

# CROSS-NATIONAL DIFFERENCES IN CUSTOMER EVALUATION OF SPONSOR-EVENT ASSOCIATION

Paper to be submitted to the  
*7<sup>th</sup> International Congress Marketing Trends*  
*Venice, January 17-19, 2008*

**Authors** (in order of alphabetical appearance):

**Joaquin Aldas-Manzano** *Facultad de Economía UVEG, University of Valencia (Spain)*  
**Frank Bachmann** *Institute of Marketing & Management, Leibniz University of Hanover (Germany),  
(corresponding author)*  
**Daniele Dalli** *Dipartimento di Economia Aziendale, Università di Pisa (Italy)*  
**Nadine Hennigs** *Institute of Marketing & Management, Leibniz University of Hanover (Germany),  
(corresponding author)*  
**Ines Kuster** *Facultad de Economía UVEG, University of Valencia (Spain)*  
**Jean Moscarola** *IMUS-IREGE, University of Savoie (France)*  
**Natalia Vila** *Facultad de Economía UVEG, University of Valencia (Spain)*  
**Antonella Zucchella** *Facoltà di Economia, University of Pavia (Italy)*

**Members of the International Network for Research in Consumer Behaviour Studies:**  
**Website:** <http://comptes.ergole.fr/young/>

## **Corresponding Authors:**

Nadine Hennigs  
Institute of Marketing and Management  
Leibniz University of Hanover  
Phone (+49) 511 762 4862  
Fax (+49) 511 762 3142  
Koenigsworther Platz 1, 30167 Hanover, Germany  
Email: nadine.hennigs@m2.uni-hannover.de

Frank Bachmann  
Institute of Marketing and Management  
Leibniz University of Hanover  
Phone (+49) 511 762 4862  
Fax (+49) 511 762 3142  
Koenigsworther Platz 1, 30167 Hanover, Germany  
Email: bachmann@m2.uni-hannover.de

# CROSS-NATIONAL DIFFERENCES IN CUSTOMER EVALUATION OF SPONSOR-EVENT ASSOCIATION

## PAPER SUMMARY

Against the background of Louis Vuitton's sponsorship of the America's Cup 2007, the purpose of this study was to compare if and to what extent consumers from different countries assign value to both the sponsored event (America's Cup) and the sponsoring brand (Louis Vuitton). Based on a total amount of 1425 valid questionnaires collected in Spain, France, Italy, and Germany, the results of a two-fold methodology with a combination of deductive quantitative and inductive qualitative approaches revealed new insights in the customer's functional, affective, symbolic, and economic evaluation of sponsor-event association on a cross-national level.

*Keywords: Customer Value, Sponsorship Persuasion Process, Cross-Cultural Consumer Behaviour, Deductive and Inductive Research*

## INTRODUCTION

Overall '07 global expenditures on sponsorship should hit \$37.7 billion, an 11.9 percent increase over '06 \$33.7 billion. Spending by North American companies should rise 11.7 percent, while European companies will rise by 11.6 percent, Asia Pacific companies will hike budgets 15.6 percent (www.sponsorship.com).

This paper deals with a specific form of sponsorship, the one related to sport events. More in detail, the focus is on the America's Cup 2007 (AC) and its main sponsor, Louis Vuitton (LV). The 2007 edition of AC has been the last in which LV has acted as the main sponsor, and it has been substituted for by Rolex. Sport sponsorship is one of the most important segments in the sponsorship market and it accounts for around 65% (www.sponsorship.com).

Sponsorship is a form of communication that evolves from philanthropic activities toward commercial forms of patronage (Cornwell et al. 2001) and it is now considered as one of the most effective tools within the integrated marketing communication mix (Ratnatunga & Ewing 2005). It has been extensively analysed from a number of perspectives (Cornwell & Maignan 1998; Walliser 2003): nature of sponsorship, managerial aspects of sponsorship, measurement of sponsorship effects, and strategic use of sponsorship.

Within the stream of research that deals with sponsorship effects, one of the main aspects of event sponsorship is the degree of fit between the sponsor and the event (Poon & Prendergast 2006). Other elements often considered by the literature are involvement (with the event activity), exposure, attitudes toward sponsorship, subjective experience, attitude toward the sponsor brand, willingness to buy, and other forms of cognitive, affective, and behavioural outcomes.

