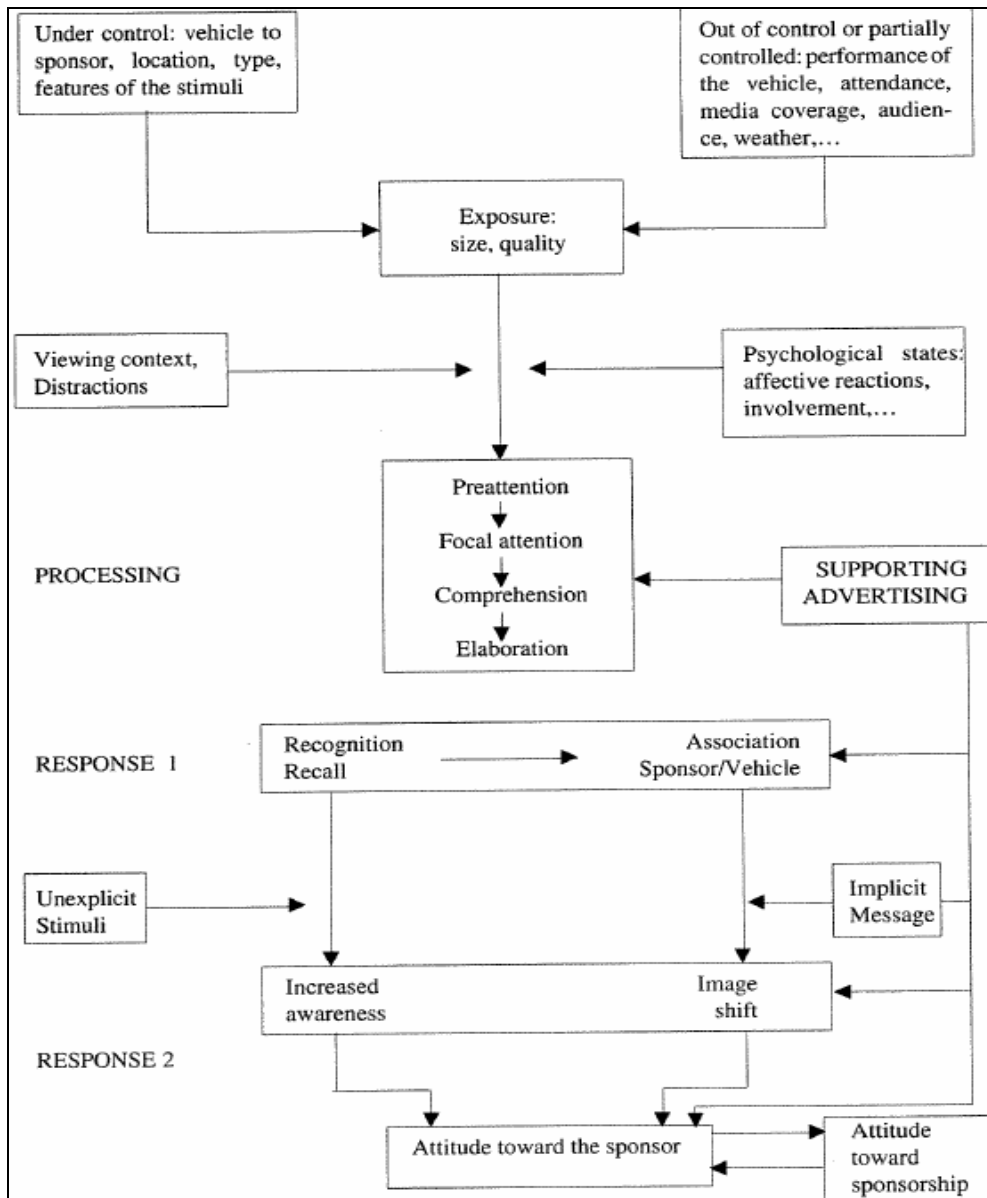
The Associative Network theory suggests that brand image transfer is based on the consumers' memories and abilities to make associations in their minds regarding two constructs (an event and a brand for example) (Chien et al., 2011; Smith, 2004). This then suggests that sponsorship, which by definition is aimed at making explicit associations to the target markets, prompts recognition and awareness. The process by which this occurs is explained by Smith (2004); the theory suggests that the memories are consisting of 'nodes' and the stimuli are those that activate these nodes and allow individuals to recall an incident. In the case of sponsorship, any stimuli that prompt activation of memories attached to the event they will simultaneously activate memories of the brands associated with the event).

In several research studies the process of sponsorship's influence on consumers is viewed as more internally-driven approach (Crompton, 2004; Renard & Sitz, 2011; Ruth & Simonin, 2003). The theoretical basis upon which these authors and researchers develop their views suggests that prior perceptions or previous knowledge and evaluation of the brands (that are sponsoring an event) mediate the process by which brand image is transferred. Prior attitudes, evaluations, assessments and behaviors'

towards the sponsoring brand are very important and are likely to interact with the brand communications and produce brand image (Renard & Sitz, 2011). Therefore in this set of theories it is the already shaped perception and attitude that becomes the most significant input in brand image and brand evaluation. To this extent, brand awareness is perceived as pre – existent and it is what stands for the basis of building upon brand image and preference.

Mason (2005) alternatively explains the process of sponsorship influencing consumer behavior as a model of the cognitive, affective and behavioral components. Cognitive elements refer to the beliefs and ideas that consumers have towards the brands; affective elements refer to the emotional linkages that the brands promote to the consumers' minds; behavioral elements refer to the end activities or practices (actions) that consumers undertake towards the brand (purchase of the brand for example). Sponsorship affects the first two elements of attitudes which are then prompting the third element (behavioral component). In the cognitive framework, sponsorship provides awareness and knowledge of the brand and makes associations that are understood and learnt by the consumers (thinking of an event brings in mind the sponsoring brand as well); in the affective framework sponsorship attempts to leverage the emotions and feelings that the event promotes to the audiences and therefore it creates emotions and feelings for the brand as well. These in turn influence the behavioral component which represents the ultimate and favorable attitude of consumers regarding the brand.

Pham (2000) suggests that the influence process is much more complicated and consists of several different factors and variables. Sponsorship can create brand awareness but it can also shift brand image and these eventually formulate brand attitudes (Figure 2). The process begins by the exposure of the sponsor but then the different variables interact in order for consumers to receive what is communicated to them; such variables include parameters that sponsors can control and parameters that sponsors cannot control. The fit between the sponsor and the event is the starting point and then consumers/audiences affected by sponsor – related and event – related stimuli gradually shape brand perceptions.



**Figure 2**, Model of Sponsorship's Effectiveness.

(Source: Pham, 2000)

### 2.4 Olympic Sponsorship

In the first section of this chapter the processes by which sponsorship functions were outlined. In this section the focus is on sponsorships of the Olympic Games which is partially differentiated by all other events on the basis of two issues: first it is a global mega event that is staged in a specific host country but it involves respectively all countries in the world (and therefore the target audience –target market – is considerably much larger than any other event) and second it is an event that stands for celebration and festivities of sports which reflect ultimate means of world unification

and integration (Davou et al., 2008). The Olympic Games thus being the outmost of the sports' institution, present enormous opportunities to managing brand attitudes through sponsorship.

Several brands have built strong equity and preference amongst consumers due to their attachment to the Olympic Games. Xerox, Reebok, Visa, McDonalds', General Electric, Samsung, Coca Cola are only some of international or global brands that have been leveraging sponsorship to the Olympics in order to achieve favorable results (Senguin & O'Reilly, 2008; Soderman & Dolles, 2008; Tripodi, 2001; Tripodi et al., 2003).

Olympic sponsorship is viewed as different by any other event sponsorship by many researches because it is the Olympic spirit of festivity and celebration, unification, cultural integration and the aspect of global attention of viewers and audiences that increase the magnitude and the importance of being associated or linked in some form of attachment to the Games. The Olympic brand itself is one of the highest recognizable brands, it has strong equity and it communicates to the consumers significant values. Therefore, sponsoring the event immediately gives opportunities to the corporations and the brands to 'rent' or incorporate those values that are simultaneously communicated by the Olympic Games (Fahy et al., 2004). Olympic sponsorship enables brands to build important attitudes and brand features by extracting principles of the Olympic Games; brand trust, brand reliability and brand credibility are derivatives of the values that the Olympic brand stands for, and this is in fact an excellent opportunity for global organizations (Hede & Kellett, 2011).

But the Olympic sponsorship is not limited to the international sponsors or global brands, national organizations and domestic brands also gain momentum in the case of sponsoring the Games. In the case of Athens 2004 Olympic Games for example, Samitas et al. (2008) found that domestic sponsoring organizations as well as small international firms managed to increase their stock returns in a more intensive manner than large organizations and global brands. Similarly, Spais and Fillis (2006) focusing on the 2004 Games again, showed that the stock values of the national sponsors increased at the announcement of their sponsorship and throughout the event. In other Olympiads such findings are also evident; for example, Carter and Wilkinson (2000) showed that the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games increased the sales of the international and national sponsors even prior to the hosting of the event (at the announcement of the official sponsorship).



Consumer studies investigating how viewers perceive and evaluate Olympic sponsorship have produced very promising and interesting results. According to Ruth and Simonin (2003) consumers showed higher levels of brand awareness, shaped more favorable attitude of the brand that sponsored the Olympic Games, expressed interest in purchasing brands associated with the Olympic Games, considered the brands as credible and reliable, and finally perceived the brand as socially responsible. Furthermore, Olympic sponsorship allows brands to distinguish and differentiate considerable themselves from competing brands and therefore achieve some sort of competitive advantage which is based on the brand image and on the increased awareness and recognition of the brands (Soderman & Dolles, 2010).

#### ***2.4.1 Parasite Marketing (Ambush Marketing)***

The first important notice that non- sponsors of the Olympic Games managed to equally share benefits of brand awareness and brand associations to those of official sponsors was on the 1984 Los Angeles Games. Kodak made an explicit attachment to the Olympics back then through using the logo, the brand, the advertising space and time during broadcasting and extracted much of the attention that was to be paid on the official sponsor Fuji (Seguin & O'Reilly, 2008). Since then, several cases of well known international brands have used 'parasite marketing' in order to accomplish two objectives: to gain the benefits that associations between the brand and the event provide and simultaneously retract from committing huge capital investments in the sponsoring of the Olympic Games (Tripodi, 2001.).

The techniques of parasite/ambush marketing involve a wide range of practices that corporations can undertake:

- a. a brand can be sponsor not to the event but to the broadcast of the event and thus being offered the same opportunity of exposure and visibility
- b. a brand can be advertised within the broadcast time during the breaks
- c. a brand can be advertised in spaces (billboards for example) that are close to the facilities that the event takes place
- d. a brand can use implicit or explicit images of the event brand or logo in its advertisements (or even communication messages of the event) (Farrelly et al., 2005; Schmitz, 2005; Seguin & O'Reilly, 2008; Tripodi, 2001).

Several research studies have investigated practices that involve parasite/ambush marketing. The main and fundamental reason is that challenging the effectiveness of sponsors in the light of ‘ambushers’ is crucial because it can have two implications: first since Olympic Sponsors pay enormous rights’ fees in order to gain authorized attachment to the event it is imperative to look whether engaging into similar patterns of communications without paying fees can in the end produce the same advantages and benefits as official sponsorship (Schmitz, 2005). If it indeed does, then official sponsorship in Olympics will decline and the reduced amounts paid for fees will imply less revenues for the staging of the Games (since the major source of revenues in the Olympic Games is the rights’ fees of sponsors). Second, since sponsoring has gained enormous attention as a primary communications tool to increase brand awareness and promote brand image, evidence on similar benefits gained by parasite/ambush marketing will probably contradict the assumption that sponsoring an event is the only means of making associations between the event and the brand (the sponsoring brand). This will then imply that simple advertising during the event can produce adequate and substantial benefits and therefore reduce the value of sponsorship (Farrelly et al, 2005).

In the context of the research studies investigating the threats to official sponsorship, results have been rather confusing. For example Farrelly et al. (2005) present several cases where ambushers have achieved great exposure and have managed to create confusion in the minds of consumers regarding the actual brand that was the official sponsor. Such cases include: Nike in the 1996 Olympic Games in Atlanta ambushed Reebok (which was the authorized sponsor and had paid millions of dollars to the IOC) and American Express in the same Olympic Game ambushed the official sponsor Visa. In these cases studies have shown that these ambushing brands eventually achieved the development of brand equity and favorable brand image (through increasing awareness) equally with the official sponsoring brands and in some instances more effectively than the official brands. Alternatively, Sengun and O’Reilly (2008) in their study concluded that consumers are nowadays conscious and aware of ambushing techniques and parasite marketing does not significantly ‘outshine’ the official sponsors.

#### ***2.4.2 Effectiveness of Sponsorship Challenged***

Olympic sponsorship has been appraised and has been acknowledged as very important in achieving a wide range of objectives relating to brand equity, brand

awareness, brand trust, brand recognition and favorable brand perceptions and associations. The previous chapter showed some threats that stem primarily from the parasite marketing (ambush marketing) which is a frequent phenomenon in the Olympic Games. These threats include: lack of differentiation of the official sponsors when compared to ambushers (Schmitz, 2005; Tripodi, 2001); misconception of consumers on which brand is indeed the official sponsor of the Olympic Games (Farrelly et al., 2005); insufficient brand exposure in a unique manner (Senguin & O'Reilly, 2008).

Besides the threats from parasite/ ambush marketing, sponsorship is also challenged by several other variables in terms of its effectiveness. Giannoulakis et al. (2008) suggest for example that the effectiveness lies heavily on the consistency of the objectives that the sponsors set to achieve when they invest in funding the Games and attaching their brands to the Olympic brand itself. Consistency and clarity of objectives implies that organizations should make strategic decisions on the target audiences and the communications to these audiences in order to maximize the effectiveness of their sponsorships. Senguin and O'Reilly (2008) also stress that the effectiveness of sponsorship is often challenged by inappropriate brand management (of the sponsored brand) where there are not 'matches' that clearly and explicitly can form associations in the consumers' minds. Smith (2004) states that challenges are also to be found in the fit between the previous brand communication strategies made by the sponsoring organizations and the current practices (current referring to the Olympic sponsorship); if it is not perceived by the consumers then it is probably that the brand messages that are to be transferred and communicated to the audiences will not achieve their goals. Accordingly, Chien et al. (2011), Mason (2005), Pentecost and Sunita (2006) and Soderman and Dolles (2008) argue that fit between the corporate image (or the brand image) and the event is highly important in order to contribute to the sponsorship's effectiveness. Brand image needs to be in alignment with the image of the Olympic brand (communicating similar values or at least being able to communicate adequate and sufficient credibility and trust) in order to achieve maximum potentials of brand – related positive attitudes (Chien et al., 2011). Otherwise organizations that invest huge amounts in sponsoring the Olympics will not attain the target objectives that they have set in terms of results and outcomes.

Practical issues are also relevant to the effectiveness of sponsorship. Pham (2000) explains that the vehicles (sponsorship vehicles meaning the tools by which the sponsor is communicated) can also moderate the effectiveness. Sponsors need to find

appropriate messages and appropriate means of sponsorship promotion in order to maximize the results targeted. Additionally, Pitts and Slattery (2004) explain that the exposure time period is very critical to the effectiveness of sponsorship. Measuring brand awareness and recognition of sponsors throughout the event taking place, Pitts and Slattery (2004) found that the greater the exposure time period the greater the awareness and recognition ratings of consumers regarding the sponsoring brands. This, according to the authors, is very important in designing properly and strategically the period of exposure and the time of exposure as it is a moderator of awareness and recall.

### ***2.5 Summary of Theoretical Foundations***

The review of literature in this chapter allowed the presentation of some very important theories and points that are critical for the understanding of sponsorship, the mechanisms by which it affects consumer behavior, the differentiation of Olympic sponsorship, the benefits gained from sponsoring the Olympics as well as the challenges and threats entailed in sponsorship. The summary of each of these theoretical foundations generates some critical issues; first of all sponsorship is a multi-objective marketing communications and promotional tool as it includes a range of different benefits and advantages regarding brand associations, brand perceptions, brand awareness, brand recognition, brand preference, brand equity, brand trust and brand credibility. All these in turn are targeted by organizations in the onset of one ultimate goal; to influence consumer behavior in a positive construct. The mechanism by which sponsorship affects consumer behavior is again a multi-variable process; different theories explain in a different manner this process but the important issue to understand is that sponsorship attempts to transfer a brand image and increase brand awareness and these are implemented through influence cognitive and affective elements of the consumers' attitudes. In the case of Olympic sponsorship the affective elements become more important because the Olympic brand itself has a very strong equity and it communicates values, feelings and emotions; so Olympic sponsors primarily target these affective elements which are then expected to influence behavioral elements (consumer behavior in essence). In addition to that, Olympic sponsors extract the values that the Olympic brand stands for and given that the Olympic brand is one of the most recognizable and respected brands it becomes clear that sponsors have a lot of benefits

to gain. The review of literature also presented some very successful brands that have strengthened their equity through Olympic sponsorship.

Apart from the appraisals to the sponsorship in creating brand associations and establishing a good basis for positive consumer behavior, there are also some challenges in the effectiveness of sponsorship. Parasite/ ambush marketing, which is frequent in the Olympic Games framework as a mega and global event, can divert awareness and association of the Olympic brand from sponsors to ambushers. Furthermore, while this is a critical challenge stemming from the practices of competing brands, challenges are also posed by the sponsoring organizations themselves in the case of absent consistent program on sponsoring, lack of fit between the brand image and the Olympic brand, lack of match between past communication practices and Olympic sponsorship and finally lack of integration of the brand value to the Olympic value.

### **III. Research Methods and Procedures**

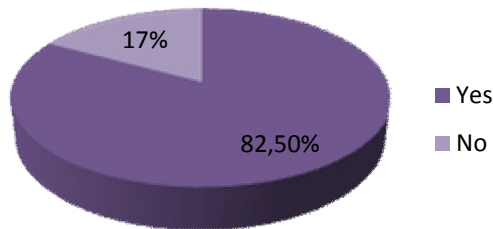
In this chapter the objective is to analyze, justify and outline the research methodology that was formulated in the study of sponsors' brand awareness in the post – Olympic 2004 Games. The chapter sections are divided in such a way that each deals with a separate construct of the methodology; the first section explains the participants sample, the second section explains the ontology and epistemology which lead to the paradigm, the third section explains the approach to the research, the fourth section discusses the research strategy, the fifth section analyzes the research tool, the sixth section outlines the sampling method and finally the seventh section recognizes some limitations.

#### **3.1 *Participants***

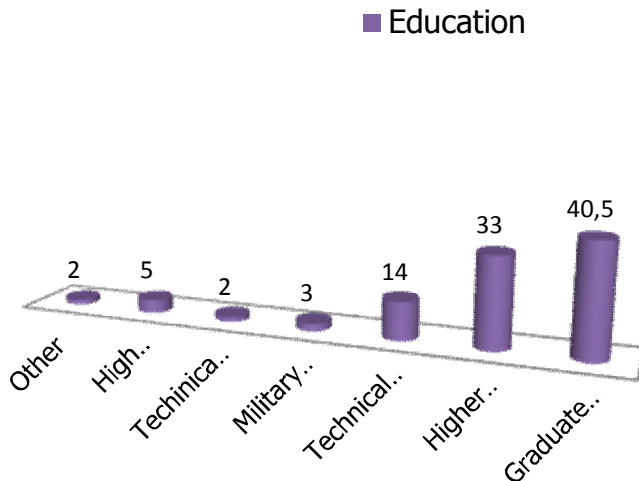
The study consisted of Athens citizens above the age of 25 years old, taking into consideration that seven years ago the same age group was considered a group with restricted consuming behavior. Therefore the study was heavily targeting the most 'consuming' group (the 'buyers') of the population i.e. 25 – 50 years of age. Data for this study was only collected from graduate students of higher education institutions since the pilot study which included all age and educational backgrounds demonstrated the over-engineered character of the provided questionnaire.

A total number of 200 people responded to the survey. The participants gender percentages were, sixty point five (60,5) female and thirty-nine point five (39,5%) male. Concerning their ages, ninety-seven point five (97,5%) were in the age group from twenty-five (25) to fifty (50) years old, and two point five (2,5%) above fifty years old. The respondents had the following characteristics concerning their direct or indirect involvement to Olympic Games (see Figure 3) and their educational background ( see Figure 4). Related to the participants educational background, forty point five (40,5%) stated that they had obtained a Graduate studies Degree ( Master's Degree/ Doctoral Degree), thirty-three (33%) a Bachelor Degree, fourteen (14%) a Technical Higher

Education Degree, three (3%) have finished Military Academy and seven (7%) other (Technical Education/ High school). According to their involvement to Olympic Games, seventeen (17%) answered ‘No’, they haven’t followed the Games and eighty-two point five (82,5%) ‘Yes’, they had followed the Games.



**Figure 3.** Participants’ direct or indirect involvement to Olympic Games



**Figure 4.** Participants educational background

### ***3.2 Research Paradigm***

The research paradigm is the reflection of the researchers’ beliefs and perceptions on the nature of the research topic and the underlining issues that need to be considered prior to deciding the research methodology (Blanche et al., 2006; Bryman, 2004). Positivism and Interpretivism are the two competing paradigms in marketing and consumer studies. Positivism is more like the scientific nature of the research where the dominant view is that every research phenomenon has an element of causality (Hunt,

1991; Saunders et al., 2009). Causality is then described as the relationship between variables which eventually formulate the social world. The positivism paradigm assumes that the reality is not relevant or not directly attached to the researcher who investigates it. This means that researchers just observe the research problem and remain distant from the sample or the problem itself; thus description is basically the objective of the investigation. Contrast to this, Interpretivism is a looser paradigm of enquiry because it embraces the element of ‘subjectivity’ in the study of research phenomena. The interpretivism paradigm assumes that the reality is not only relevant to the different perspectives of the people but also to the different perspectives of the researcher; in this case the researcher tries to understand the problem and not just observe it because the assumption is based on the notion that each research problem is interpreted in different ways by different subjects (Bryman, 2004).