The main objective of this paper is comparing the way in which consumers from different countries assign value to the sponsored event and the sponsoring brand – this will be done with quantitative data. Qualitative ones will be employed in order to explain cross-national differences. Hence the paper is an example of both deductive and inductive research.

Using cross-national data, this research aims at providing more reliable data than those available in the literature. Some authors insist on the trends of consumer brands globalisation, especially in some categories such as fashion, cars, beverages and food products. Some international products would answer to the needs of consumer segments that cross the national borders (Hassan and Katsanis, 1994). In Asia for example, some researchers concluded that some common structures in consumption values could exist cross-culturally (Tse et al., 1988) even if national consumers may

use different product attributes to express analogous consumption values. Data have been collected from four countries: France, Germany, Italy, and Spain. The method is then suitable for cross-cultural comparisons that appear to be very important in the field of consumer culture research and, more in particular, in the analysis of persuasion processes (Aaker & Maheswaran 1997).

In fact, sport events are becoming an international and global phenomenon and more and more often their audience is of a multi-cultural nature. Moreover this holds for high level events, like Olympic Games, World Football Cup, etc. Within the sailing and related sports, America's Cup is the most important event worldwide and it is attended by a diverse and multicultural public: traditional countries in this sport are the United Kingdom and the U.S. Within the last 20 years Australia, New Zealand, France, Italy and – ultimately – Switzerland played a significant role. In 2007 the defender was Alinghi from Switzerland and challengers came from China, France, Germany, Italy, New Zealand, Spain, Sweden, South Africa, and the U.S.

The relevance of the cultural dimension in sponsorship research has been demonstrated directly, through specific empirical analysis (Marshall 1992) and indirectly, through literature reviews (Walliser 2003). From the former point of view, Marshall (1992) showed that Europeans present a common attitude toward sponsorship, but some significant differences arise (e.g.) between France and Spain with regard to the attitude toward the sponsoring companies and institutions.

More in general, Walliser (2003) in his review, noted significant differences in the acceptance of sponsorship in different countries and urged a more cross-cultural orientation in the studies about sponsorship effects. In this perspective, apart from the one by Marshall (1992) and the one by Dalakas & Kropp (2002), no studies on sponsorship effects have been based on cross-cultural data and this paper aims at filling this gap.

The need for cross-cultural analysis emerge also at a more general level, when considering sponsorship in the perspective of persuasion processes, which are deeply affected by cultural orientations (Aaker & Maheswaran 1997; Russell & Valenzuela 2005). In this perspective, both central and peripheral elaboration processes are affected by the cultural orientation of subjects and, furthermore, even the relative importance of the two processes can be influenced by cultural specificities. Moreover, cultural orientation affects the outcome of the persuasion process. In this context, the globalization of the marketing/communication mix could be questioned. That is, given that different countries could exhibit alternative consumption/information patterns, managers could consider at least a partial adaptation of the marketing/communication mix in order to attend the domestic patterns of each country. This is why we decided to use a cross-cultural sample in order to assess the role of culture in the sponsorship persuasion processes and its relevance in terms of outcome generation.

Based on previous reviews (Sojka & Tansuhaj 1995; Malhotra 2001; Salciuviene et al. 2005), this article will provide a methodological rigorous attempt in providing evidence about the differences between various national cultures in the perception, processing, and outcomes of sponsorship.

The paper is organized in sections: the next one is devoted to literature analysis, then the methodology is illustrated and – finally – results will be described. A conclusion summarizing the main results is available at the end of the paper.

## **CONCEPTUALIZATION: LITERATURE REVIEW AND RESEARCH MODEL**

### **The Importance of Cross-Cultural Consumer Research**

Culture is a complex construct that is difficult to define, because it influences all facets of social structures and processes which are reflected in norms and value. Hofstede's (1980, 1997) definition of culture as “the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another” (Hofstede 1997, p. 5) describes an etic approach in cross-cultural consumer research and defines culture in the comparison of different cultures. The emic methodology is an alternative approach promoting a complete understanding of a culture by studying “culture-rich” information instead of directly comparing two or more cultures through “culture-free” measures. It focuses upon understanding issues from the viewpoint of the study subjects (McCracken 1988). The use of both approaches, the emic and the etic methodology, provides a good and quite complete understanding of different cultures.