Hunt (1991) states, that in consumer and marketing research, the dominant paradigm is the positivism because of three reasons: first consumer research means that a researcher is committed to study the behavior of consumers by extracting a sample from the population in order to test particular variables in the construct of causality. So, quantity is very important because it ensures that enough data and enough evidence is gathered so as to consider the results as being appropriate for generalisability (considering that what is true for the sample is true for the population). The second reason is that in consumer behavior and marketing studies there is always a set of variables to be explored regarding their potential influence of the consumers’ attitudes. So causality and the investigation of relationships between dependent variables and independent variables become very crucial. The third reason is that consumer behavior studies are difficult to be approached under the interpretivism or any other paradigm that does not give emphasis on quantity because then it would be oriented towards investigating a niche of the market instead of the entire market. In simple words, this means that if consumer behavior, attitude and perception were to be explored by qualitative approaches and through gathering qualitative data then this would suggest a simple focus on a sample base and not an ability to infer the results to the overall market.

The premise that positivism is the adequate and appropriate paradigm for marketing and consumer studies is developed on the basis of the ontology and epistemology of the research problem’s nature (Bryman, 2004; Hunt, 1991). Ontology is described by Johnson and Duberley (2000) as the set of beliefs that the researchers



have regarding the reality that governs the research problems. Particularly, ontology is the understanding of the research problem in terms of being either objective in its nature (one reality for each research problem) or subjective in its nature (many realities for each research problem according to the interpretations of the different perspectives) (Blanche et al., 2006). Epistemology is defined by Johnson and Duberley (2000) as this research approach which “is concerned with knowledge about knowledge. In other words, epistemology is the study of the criteria, by which we can know what does and does not constitute warranted, or scientific knowledge” (p. 3). This means that the epistemology is indeed what the researcher will decide in terms of learning about the research problem. The combination of the ontology and epistemology in the end produce the philosophy paradigm. In the case of positivism it is described as follows: the ontology suggests that the consumer behavior regarding Olympic Sponsors can be observed and measured because it is a phenomenon that is real, external and stable and is not affected by the researcher and the epistemology suggests that the way in which the researcher can study the awareness of the sponsoring brands on the side of consumers can only be objective given that measurement is the goal. Therefore, the methodology is a combination of experiment (scientific approach), quantitative analysis and testing relationships (Figure 5).

	Ontology	Epistemology	Methodology
Positivist	<input type="checkbox"/> Stable, external reality <input type="checkbox"/> Law-like	<input type="checkbox"/> Objective <input type="checkbox"/> Detached observer	<input type="checkbox"/> Experimental <input type="checkbox"/> Quantitative <input type="checkbox"/> Hypothesis testing
Interpretive	<input type="checkbox"/> Internal reality of subjective experience	<input type="checkbox"/> Empathetic <input type="checkbox"/> Observer intersubjectivity	<input type="checkbox"/> Interactional <input type="checkbox"/> Interpretive <input type="checkbox"/> Qualitative

**Figure 5:** Ontology, Epistemology and Methodology

(Source: Blanche et al., 2006)

To clarify the ontological and epistemological positions of this study two issues should be explained. The first issue has to do with the nature of the research problem and it is asserted that the brand awareness of sponsors’ in the case of 2004 Olympic Games is not a matter of the interpretation of the researcher when observing the sample

base (the consumers' behavior) but it is a matter of the behavior of consumers themselves. So what is meant by this is that the brand awareness exists even without the researcher being interfered with its exploration and investigation. Thus, the nature of the research problem is such that even in the absence of observation it does not cease to exist (external reality). The second issue has to do with the ways by which observation or measurement of the 'existing' research topic is more effectively approached. This issue is related to the qualitative or quantitative method and given that in the specific research topic knowledge is to be gathered by the observation/ measurement of as many consumer perceptions and attitudes as possible it is clear that it is the quantity that is of interest.

### ***3.3 Approach***

The approach to the methodology describes the type of investigation that is chosen by the researcher when studying a specific research topic (Saunders et al., 2009). There are two basic types of investigation: qualitative and quantitative. In the previous section it has already been mentioned that positivism suggests a quantitative attachment to the research enquiry and this is in fact the approach undertaken in the study.

Quantitative methods are described by Quinton and Smallbone (2006) as the investigations which measure and count numbers of cases in each construct of the research problem as well as those investigations which measure relationships between factors in order to determine causality. In the opposite direction, qualitative methods seek explanation of the research problem on the basis of the people's feelings, beliefs and expressions and generally their interpretation. A basic difference between the two is identified by Punch (2005) who states that "quantitative research has typically been more directed at theory verification, while qualitative research has typically been more concerned with theory generation" (p. 16). Therefore, depending on what the research problem's nature requires (verification or new theory generation) and in accordance with the researcher's paradigm admittance, the choice of the approach becomes self-evident.

Quantitative methods have several advantages, amongst which the most important ones are:

a) they are underpinned by scientific reasoning and therefore they offer a certain degree of validity (which cannot be questioned or challenged provided that the research methods are designed appropriately) (Punch, 2005)

b) they are precise in what they measure (specificity of the variables which are measured) and therefore they are underpinned by objectivity (Quinton & Smallbone, 2006)

c) they are more reliable since they are based on numbers and measurable data (Blanche et al., 2006)

d) they are easier to control and therefore limit the investigation on what needs to be researched (Miller & Salkind, 2002)

e) they eliminate the subjectivism element and the attachment of the enquirer and therefore they are more credible (Punch, 2005; Saunders et al., 2009).

However, there are also limitations associated with such methods and these are:

a) they are not flexible in terms of interpretation and analysis (Punch, 2005)

b) they might be narrowly focused but not on the right path (Quinton & Smallbone, 2006)

c) they can easily exclude non-defined from the very beginning variables of investigation (and therefore they can prove insufficient in researching a given topic) (Blanche et al., 2006)

d) they are challenged by not justified generalisability, which occurs when falsely the researcher considers the results from the study to be true for the whole research problem (from sample to market for example) (Saunders et al, 2009).

### **3.4 Strategy**

The strategy or often referred to as research design is the procedure (the way) for collecting data (Saunders et al., 2009). There are various strategies: observations, focus groups, surveys, interviews, experiments etc. Each of these strategies uses a different design in order to collect information that is adequate and sufficient to answer the research questions.

For the study of the 2004 Olympic sponsors' brand awareness (and consequently consumer perception and behaviour) the strategy of survey was used. Survey is a type of strategy that allows the collection of multiple data from a large number of cases with the use of a single research instrument (the questionnaire) (Blanche et al., 2006). Surveys

are typical in consumer and marketing studies because they satisfy the criterion of ‘quantity’ of data (Quinton & Smallbone, 2006). According to Churchill and Iacobucci (2010) surveys are useful because they enable the researcher to address the study into a wide sample base. And this is indeed one of the main issues that are required in this study; to have a large database that can be credible and reliable to offer results.

### ***3.5 Research Tool***

The research tool is evident from the research strategy: questionnaire. But there are different types of questionnaires: closed questionnaires, open questionnaires, structured questionnaires, semi-structured questionnaires based on the extent to which standardization is achieved (Brace, 2008). Another classification of the questionnaires is on the basis of the administration: self-administered questionnaires, telephone administered questionnaires, researcher – addressed questionnaires (Jenkins and Dillman, 1997). Furthermore, there is the classification of questionnaires in terms of the types of questions that they include: Likert scale questions, attitude measurement questions, mutually exclusive questions (Brace, 2008).

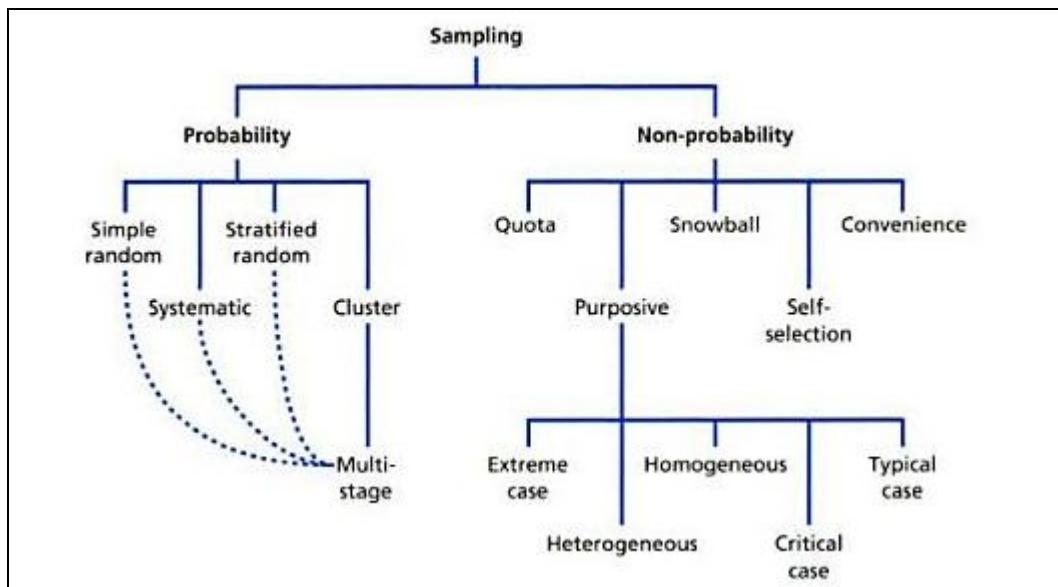
Realizing the lack regarding Olympic sponsorship related research tools a new tailor-made questionnaire was designed for this study. The questionnaire featured: closed and open questions (closed questions especially for the exploration of consumer behavior in particular while open questions for the investigation of consumers’ identification of the sponsoring brands); Likert scale questions (for the measurement of positive or negative behavior); attitude measurement questions (for the investigation of consumers’ perceptions towards brands) and mutually exclusive questions (especially for the demographic profiling of the sample participants). The questionnaire includes seventeen standardized and semi-structured questions, one open (entirely open question) and nine categorical questions (demographics and personal information) (the questionnaire is included in the Appendix).

Regarding the administration of the questionnaire, the researcher decided to select the self-administered approach. According to Jenkins and Dillman (1997) self – administered questionnaires should be preferred in consumer and marketing studies because they provide time and space to the participants to answer honestly and responsibly. Brace (2008) also comments that self – administered questionnaires reduce the ‘feelings’ of pressure that participants might experience when the researcher is

present at the time of responding or when the researcher himself/ herself addresses the questions to the sample responders. Some limitations, however, also emerge in the case of self-administration and these generally relate to the misunderstanding or confusion of the participants regarding specific questions. For the elimination of such challenges the questionnaire was tested (pilot testing) in advance to some random individuals and this enabled the researcher to spot any deficiencies or vague statements that should be changed. Pilot testing is critical because it increases validity and it gives the opportunity to the researcher to identify weaknesses in the research tool (Brace, 2008; Saunders et al., 2009). The over demanding nature of the questionnaire led to the decision to target only educated groups that could handle the instrument credibly.

### ***3.6 Sampling Method***

The sampling method that was used by the researcher in order to determine the sample participants was an implementation of two methods: quota sampling and sampling based on convenience. The first method reflects the procedure in which all subjects of the population have the opportunity to be chosen for the research study given that they fulfill established criteria (Miller and Salkind, 2002) and the second method reflects the procedure in which the research study selects subjects which fulfill criteria (if these are set by the researcher) but which are also in the sphere of convenience to the researcher (Saunders et al., 2009) (Figure 6). According to Miller and Salkind (2002) it is feasible that researchers can employ two different techniques simultaneously if this is justified by the requirements of the study. So, regarding the quota sampling the initial sampling design foresaw that all Greek consumers can be potential subjects of the research provided that they fulfilled two criteria: first they should had been in Athens during the staging of the 2004 Olympic Games (in order to verify and ensure credible answers from participants that are relevant) and second they should had been at least eighteen years old in 2004 (translated in today being above 25 years old). Once the quotas were set, then sampling based on convenience was used; provided that these two criteria could be easily satisfied by an abundant number of subjects, the researcher preferred to select the cases from the social surroundings and thus infer to the convenience element.



**Figure 6:** Sampling techniques  
(Source: Saunders et al., 2009)

The size of the sample for the study on sponsors' brand awareness in the post Olympic period in Athens was not determined through the use of a statistical method, despite the fact that this would increase generalisability. The final sample includes 200 (two hundred) cases of Greek consumers satisfying the above referred criteria. Miller and Salkind (2002) argue that sampling size estimations are necessary in research studies that have a definite and easy to estimate population and the purpose is therefore to reduce the error by employing as much as possible a representative number of cases. However, the researcher could not identify the definite population and so concluded into two decisions that justify the sample size: first, a number of 200 cases is not small to be unable to justify any conclusions (especially at the academic level) and second, the conclusions will not be expected to be accepted as end verification of theories but they are to be accepted as preliminary knowledge on the subject of sponsors' brand awareness in the case of 2004 Olympic Games in Athens.

### ***3.7 Limitations***

The limitations that are confronted by the methodology that has been designed for the research study are directed towards two issues: the first is the generalisability

and the second is the credibility. Generalisability is a limitation that occurs when the sample size cannot be a justification of external validity (which means that the results are considered as being representative for all consumers outside the sample as well) (Miller & Salkind, 2002). The researcher recognizes this critical limitation and for this purpose the study must be viewed not as a scientific investigation that has reached robust analysis but as a preliminary research that has reached to some conclusions which probably will need further analysis. Credibility is a limitation that occurs when the participants' responses are not measured in non-biased terms (Miller & Salkind, 2002). Possible limitations for this emerge when the research is not appropriately designed or when the participants are biased in any way and feel that they should respond in a certain manner. The researcher has tried to design the research tool in a non-biased way (excluding any biased statements or questions) and moreover has used the self-administration method for questionnaires in order to reduce a possible perceived bias on the part of the sample.

## **IV. PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA**

### **4.1. Introduction**

This chapter presents the findings of this study as well as the analyses of these findings. It has been organized to systematically present the information obtained from the survey instrument and the statistical analysis used to answer the research questions and hypotheses. A total of 200 people responded to the survey.

#### Research Question

1. What is the level of awareness and loyalty towards the Athens 2004 Olympic Sponsors seven years after the games in Greece?

More specifically:

2. Is Olympic Sponsorship effective in creating a long term brand awareness?
3. Is Olympic Sponsorship effective in creating a long term brand loyalty?

### **4.2. Research Question One**

Is Olympic Sponsorship effective in creating a long term brand awareness?

#### Questionnaire Item 1

In the first question (1) the participants were asked to identify which are the most famous brands of the ten reported product categories in their opinion. The winners and percentage frequencies of their responses are shown in Table 1. According to the survey responses, 70.5% (i.e. 141 people) answered that Cosmote is the most famous brand in the Telecom product category, 50.5% (i.e. 101 people) answered that National Bank is the most famous brand in its category. The responses showed that 88% (i.e. 176 people) considered Fage-Delta the most famous brand in the dairy product category, 68.5% (i.e. 137 people) chose 'Other' brands as the most famous in the automobile category. This included brands as Ford, Seat and VW. A high number of



74.5% (i.e. 149 people) recognized ELTA as the most famous in the post product category. With Amstel and Heineken being close in results, in the Alcohol Drink category, the former by 39.5% (i.e. 79 people) won. Coca-Cola assembled the highest percentage in the Non-Alcohol Drink category by 87,5% (i.e. 175 people) . This was also the highest percentage presented in the first research question. Another case where a number of different brands won a category is the Chronometers. ‘Other’ brands like Casio and Rolex came first by 38,5% (i.e. 77 people). In the Mobile category ‘Other’ brands like Nokia and Sony Ericsson by 22,5% (i.e. 45 people) were the winners of the category. Finally, 69,6% (i.e. 139 people) considered Goody’s as the most famous in the Fast-Food category.

**Table 1.** List of most well known brands

	<b>Product Category</b>	<b>Winner</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>1.</b>	Telecom	Cosmote	70,5%
<b>2.</b>	Bank	National Bank	50,5%
<b>3.</b>	Dairy	Fage-Delta	88%
<b>4.</b>	Automobile	Other*	68,5%
<b>5.</b>	Post	ELTA	74,5%
<b>6.</b>	Alcohol Drink	Amstel	39,5%
<b>7.</b>	Non-Alcohol Drink	Coca-Cola	87,5%
<b>8.</b>	Chronometer	Other*	38,5%
<b>9.</b>	Mobile	Other*	63,5%
<b>10.</b>	Fast-Food	Goody’s	69,5%

### **Questionnaire Item 7**

In question 7 the participants were asked to name as many as of the Official Olympic Sponsors they could remember. Table 2 shows that a) 38.5% (i.e. 77 people) of the respondents recalled Cosmote in the Telecom category, b) 30.5% (i.e. 61 people) recalled Alpha Bank in the bank category, c) 16% (i.e. 32 people) recalled Fage-Delta in the dairy category, d) 30% (i.e. 60 people) recalled Hyundai in the automobile category e) 11% (i.e. 22 people) recalled ELTA in the post category, f) 20.5% (i.e. 41 people) recalled Heineken in the alcohol drink category, g) 49.5% (i.e. 99 people) recalled Coca-Cola in the non-alcohol drink category, h) 12.5% (i.e. 25 people) recalled Swatch in the chronometer category, i) 12% (i.e. 24 people) recalled Samsung in the

mobile category and j) 12.5% (i.e. 25 people) recalled McDonalds in the fast-food category.

**Table 2.** Olympic Sponsors Recalled without any choice offered

	<b>Product Category</b>	<b>Olympic Sponsor</b>	<b>Recall</b>
<b>1.</b>	Telecom	Cosmote	38,5%
<b>2.</b>	Bank	Alpha Bank	30,5%
<b>3.</b>	Dairy	Fage-Delta	16%
<b>4.</b>	Automobile	Huyndai	30%
<b>5.</b>	Post	ELTA	11%
<b>6.</b>	Alcohol Drink	Heineken	20,5%
<b>7.</b>	Non-Alcohol Drink	Coca-Cola	49,5%
<b>8.</b>	Chronometer	Swatch	12,5%
<b>9.</b>	Mobile	Samsung	12%
<b>10.</b>	Fast-Food	McDonald's	12,5%

### **Questionnaire Item 8**

The findings indicate the following: a) 44% (i.e. 88 people) of the participants recalled Cosmote in the Telecom category, b) 37.5% (i.e. 75 people) of the participants recalled Alpha Bank, c) 40% (i.e. 54 people) recalled Fage-Delta in the Dairy category, d) in the Automobile category 33% (i.e. 66 people) recalled Huyndai, c) 21.5% (i.e. 43 people) recalled ELTA in the Post category, d) in the Alcohol-Drink category 30% (i.e. 60 people) recalled Heineken, e) Coca-Cola was recalled in the No-Alcohol Drink category by 54.5% (i.e. 109 people) of the participants, f) Swatch, in the Chronometer category was recalled by 18% (i.e. 36 people) of the participants, g) Samsung was recalled by 17% (i.e. 34 people) of the participants in the Mobile category and j) McDonalds was recalled by 16.5% (i.e. 33 people) of the participants (see Table 3).

**Table 3.** Olympic Sponsors recalled with categorical guidance

	<b>Product Category</b>	<b>Olympic Sponsor</b>	<b>Recall</b>
<b>1.</b>	Telecom	Cosmote	44%
<b>2.</b>	Bank	Alpha Bank	37,5%
<b>3.</b>	Dairy	Fage-Delta	40%
<b>4.</b>	Automobile	Huyndai	33%
<b>5.</b>	Post	ELTA	21,5%

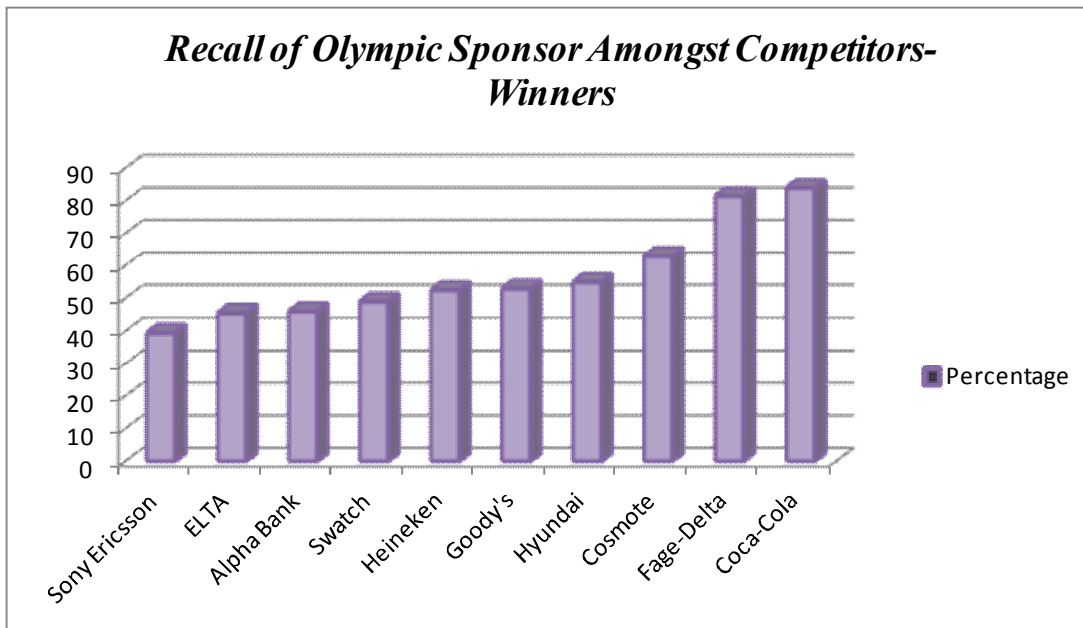
6.	Alcohol Drink	Heineken	30%
7.	Non-Alcohol Drink	Coca-Cola	54,5%
8.	Chronometer	Swatch	18%
9.	Mobile	Samsung	17%
10.	Fast-Food	McDonald's	16,5%

### **Questionnaire Item 9**

In question 9, the participants were asked to recall which was the Olympic Sponsor amongst a choice of four competitors, in each of the ten sponsor categories. Fage-Delta sponsor of the dairy and Coca-Cola Olympic of the non-alcohol drink categories, were recalled with a high percentage of 81.5% (i.e. 163 people) and by 84% (i.e. 168 people) of the participants respectively. Cosmote was recalled by 63% (i.e. 126 people). In the Bank category, Alpha was recalled by 46% (i.e. 92 people). Hyundai, in the automobile category was recalled by 55% (i.e. 110 people). Samsung and McDonalds, were recalled with the lowest percentages, by 33.5% (i.e. 67 people) for the mobile category and by 28% (i.e. 56 people) for the fast-food category, respectively. Heineken from the Alcohol-Drink category was recalled by 52.5% (i.e. 10 people). And finally, Swatch and ELTA, in the Chronometer and Post categories, were recalled by 49% (i.e. 98 people) and 45.5% (i.e. 91 people) respectively.