Summarizing a review of the literature in cross-cultural consumer research, studies can be separated into different groups according to their research focus: (a) The impact of culture on consumer behavior (McCort & Malhotra 1993; Sood & Nasu 1995; Dawar et al. 1996), (b) the convergence versus divergence of consumer behavior (Yavas et al. 1992; De Mooij 2001), (c) attitudes and perceptions concerning product/brand choice/attributes (Dibley & Baker 2001; Valette-Florence et al. 1999; Liefeld et al. 1999; Lee & Kacen 1999; Vriens & Hofstede 2000) and (d) branding/brand image (Ekwulugo 2003; Bhat & Reddy 1998; Allen 2001), (e) consumer psychographics and market segmentation (Lindridge & Dibb 2003; Kahle et al. 1999; Hofstede et al. 1999; Djursaa & Kragh 1998; Grunert et al. 1995); (f) universality of American consumer behavior models/valid measurement instruments and their testing in the cross-cultural context (Wills et al. 1991; Samli 1994; Knight et al. 2003; Shimp & Sharma 1987; Wong et al. 2003; Ferrandi et al. 2000; Steenkamp & Burgess 2002; Kropp et al. 1999) and (g) country of origin in consumer behaviour (Chao 1993; Metwally 1993; Hulland 1999; Thakor & Katsanis 1997; Papadopoulos & Heslop 1990; Akaah & Yaprak 1993).

Many scholars studying methodological issues in cross-cultural research (e.g., Alder 1983; Samiee & Jeoung 1994; Parameswaran & Yaprak 1987; Davis et al. 1981; Douglas & Craig 1992) proclaim different limitations in the research. A lack of strong theoretical framework, conceptualization of culture, operationalization of variables and a domination of quantitative research methods with several difficulties are mentioned (e.g. Douglas & Craig 1992; Yaprak 2003).

This paper aims at filling this gap with a combination of deductive quantitative and inductive qualitative approaches: The comparison of the way in which consumers from different countries assign value to the sponsored event and the sponsoring brand will be based on quantitative data, while the explanation of cross-national differences will use qualitative data analysis.

### **The Sponsorship Persuasion Process**

A sponsorship “can be regarded as the provision of assistance either financial or in-kind to an activity [e.g., sport, musical event, festival, fair, or within the broad definition of the Arts] by a commercial organization for the purpose of achieving commercial objectives (Meenaghan 1983, p. 9)”. For that, a sponsorship means to invest, (a) in an activity, (b) person or (c) event, in return for getting access to the exploitable commercial potential associated with the activity, the person or the event by the sponsor (Meenaghan 1991a, b). Firms do have an enormous variety of goals as a sponsor, two of the most important ones are: (a) to increase brand awareness, (b) to establish, strengthen, or even change brand image (Crowley 1991; Marshall & Cook 1992; Meerabeau et al. 1991; Gwinner 1997). The elaboration likelihood model (ELM) of Petty & Cacioppo (1986)

suggests that persuasion can occur along two ways, depending on the degree of involvement, between more or less conscious and elaborate information processing: First, when an individual bases product evaluation on “diligent consideration of information that a person feels is central to the true merits of an issue or product” (Petty et al. 1983, p. 144) and second through the association of the object with positive or negative cues (e.g., expert source, pleasant surroundings, forceful presentation, etc.).

For that, the sponsorship persuasion process is one of the main things to be examined in the sponsorship research. This understanding leads to the introduction of a general persuasion model as a common framework of our study.

### **General Persuasion Model of Sponsorship**

In prior research, it has been stated that sponsorship’s main principle consists of an image transfer from the sponsored entity to the brand (Ganassali & Didellon 1996; Gwinner 1997). Some authors now explicitly refer to Brand Image Transfer as a resulting process of the sponsorship (but also endorsement) activities (Walliser 2003). Some researchers have tried to investigate the theoretical framework of the brand image transfer. Most of them assume that there must be different natures of image transfer, including cognitive and affective aspects.