**Table 4.** Olympic Sponsors recalled amongst four largest competitors to choose

	<b>Product Category</b>	<b>Olympic Sponsor</b>	<b>Recall</b>
1.	Telecom	Cosmote	63%
2.	Bank	Alpha Bank	46%
3.	Dairy	Fage-Delta	81,5%
4.	Automobile	Huyndai	55%
5.	Post	ELTA	21,5%
6.	Alcohol Drink	Heineken	52,5%
7.	Non-Alcohol Drink	Coca-Cola	84%
8.	Chronometer	Swatch	49%
9.	Mobile	Samsung	33,5%
10.	Fast-Food	McDonald's	28%



**Figure 7.** Brands recalled as Olympic sponsors amongst a choice of four competitors

As shown in Figure 7, eight out of the ten categories of Olympic sponsors were recalled correct from the participants. However, it has to be noted that Coca Cola appears as the most remembered brand even when not guided while it is a surprise to notice that a national food sponsor “Goody’s” exceeded the awareness of a large international sponsor that of McDonalds despite the disproportionate marketing benefits enjoyed during Olympic Games. Also, one of the most valuable results produced remain the choice of a brand which was not even included in the list of possible competitors, that of Sony Ericson which appears to concentrate the appreciation of those participating in the research proving the effectiveness of the company’s marketing tools. Finally, it is interesting to note that amongst the first five places there are three national sponsors that seem to be recognized by participants easier than some of the benefitted international well known brands such as Heineken.

#### **4.3. Research Question Two**

Is Olympic Sponsorship effective in creating a long term brand loyalty?

#### **Questionnaire Item 12**

In question 12 the participants were asked to choose their level of loyalty; “I am loyal to this brand”, “This is the one that I prefer to use” and “I buy it whenever I

can''. In every product category they had two choices, the one of the Olympic sponsor and the competitor. Olympic sponsors that 'won' in their category are: a) Cosmote by 64,3% (i.e. 128 people) versus Vodafone (39,2 %), b) Alpha bank by 33% (i.e. 64 people) versus Eurobank (25,3%), c) ELTA by 64,9% (i.e. 126 people) versus DHL (24,6%), d) Heineken in the Alcohol category by 55,7% (i.e. 107 people) versus Amstel (48,4%), e) Coca-Cola was also the winner by 66,3% (i.e. 127 people) versus Pepsi which was recalled by 30,2% (i.e. 58 people) and, finally f) Swatch in the chronometer category was recalled by 56% (i.e. 108 people) versus Omega which came second with a recall of 39,1% (i.e. 75 people). The Olympic sponsors that came second in their category are: a) FAGE-DELTA by 48,2% (i.e. 96 people) versus Olympos (61,7%), b) Huyndai by 15,8% (i.e. 30 people) versus Nissan (23,5%), c) Samsung by 36,5% (i.e. 70 people) versus Sony Ericson (52,3%), and finally d) MacDonaldis by 19,1% (i.e. 37 people) versus Goody's (64%).

**Table 5.** Participants' loyalty to Olympic brand in comparison to competitor

	<b>Product Category</b>	<b>O.S</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Competitor</b>	<b>%</b>
1.	Telecom	Cosmote	64,3	Vodafone	39,2
2.	Bank	Alpha Bank	33	Eurobank	25,3
3.	Dairy	Fage-Delta	48,2	Olympos	<b>61,7</b>
4.	Automobile	Huyndai	15,8	Nissan	<b>23,5</b>
5.	Post	ELTA	64,9	DHL	24,6
6.	Alcohol Drink	Heineken	55,7	Amstel	48,4
7.	Non-Alcohol Drink	Coca-Cola	66,3	Pepsi Cola	30,2
8.	Chronometer	Swatch	56	Omega	39,1
9.	Mobile	Samsung	36,5	Sony Ericsson	<b>52,3</b>
10.	Fast-Food	McDonald's	<b>19,1</b>	Goody's	64

### **Crosstabs Questionnaire Item 7 + Questionnaire Item 9:**

The findings in this questionnaire item showed that of the people who at first did not recall the product category sponsors, when provided with choices finally recalled in percentages that varied. This analysis revealed significant relationships. Accordingly, a) in the Chronometer category 47,8% (i.e. 76 people) recalled Swatch correctly, while the rest did not recall the right sponsor. More specifically, 34% (i.e. 54 people) said it was Omega, 14,5% (i.e. 23 people) said it was LONGINES and 3,7% (i.e. 6 people) other (including TIMEX) ( $x^2=16,245$ ,  $df=4$ ,  $p<0,05$ ) b) in the Telecom category 43,1% (i.e. 22 people) recalled Cosmote correctly, while the rest did not recall the right sponsor, 45,1% (i.e. 23 people) said it was Vodafone, 3,9% (i.e. 2 people) said it was Wind and 5,9% (i.e. 3 people) Other ( $x^2=33,691$ ,  $df=4$ ,  $p<0,01$ ) c) in the bank product category, 32,1% (i.e. 42 people) recalled the correct sponsor, Alpha, the rest with wrong answers were National bank by 34,4% (i.e. 45 people), Eurobank by 19,8% (i.e. 26 people) and Pireus by 13,7% (i.e. 18 people) ( $x^2=49,333$ ,  $df=3$ ,  $p<0,01$ ) d) probably the most remarkable notice, people who at first did not recall the dairy Olympic Sponsor, when provided with choices recalled FAGE-DELTA by 81,6% (i.e. 133 people), while the rest did not recall the right sponsor. More specifically, 1,9% (i.e. 3 people) said it was Olympos, 9,6% (i.e. 15 people) said it was Mebgal and 3,8% (i.e. 6 people) said it was Agno, e) in the Automobile category 41,4% (i.e. 53 people) recalled Hyundai correctly, while the rest were not recalled correctly, Nissan by 20,3% (i.e. 26 people), BMW by 25% (i.e. 32 people) and Fiat by 13,3% (i.e. 17 people) ( $x^2=50,833$ ,  $df=3$ ,  $p<0,01$ ), f) in the post category 43,8% (i.e. 70 people) recalled ELTA correctly, while the rest did not recall the right sponsor. More specifically, 17,5% (i.e. 28 people) said it was DHL, 15% (i.e. 24 people) said it was SPEEDEX and 23,8% (i.e. 38 people) said it was ACS ( $x^2=20,820$ ,  $df=3$ ,  $p<0,01$ ), g) in the Alcohol Drink category 45,8% (i.e. 66 people) recalled Heineken correctly, while the rest were not recalled correctly, more specifically, Amstel was recalled by 40,3% (i.e. 58 people), Mythos by 13,2% (i.e. 19 people) and Kaiser by 0,7% (i.e. 1 person), ( $x^2=31,685$ ,  $df=3$ ,  $p<0,01$ ), h) in the non-alcohol drink category, Coca-Cola was recalled correctly by 84,4% (i.e. 81 people), while the rest were not recalled correctly and more specifically, Pepsi by 5,2% (i.e. 5 people), Red Bull by 7,3% (i.e. 7 people) and Epsa by 3,1% (i.e. 3 people), i) in the mobile category Samsung was recalled correctly by 26,7% (i.e. 44 people), the rest were recalled by 47,9% (i.e. 79 people) for Sony Ericsson, 13,9% (i.e. 23 people) for LG and

11,5% (i.e. 19 people) for Motorola ( $\chi^2=44,106$ ,  $df=3$ ,  $p<0,01$ ) and finally j) in the fast-food category 21,1% (i.e. 34 people) recalled MacDonal'd's correctly, while the rest did not recall the right sponsor. More specifically, 64% (i.e. 103 people) said it was Goody's, 5,6% (i.e. 9 people) said it was KFC and 9,3% (i.e. 15 people) said it was Grigoris ( $\chi^2=46,136$ ,  $df=3$ ,  $p<0,01$ ).

**Table 6.** Comparing Olympic Sponsors non-Recall without any guidance to choosing between four largest competitors

<b>Olympic Sponsor First recall</b>	<b>No Recall</b>		<b>Olympic sponsors recalled amongst four largest competitors</b>
	<b>Product Category</b>	<b>Olympic Sponsor</b>	<b>Recall</b>
<b>1.</b>	Telecom	Cosmote	43,1%
<b>2.</b>	Bank	Alpha Bank	32,1%
<b>3.</b>	Dairy	Fage-Delta	84,7%
<b>4.</b>	Automobile	Huyndai	41,4%
<b>5.</b>	Post	ELTA	43,8%
<b>6.</b>	Alcohol Drink	Heineken	45,8%
<b>7.</b>	Non-Alcohol Drink	Coca-Cola	84,4%
<b>8.</b>	Chronometer	Swatch	47,8%
<b>9.</b>	Mobile	Samsung	26,7%
<b>10.</b>	Fast-Food	McDonal'd's	21,1%

## **V. SUMMARY, DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

The summary, a discussion of the study, as well as recommendations for further study are presented in Chapter V.

### ***5.1. Summary of the Study***

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the nature of the outcomes concerning the effectiveness of 2004 Olympic Games Sponsors which were hosted in Athens and their influence on the consumers, regarding areas such as a) brand awareness; b) brand loyalty c) positive attitude, behavior; and d) ultimately explicit perception of the brand linked to the Olympic Games. Have been various official and exclusive (both international and national) sponsorships able in achieving what they were designed to achieve in the first place: a link between the brand and the Olympic Games?

The research questions to be examined were as follows:

1. Is Olympic Sponsorship effective in creating a long term brand awareness?
2. Is Olympic Sponsorship effective in creating a long term brand loyalty?.

Due to the limited Olympic sponsorship related research tools a new tailor-made questionnaire was designed for this study. The questionnaire included thirteen Likert scale questions, five open (entirely open questions), nine categorical questions (demographics and personal information) and one numerical question. The over demanding nature of the questionnaire led to the decision to target only educated groups that could handle the instrument credibly.

This study must be viewed as an endeavor to provide scientific investigation and some valuable conclusions of the Olympic Sponsorship's framework which probably will need further analysis and an extension to other target groups.



## **5.2. Discussion**

A series of concluding remarks could be attempted based on the provided results revealing interesting brand stances and perceptions:

1. Four of the Olympic Sponsors and particularly, FAGE-DELTA with 88%, Coca-Cola with 87,5%, ELTA with 74,5% and Cosmote with 70,5%, were the winners of the most well known brands in their product categories. This signifies the effectiveness of the marketing tools used by these brands. These results also revealed that the prior and post to event attitudes, evaluations, assessments and behaviors' towards the sponsoring brands are very important and are likely to interact with the brand communications tools to finally produce a certain brand image (Renard and Sitz, 2011). This is evident in this case with the present sponsors demonstrating a strong brand image.

2. When the participants were asked to recall as many as Olympic Sponsors they could remember without any choice offered, Coca-Cola, Cosmote, Alpha Bank, Hyundai and Heineken were the first five brands. That was, probably, the most difficult question concerning the recall of Olympic Sponsors given the fact that we were seven years after the games and the event was not 'fresh' in the minds of the participants. However, respondents managed to recall all Olympic Sponsors, with variations in their percentages. According to the 'Associative Network theory' brand image transfer is based on the consumers' memories and abilities to make associations in their minds regarding two constructs (an event and a brand for example), (Chien et al., 2011; Smith, 2004). This then suggests that sponsorship, which by definition is aimed at making explicit associations to the target markets, prompts recognition and awareness. So, these product brands finally managed to make a link between them and the Olympic Games.

3. In the next two questions, the participants were asked to recall the Olympic Sponsors, having a categorical guidance in the first one, and a choice of four competitors, in the second one. The results showed that all the recall percentages were increased from one question to another. Olympic Sponsors were becoming more and more clear inside the minds of the participants. This is also related to the cognitive and affective components of the sponsorship influencing model behavior. According to Mason (2005), cognitive elements refer to the beliefs and ideas that consumers have towards the brands and affective elements refer to the emotional linkages that the brands promote to the consumers' minds. Sponsorship affects these two elements of attitudes.

In the cognitive framework, sponsorship provides awareness and knowledge of the brand and makes associations that are understood and recognised by the consumers (thinking of an event brings in mind the sponsoring brand as well); in the affective framework sponsorship attempts to leverage the emotions and feelings that the event promotes to the audiences and therefore it creates emotions and feelings for the brand as well.

4. Participants' loyalty to Olympic Brand in comparison to competitor was measured and the results showed that six of the Olympic Sponsors came with higher levels of loyalty than their competitors. This part constitutes the behavioral component of the sponsorship influencing model behavior (Mason, 2005). Behavioral elements refer to the end activities or practices (actions) that consumers undertake towards the brand (purchase of the brand for example). The previous two elements that were mentioned the 'cognitive' and the 'affective', influence the behavioral component which represents the ultimate and favorable attitude of consumers regarding the brand.

5. Coca-Cola was the brand presenting the highest awareness amongst all brands and product categories and also one of the highest, in terms of loyalty. Attachment to the Olympic Games created strong attachment and preference amongst consumers. It's one of the international/global brands that have been leveraging sponsorship to the Olympics in order to achieve favorable results and have succeeded (Senguin & O'Reilly, 2008; Soderman & Dolles, 2008; Tripodi, 2001; Tripodi et al., 2003). *Olympic sponsorship enables brands to build important attitudes and brand features by extracting principles of the Olympic Games; brand trust, brand reliability and brand credibility, which are derivatives of the values that the Olympic brand stands for, and this is in fact an excellent opportunity for global organizations* (Hede & Kellett, 2011). Furthermore, Olympic sponsorship allows brands to distinguish and differentiate considerable themselves from competing brands and therefore achieve some sort of competitive advantage which is based on the brand image and on the increased awareness and recognition of the brands (Soderman & Dolles, 2010). It is not that by chance Coca-Cola is one of top brands.

6. On the other hand, MacDonald's, one of the most famous brand names worldwide did not receive the same levels of awareness as Coca-Cola, more specifically the sponsor of 2004 Games in the Fast-Food category, according to the results of the study, did not seem to achieve a link between the brand and the Olympic Games. In most of the given answers, MacDonald's could not be recalled as an Olympic Sponsor,

or showed low levels of recognition comparing to other sponsors. On the contrary, Goody's, a national fast-food chain was the winner in levels of brand awareness and brand loyalty in the specific product category. In this case the effectiveness of sponsorship could probably be challenged by inappropriate brand management (of the sponsored brand) where there were not 'matches' that clearly and explicitly could form associations in the consumers' minds (Senguin & O'Reilly, 2008). Challenges are also to be found in the 'fit' between the previous brand communication strategies made by the sponsoring organization and the current practices (current referring to the Olympic sponsorship); if it is not recognized by the consumers then it is possible that the brand messages that are to be transferred and communicated to the audiences will not achieve their goals (Smith, 2004). Accordingly, Chien et al. (2011), Mason (2005), Pentecost and Sunita (2006) and Soderman and Dolles (2008) argue that fit between the corporate image (or the brand image) and the event is highly important in order to contribute to the sponsorship's effectiveness. Brand image needs to be in alignment with the image of the Olympic brand (communicating similar values or at least being able to communicate adequate and sufficient credibility and trust) in order to achieve maximum potentials of brand-related positive attitudes (Chien et al., 2011). Otherwise organizations that invest huge amounts in sponsoring the Olympics will not attain the target objectives that they have set in terms of results and outcomes.

7. The Olympic sponsorship is not limited to the international sponsors or global brands, national organizations and domestic brands also gain momentum in the case of sponsoring the Games. Cosmote, Alpha Bank, FAGE-DELTA and ELTA, 2004 Olympic sponsors showed high levels of awareness and loyalty, and in some cases exceeded the international sponsors. In the case of Athens 2004 Olympic Games, Samitas et al. (2008) found that domestic sponsoring organizations as well as small international firms managed to increase their stock returns in a more intensive manner than large organizations and global brands. Similarly, Spais and Fillis (2006), showed that the stock values of the national sponsors increased at the announcement of their sponsorship and throughout the event.

8. One of the most valuable results produced remained the choice of a brand which was not even included in the list of possible competitors, that of Sony Ericsson's which appeared to concentrate the appreciation of those participating in the research providing the effectiveness of the company's marketing tools. Samsung, the official

sponsor in the Mobile product category did not receive the percentages that were expected.

9. Some of the most remarkable results were also noticed in the Crosstabs questionnaire item. People who at first did not recall the Olympic sponsors, in question 7, when provided with four competitor choices in question 9 recalled correctly the sponsors. More specifically Coca-Cola in the non-alcohol drink product category and FAGE-DELTA in the dairy product category, were recalled with 84,4% the former, and 84,7% the latter. These brands received the highest percentages. The rest followed with percentages around 50% and MacDonald's with the lowest, 21,1%. Coca-Cola is an international brand with many years of presence and being in the first line of its category. However, the extraordinary of this case is that FAGE-DELTA, a national sponsor, exceeded in brand awareness other international firms.

10. When the participants were asked to recall the Olympic sponsors given the choice of four competitors, they recalled correctly, except for 2 categories, mobiles and fast-food. Instead of Samsung and MacDonald's who were the Olympic sponsors, the participants said it was Sony Ericsson and Goody's. Sony's marketing tools effectiveness has already been recognized earlier in the study. According to the results of this study, Goody's, a national brand, who was not even an Olympic sponsor, received amongst the highest levels of awareness and loyalty by the consumers. This is a remarkable notice if we consider the enormous amounts that sponsors spend in order to fund an event and to produce revenues and image deriving from the respective event. Somehow the consumers were convinced, as the findings of the study demonstrated, that Goody's was the Olympic sponsor of the fast-food product category. Olympic sponsorship has been appraised and has been acknowledged as very important in achieving a wide range of objectives relating to brand equity, brand awareness, brand trust, brand recognition and favorable brand perceptions and associations.

11. Another brand, which was not included in the choice of the four competitors given to the participants, neither was an Olympic sponsor, but is worth mentioned, is Nokia. The results of the survey showed that Nokia was maybe the most well known brand in the mobile/technology category and many participants recalled it as an Olympic sponsor. This, as we already mentioned, was wrong, but then, once again, it showed the effectiveness of the brands' strategies and promotional tools through all the years of its existence. Nokia is proved to be a well established brand.

12. The findings of the study also revealed the increasing level of awareness of Olympic sponsors in the time given to answering the questionnaire. More specifically, examining questions 7, 8 and 9, we concluded that from one question to another the awareness percentages were raising. In the beginning the participants were asked to recall the Olympic sponsors without any guidance, in the next question we asked them again to recall the brands but with categorical guidance this time. The awareness percentages were increased for every product category. In the final question we gave the participants a choice of four competitors. Again the results for awareness were higher from the previous question, Olympic Sponsors were becoming more and more obvious in the mind of the participants.

### ***5.3. Recommendations for Further Study***

1. The study was limited to Athens citizens above the age of 25 years old, taking into consideration that in 2004 the same age group was considered a group with restricted consuming behavior. Therefore the study was heavily targeted towards the most ‘consuming’ group (the ‘buyers’) of the population i.e. 25 – 50 years of age. Data for this study was only collected from graduate students of higher education institutions since the pilot study which included all age and educational backgrounds demonstrated the demanding character of the provided questionnaire. Research needs to be extended to different groups of the population. The questionnaire could be modified in order to fit the requirements for future studies.

2. Future research needs to reproduce, add or differentiate the present survey instrument, which could be used from researchers or the firms to evaluate the effectiveness of sponsoring the Olympic Games or other big events.

3. The questionnaire was designed especially for the current study. A modification that could be made in a future research would be to put more brand names as choices to the participants. So at the end we could have an overall view of the different brands in every product category and an overall sponsorship – brand environment picture.

4. The questionnaires’ data showed many other results that were not analyzed due to the focus of the present study towards the awareness and loyalty. More outcomes can be revealed from further data analysis.

## VI. BIBLIOGRAPHY

Aaker, D.A. (1991), *Managing Brand Equity Capitalizing on the Value of a Brand Name*, The Free Press, New York, NY.

Apostolopoulou, A. and Papadimitriou, D. (2004). "Welcome Home": Motivations and Objectives of the 2004 Grand National Olympic Sponsors. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 13, 180-192

Blanche, M.T., Durrheim, K. and Painter, D. (2006). *Research in practice: applied methods for the social sciences* (2nd ed). South Africa: Cape Town Press Ltd

Brace, I. (2008). *Questionnaire Design: how to plan, structure and write survey material for effective market research* (2nd ed). London: Kogan

Bryman, A. (2004). *Quantity and quality in social research*. London: Routledge.

Carter, L. and Wilkinson, I. (2000). Reasons for Sponsorship of The Sydney 2000 Olympic Games. *Conference Proceedings the ANZMAC 2000 Visionary Marketing for the 21st Century: Facing the Challenge*, 175 – 181

Chien, P.M., Cornwell, T.B. and Pappu, R. (2011). Sponsorship portfolio as a brand-image creation strategy. *Journal of Business Research*, 64 (2), 142 – 149

Churchill, J.A. and Iacobucci, D. (2010). *Marketing Research: methodological foundations* (10th ed). Mason, OH: South Western Cengage Learning Ltd

Crompton, J.L. (2004). Conceptualization and alternate operationalizations of the measurement of sponsorship effectiveness in sport. *Leisure Studies*, 23 (3), 267-281

Davou, K., Thwaites, D. and Chadwick, S. (2008). Emotional Engagement and Experiential Marketing: a case study of the Athens Olympic Games. *International Journal of Sport Management and Marketing*, 4 (1), 102-122

Fahy, J., Farrelly, F. and Quester, P. (2004). Competitive advantage through sponsorship: A conceptual model and research propositions. *European Journal of Marketing*, 38 (8), 1013-1030

Farrelly, F., Quester, P. and Greyser, S.A. (2005). Defending the Co-Branding Benefits of Sponsorship B2B Partnerships: The Case of Ambush Marketing. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 45 (3), 339-348

Giannoulakis, C., Stotlar, D. and Chatziefstathiou, D. (2008). Olympic sponsorship: evolution, challenges and impact on the Olympic Movement. *International Journal of Sports Marketing and Sponsorship*, 9 (4), 256-270

Hede, A.M. and Kellett, P. (2011). Marketing Communications for Special Events: Analysing Managerial Practice, Consumer Perceptions and Preferences. *European Journal of Marketing*, 45 (6), 1-28

Hunt, S.D. (1991). Positivism and Paradigm Dominance in Consumer Research: toward critical pluralism and rapprochement. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 18, 32 – 44

Jenkins, C.R. and Dillman, D.A. (1997). Towards a theory of self-administered questionnaire design. In: Lyberg et al. (Eds), *Survey Measurement and Process Quality*. New York: John Wiley and Sons Inc, pp. 141 – 164

Johnson, P. and Duberley, J. (2000). *Understanding Management Research*. London: Sage Publications Ltd

Kotler, Wong, Saunder and Strong “principle of marketing” (2005), fourth edition prentice hall.

Mason, K. (2005). How Corporate Sport Sponsorship Impacts Consumer Behavior. *The Journal of American Academy of Business*, 7 (1), 32-35

Miller, D.C. and Salkind, N.S. (2002). *Handbook of research design and social measurement* (6th ed). London: Sage Publications Ltd

Papadimitriou, D., Apostolopoulou, A. and Dounis, T. (2008). Event sponsorship as a value creating strategy for brands. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 17 (4), 212–222

Pentecost, R.D. and Sunita, P. (2006). Fit in Sponsorship: Categorisation or Congruency? Conference Proceedings, Australian and New Zealand Marketing Academy (ANZMAC) Conference 2006

Pham, M.T. (2000). The evaluation of sponsorship effectiveness: a model and some methodological considerations. *Gestion*, 4, 41-64

Pitts, B.G. and Slattery, J. (2004). An examination of the effects of time in Sponsorship awareness levels. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 13, 43-54

Polonsky, M.J. and Speed, R. (2001). Linking sponsorship and cause related marketing: Complementarities and conflicts. *European Journal of Marketing*, 35 (11/12), 1361 – 1389

Punch, K.F. (2005). *Introduction to Social Research: quantitative and qualitative approaches* (2nd ed). London: Sage Publications Ltd

Quinton, S. and Smallbone, T. (2006). *Postgraduate Research in Business: A critical Guide*. London: Sage Publishing.

Renard, N. and Sitz, L. (2011). Maximising sponsorship opportunities: a brand model approach. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 20 (2), 121–129



Ruth, J.A. and Simonin, B.L. (2003). Investigating multiple sponsors' Influence on Consumers' attitudes toward sponsored events. *Journal of Advertising*, 32 (3), 19-30

Samitas, A., Kenourgios, D. and Zounis, P. (2008). Athens' Olympic Games 2004 impact on sponsors' stock returns. *Applied Financial Economics*, 18 (19), 1569 – 1580

Saunders, M., Lewis, P. and Thornhill, A. (2009). *Research methods for business students* (5th ed). Harlow: FT Prentice Hall

Schmitz, J.K. (2005). Ambush Marketing: The off -field competition at the Olympic Games. *Journal of Technology and Intellectual Property*, 3 (2), 203 – 210

Senguin, B. and O'Reilly, N.J. (2008). The Olympic brand, ambush marketing and clutter. *International Journal of Sport Management and Marketing*, 4 (1), 62 - 84

Smith, G. (2004). Brand Image Transfer through Sponsorship: A Consumer Learning Perspective. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 20 (3), 457 – 474

Soderman, S. and Dolles, H. (2008). Strategic fit in international sponsorship – the case of the Olympic Games in Beijing 2008. *International Journal of Sports Marketing and Sponsorship*, 9 (2), 95-110

Soderman, S. and Dolles, H. (2010). Sponsoring the Beijing Olympic Games: Patterns of sponsor advertising. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, 22 (1), 8-24

Spais, G.S. and Filis, G.N. (2006). The Athens 2004 Olympic Games: an Event Study.

Does a Sponsorship Program Have a Direct Effect on Investors' Behavior? *Journal of Integrated Marketing Communications*, 52-61

Toohey, K. and Veal, A.J. (2008). *The Olympic Games: A social science perspective*. (2nd ed). Oxford: CAB

Tripodi, J.A. (2001). Sponsorship - A Confirmed Weapon in the Promotional Armoury. *International Journal of Sports Marketing & Sponsorship*, 3 (1), 1-20

Tripodi, J.A., Hirons, M., Bednall, D. and Sutherland, M. (2003). Cognitive evaluation: prompts used to measure sponsorship awareness. *International Journal of Market Research*, 45 (4), 435 – 456

Tsiotsou, R. and Alexandris, K. (2009). Delineating the outcomes of sponsorship: Sponsor image, word of mouth, and purchase intentions. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, 37 (4), 358-369

## VII. APPENDICE

### ΠΑΝΕΠΙΣΤΗΜΙΟ ΠΕΛΟΠΟΝΝΗΣΟΥ

#### Τμήμα Οργάνωσης και Διοίκησης Αθλητισμού

#### Ακαδημαϊκή Έρευνα

*Οι ακόλουθες ερωτήσεις αποτελούν αποκλειστικά μέρος μιας ερευνητικής εργασίας που αφορούν σε θέματα μάρκετινγκ και Ολυμπιακών Αγώνων του μεταπτυχιακού προγράμματος του τμήματος. Η έρευνα είναι ανώνυμη και σας παρακαλούμε ν' απαντήσετε με ειλικρίνεια και ακρίβεια. Η βοήθεια σας είναι πολύτιμη. Ευχαριστούμε πολύ για το χρόνο σας.*

1. Ποια θεωρείτε **την πιο γνώριμη** μάρκα στις εξής κατηγορίες προϊόντων?

Τηλεπικοινωνίες	
Τράπεζες	
Γαλακτοκομικά προϊόντα	
Αυτοκινητοβιομηχανία	
Ταχυδρομικές υπηρεσίες	
Αλκοολούχα ποτά (μπύρα)	
Αναψυκτικά	
Χρονομέτρηση/Αποτελέσματα (εταιρεία ρολογιών που αποτέλεσε χορηγό)	
Συσκευές κινητών	
Γρήγορο φαγητό	

2. Ποια μάρκα χρησιμοποιείτε περισσότερο **αυτή τη στιγμή** στις ίδιες κατηγορίες προϊόντων?

Τηλεπικοινωνίες	
Τράπεζες	
Γαλακτοκομικά προϊόντα	
Αυτοκινητοβιομηχανία	
Ταχυδρομικές υπηρεσίες	
Αλκοολούχα ποτά (μπύρα)	
Αναψυκτικά	
Χρονομέτρηση/Αποτελέσματα (εταιρεία ρολογιών που αποτέλεσε χορηγό)	
Συσκευές κινητών	
Γρήγορο φαγητό	

3. Πόσο **καιρό** χρησιμοποιείτε τη μάρκα αυτή? *Επιλέξτε με  για κάθε κατηγορία*

<i>Διάρκεια:</i>	4-5 έτη	3-2 έτη	1 έτος	6 μήνες	3 μήνες	1 μήνα	Μερικές εβδομ.	Μερικές ημέρες
Τηλεπικοινωνίες								
Τράπεζες								
Γαλακτοκομικά προϊόντα								
Αυτοκινητοβιομηχανία								
Ταχυδρομικές υπηρεσίες								
Αλκοολούχα ποτά (μπύρα)								
Αναψυκτικά								
Χρονομέτρηση/Αποτελέσματα (εταιρεία ρολογιών που αποτέλεσε χορηγό)								
Συσκευές κινητών								

Γρήγορο φαγητό							
----------------	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

4. Ποιος είναι **βασικός λόγος** που έχετε επιλέξει τη συγκεκριμένη μάρκα?  
*Βαθμολογείτε κάθε 'χαρακτηριστικό' ανά κατηγορία προϊόντων από το 1 μέχρι το 10 σε μια κλίμακα όπου άριστα είναι το 10.*

	Ποιότητα	Τιμή	«Όνομα -εικόνα»	Αξιοπιστία	Εξυπηρέ- τηση	Άλλο (περιγράψτε):
<i>π.χ. Τράπεζα</i>	6	4	8	7	10	<i>Δίπλα στο σπίτι μου</i>
Τηλεπικοινωνίες						.....
Τράπεζες						.....
Γαλακτοκομικά προϊόντα						.....
Αυτοκινητοβιομηχανία						.....
Ταχυδρομικές υπηρεσίες						.....
Αλκοολούχα ποτά (μπύρα)						.....
Αναψυκτικά						.....
Χρονομέτρηση/Αποτελέσματα (εταιρεία ρολογιών που αποτέλεσε χορηγό)						.....
Συσκευές κινητών						.....
Γρήγορο φαγητό						.....

5. Πόσο σημαντικό είναι να είναι **«γνωστή»** η εταιρεία όταν αποφασίζετε να την προτιμήσετε? *Παρακαλούμε απαντήστε σε μια κλίμακα από το 1 μέχρι το 5 όπου το 1 είναι «καθόλου» και το 5 να είναι το «πάρα πολύ» σημαντικό.*

	1 Καθόλου	2 Πολύ λίγο	3 Αρκετά	4 Πολύ	5 Πάρα πολύ
--	--------------	----------------	-------------	-----------	----------------

Τηλεπικοινωνίες					
Τράπεζες					
Γαλακτοκομικά προϊόντα					
Αυτοκινητοβιομηχανία					
Ταχυδρομικές υπηρεσίες					
Αλκοολούχα ποτά (μπύρα)					
Αναψυκτικά					
Χρονομέτρηση/Αποτελέσματα (εταιρεία ρολογιών που αποτέλεσε χορηγό)					
Συσκευές κινητών					
Γρήγορο φαγητό					

6. Πόσο συχνά **αλλάζετε** τα προϊόντα στις κατηγορίες? Παρακαλούμε απαντήστε σε μια κλίμακα από το 1 μέχρι το 5 όπου το 1 είναι «καθόλου» και το 5 να είναι το «πάρα πολύ» χρησιμοποιώντας .

	1 Καθόλου	2 Πολύ λίγο	3 Αρκετά	4 Πολύ	5 Πάρα πολύ
Τηλεπικοινωνίες					
Τράπεζες					
Γαλακτοκομικά προϊόντα					
Αυτοκινητοβιομηχανία					
Ταχυδρομικές υπηρεσίες					
Αλκοολούχα ποτά (μπύρα)					
Αναψυκτικά					
Χρονομέτρηση/Αποτέλεσμα ΤΑ (εταιρεία ρολογιών που απέτελεσε χορηγό)					

Συσκευές κινητών					
Γρήγορο φαγητό					

7. Παρακαλούμε ονομάστε όσους **χορηγούς των Ολυμπιακών Αγώνων** της Αθήνας το 2004 μπορείτε να θυμηθείτε:

1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
5.	
6.	
7.	
8.	
9.	
10.	

8. Παρακαλούμε **ονομάστε τους χορηγούς** των Ολυμπιακών Αγώνων της Αθήνας ανά κατηγορία προϊόντος:

Τηλεπικοινωνίες	
Τράπεζες	
Γαλακτοκομικά προϊόντα	
Αυτοκινητοβιομηχανία	
Ταχυδρομικές υπηρεσίες	
Αλκοολούχα ποτά (μπύρα)	
Αναψυκτικά	
Χρονομέτρηση/Αποτελέσματα (εταιρεία ρολογιών που αποτέλεσε χορηγό)	
Συσκευές κινητών	
Γρήγορο φαγητό	

9. Επιλέξτε το χορηγό που θεωρείτε **πιθανότερο να υπήρξε χορηγός** κατά τη διάρκεια των Ολυμπιακών Αγώνων της Αθήνας. *Παρακαλούμε κυκλώστε τη σωστή απάντηση.*

	Πιθανή απάντηση 1	Πιθανή απάντηση 2	Πιθανή απάντηση 3	Πιθανή απάντηση 4
Τηλεπικοινωνίες	OTE	Vodafone	Team	Panafone
Τράπεζες	Eurobank	AlphaBank	ΕΘΝΙΚΗ	ΠΕΙΡΑΙΩΣ
Γαλακτοκομικά προϊόντα	ΟΛΥΜΠΟΣ	ΦΑΓΕ	ΜΕΒΓΑΛ	ΑΓΝΟ
Αυτοκινητοβιομηχανία	NISSAN	HYUNDAI	BMW	FIAT
Ταχυδρομικές υπηρεσίες	DHL	SPEEDEX	ΕΛΤΑ	ACS
Αλκοολούχα ποτά (μπύρα)	AMSTEL	HEINEKEN	ΜΥΘΟΣ	KEISER
Αναψυκτικά	Coca Cola	Pepsi Cola	Red Bull	ΕΨΑ
Χρονομέτρηση/Αποτελέσματα (εταιρεία ρολογιών που αποτέλεσε χορηγό)	LONGINES	SWATCH	ΩMEGA	TIMEX
Συσκευές κινητών	ERICSON	SAMSUNG	LG	MOTOROLA
Γρήγορο φαγητό	Goody's	McDonalds	KFC	Γρηγόρης

10. Πως ενημερωθήκατε για τους χορηγούς των Ολυμπιακών Αγώνων της Αθήνας? *Παρακαλούμε απαντήστε με*

	Τηλεόραση	Έντυπα	Ολυμπιακοί χώροι/γηπέδα	Συμμετείχα ενεργά	Άλλο:
Τηλεπικοινωνίες					.....
Τράπεζες					.....
Γαλακτοκομικά προϊόντα					.....
Αυτοκινητοβιομηχανία					.....
Ταχυδρομικές					.....



υπηρεσίες					
Αλκοολούχα ποτά (μπύρα)					.....
Αναψυκτικά					.....
Χρονομέτρηση/ Αποτελέσματα (εταιρεία ρολογιών που απέτελεσε χορηγό)					.....
Συσκευές κινητών					.....
Γρήγορο φαγητό					.....

11. Πως θα περιγράφατε τη **συνολική άποψή σας** για τις ακόλουθες μάρκες?  
*Παρακαλούμε απαντήστε σε μια κλίμακα από 1 ως 5, όπου το 1 είναι «πολύ αρνητική» και το 5 να είναι «πολύ θετική» χρησιμοποιώντας .*

	Πολύ αρνητική 1	Αρνητική 2	Ουδέτερη 3	Θετική 4	Πολύ θετική 5
OTE					
Vodafone					
Eurobank					
AlphaBank					
ΦΑΓΕ					
ΟΛΥΜΠΟΣ					
HYUNDAI					
NISSAN					
DHL					
ΕΛΤΑ					
HEINEKEN					
AMSTEL					
Coca cola					
Pepsi					
SWATCH					
ΩMEGA					
SAMSUNG					
ERICSON					
Goodys					
McDonalds					

12. Ποια είναι η **σχέση σας** με τις ακόλουθες μάρκες τα τελευταία χρόνια?  
*Παρακαλούμε απαντήστε με*

	Είμαι πιστός/η στη μάρκα	Αυτό είναι που προτιμώ να χρησιμοποιώ	Το αγοράζω όποτε μπορώ	Αν δεν το βρω χρησιμοποιώ κάποιο άλλο	Θα αγοράζα εύκολα κάποιο άλλο
ΟΤΕ					
Vodafone					
Eurobank					
AlphaBank					
ΦΑΓΕ					
ΟΛΥΜΠΟΣ					
HYUNDAI					
NISSAN					
DHL					
ΕΛΤΑ					
HEINEKEN					
AMSTEL					
Coca cola					
Pepsi					
SWATCH					
ΩMEGA					
SAMSUNG					
ERICSON					
Goody's					
McDonalds					

13. **Θα συστήνατε** τις ακόλουθες μάρκες και σ' άλλους να τις δοκιμάσουν?  
*Παρακαλούμε απαντήστε με*

	ΝΑΙ	ΟΧΙ	ΙΣΩΣ	ΔΕΝ ΞΕΡΩ/ ΔΕΝ ΑΠΑΝΤΩ
ΟΤΕ				
Vodafone				
Eurobank				
AlphaBank				
ΦΑΓΕ				
ΟΛΥΜΠΟΣ				
HYUNDAI				
NISSAN				

DHL				
ΕΛΤΑ				
HEINEKEN				
AMSTEL				
Coca cola				
Pepsi				
SWATCH				
ΩMEGA				
SAMSUNG				
ERICSON				
Goody's				
McDonalds				

14. Πόσο πιστεύετε ότι συνέβαλε **η εμπλοκή των χορηγών** στη θετική εικόνα και ολοκλήρωση των Ολυμπιακών Αγώνων της Αθήνας? *Παρακαλούμε απαντήστε σε μια κλίμακα όπου το 1 είναι «καθόλου» και το 5 «Πάρα πολύ».*

	1 Καθόλου	2 Πολύ λίγο	3 Αρκετά	4 Πολύ	5 Πάρα πολύ
Τηλεπικοινωνίες					
Τράπεζες					
Γαλακτοκομικά προϊόντα					
Αυτοκινητοβιομηχανία					
Ταχυδρομικές υπηρεσίες					
Αλκοολούχα ποτά (μπύρα)					
Αναψυκτικά					
Χρονομέτρηση/ Αποτελέσματα (εταιρεία ρολογιών που απέτελεσε χορηγό)					
Συσκευές κινητών					

Γρήγορο φαγητό					
----------------	--	--	--	--	--

15. Η ιδιότητά τους ως χορηγοί των Ο.Α. με ποιο τρόπο **επηρέασε την άποψή σας** για τις εταιρείες? *Παρακαλούμε απαντήστε σε μια κλίμακα από 1 ως 5, όπου το 1 είναι «πολύ αρνητικά» και το 5 να είναι «πολύ θετικά».*

Τηλεπικοινωνίες					
Τράπεζες					
Γαλακτοκομικά προϊόντα					
Αυτοκινητοβιομηχανία					
Ταχυδρομικές υπηρεσίες					
Αλκοολούχα ποτά (μπύρα)					
Αναψυκτικά					
Χρονομέτρηση/ Αποτελέσματα (εταιρεία ρολογιών που αποτέλεσε χορηγό)					
Συσκευές κινητών					
Γρήγορο φαγητό					

16. Το γεγονός ότι συγκεκριμένες εταιρείες υπήρξαν χορηγοί των Ολυμπιακών Αγώνων της Αθήνας σας επηρέασε **στο να τις προτιμήσετε**? *Παρακαλούμε απαντήστε σε μια κλίμακα όπου το 1 είναι «καθόλου» και το 5 «Πάρα πολύ».* χρησιμοποιώντας .

	1 Καθόλου	2 Πολύ λίγο	3 Αρκετά	4 Πολύ	5 Πάρα πολύ
Τηλεπικοινωνίες					

Τράπεζες					
Γαλακτοκομικά προϊόντα					
Αυτοκινητοβιομηχανία					
Ταχυδρομικές υπηρεσίες					
Αλκοολούχα ποτά (μπύρα)					
Αναψυκτικά					
Χρονομέτρηση/ Αποτελέσματα (εταιρεία ρολογιών που αποτέλεσε χορηγό)					
Συσκευές κινητών					
Γρήγορο φαγητό					

17. Το γεγονός ότι κάποιες εταιρείες αποτέλεσαν χορηγοί των Ο.Α, σας δημιούργησε **συναισθηματικό δέσιμο** με τα προϊόντα τους? Παρακαλούμε απαντήστε σε μια κλίμακα από το 1 μέχρι το 5 όπου το 1 να είναι το «διαφωνώ κάθετα» και το 5 να είναι το «συμφωνώ απόλυτα» κυκλώνοντας την κατάλληλη απάντηση χρησιμοποιώντας .

1 Διαφωνώ κάθετα	2 Διαφωνώ	3 Μου είναι αδιάφορο	4 Συμφωνώ	5 Συμφωνώ απόλυτα

18. Ποιος κατά τη γνώμη σας είναι ο χορηγός που διακρίθηκε κατά τη διάρκεια των Ο.Α. της Αθήνας? Ποιος είναι ο λόγος?

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

**Προσωπικές πληροφορίες:**

Παρακαλούμε επιλέξτε με

**Φύλο:**

Γυναίκα	
Άντρας	

**Ηλικία:**

Κάτω από 23	
24 – 30	
31 – 40	
41 – 50	
51 – 60	
61 – 70	
Πάνω από 71	

**Εκπαίδευση:**

Λύκειο	
Τεχνική εκπαίδευση	
Στρατιωτική/Σωμ.Ασφ.	
ΤΕΙ	
ΑΕΙ	
Μεταπτυχιακά	
Άλλο:.....	

**Εισόδημα:**

Άνεργος αυτή τη στιγμή	
Έως 15.000	
15.000 – 25.000	
25.000 – 40.000	
Πάνω από 40.000	

**Χόμπι:**

Αθλητισμός	
Τέχνη	
Τυχερά παιχνίδια	
Τουρισμός	
Δραστηριότητες υπαίθρου	
Εθελοντισμός	
Διάβασμα	
Συλλογές	

Άλλο:.....	
------------	--

**Η σχέση σας με τον αθλητισμό:**

Ενεργός Αθλητής	
Περιστασιακή άθληση	
Φίλαθλος	
Εργαζόμενος στον αθλητισμό	
Αθλητικός παράγοντας	
Διαιτητής/αξιωματούχος	
Εθελοντής σε αγώνες	
Καμία σχέση/εμπειρία	
Άλλο:	

**Παρακολουθήσατε τους Ο.Α. της Αθήνας κυρίως:**

Από την Τηλεόραση	
Στα στάδια	
Συμμετέχοντας ως εθελοντής	
Συμμετέχοντας ως εργαζόμενος σε θέση σχετική με τους Ο.Α.	
Μέσα από έντυπα	
Μέσα από σχετικές εκδηλώσεις	
Δεν παρακολούθησα	
Άλλο:.....	

**Παρακολούθησα τους Ολυμπιακούς Αγώνες:**

Ανελλιπώς	
Όταν μ' ενδιέφερε	
Όταν τύχαινε	
Πολύ λίγο	
Σχεδόν καθόλου	

**Περιοχή Κατοικίας**

--