Beside the central process of image transfer, past research have established some potential moderating variables that would affect its impact (Grohs & Reisinger 2005; Smith 2004). For example, involvement in the sponsored activity, general attitude towards sponsorship or perceived congruency between the brand and the activity would be some important variables within a global model of the brand image transfer.

Figure 1 shows a general persuasion model of sponsorship with dependent, independent and covariates in order to give a common framework in which we have developed our empirical analysis with special emphasis on the customer value construct.

-----Insert Figure 1 about here-----

### **The Impact of Different Variables**

#### *Influence of Event Perception on Brand Perception*

Scientific literature has confirmed the importance of ‘fit’ between sponsor and sponsored event (Crimmins & Horn 1996; Meenaghan & Shipley 1999; Speed & Thompson 2000). As a moderator of the impact of attitude toward the ad and pre-existing attitude toward the brand, in the case of sponsorship, increasing the fit between sponsor and event will increase the response to the sponsorship arising from personal liking, perceived status, and attitude toward the sponsor (Speed & Thompson 2000). A fit between sponsor and event can be established on numerous bases, e.g., functional/thematic related and/or symbolic/image related characteristics. However, without any restriction on the basis used to establish fit, the focus is on consumer’s attitude toward the pairing of event and sponsor and the degree to which the pairing is perceived as well matched or a good fit. Following a consumer-based conceptualization, fit between a sponsor and a sponsored event is high when the two are perceived as congruent (i.e., as going together), whether that congruity is derived from mission, products, markets, technologies, attributes, brand concepts, or any other key association (Bridges et al. 2000; Park et al. 1991). Numerous studies have examined the importance of the fit between a sponsor and a sponsored activity: The perception of congruence or fit between the sponsor and the sponsored event has been shown to have a direct impact on consumer’s



response (Crimmins & Horn 1996; Otker & Hayes 1987; Stipp & Schiavone 1996). Concerning the impact of different influencing factors (event image, brand recall, prior brand image that existed before visiting the event, sponsorship leverage and event-brand-image) on the (post) image of the involved brands, Grohs et al. (2004) showed that the image transfer between the event and the brand is dependent on the perceived similarity between event and brand. Focusing on the influencing role of the perceived event-brand-fit on the attitude towards the brand, Roy & Cornwell (2004) identified based on the congruence theory coherence between the event-brand-fit and the brand attitude. Examining congruence effects in sponsorship, Rifon et al. (2004) found out that a good fit of the sponsor and the event enhances sponsor credibility and attitude towards the sponsor. According to Meenaghan (1983) and Otker & Hayes (1987), a good perceived symbiosis between the sponsor and the event is thought to have positive effects on the sponsor's image: The stronger the link between the sponsor and the event, the greater the impact on corporate image. However, a moderate level of incongruence between the sponsor and the event might be perceived as interesting and positive by consumers and be beneficial to the sponsor's image (Meyers-Levy & Tybout 1989).

#### *Effect of exposure on event perception*

Sponsorship exposure comprises the amount of time an individual is exposed to a sponsor message within the event and is created through mention of the name, appearance of the logo, etc. (Cortez 1992; Kate 1995). The standard finding in learning in cognitive learning is that message learning grows with additional exposures, although at a diminishing rate. Furthermore, many studies find a positive impact of repeated simultaneous presentations of sponsor and sponsored event on the awareness of the sponsor as well as on the sponsored event itself (Cornwell et al. 2001, Crimmins & Horn 1996, Deimel 1992).

#### *Influence of involvement with the event on its exposure*

Involvement in a psychological context could be defined as a state of motivation, arousal or interest regarding products, activities or objects (Rothschild 1984). For that, event involvement is a kind of genuine excitement caused by a strong and solid interest in a specific activity (on our case the sponsored sport event) which results from the importance of this activity for an individual (Lardinoit & Derbaix 2001). In empirical sponsorship research, Meenaghan (2001) examined the concept of fan involvement and its implications for sponsorships. He showed in focus group interviews that increased event or fan involvement in a particular sponsored activity evoked a positive emotional orientation towards the sponsor. Furthermore, highly involved fans were the most aware of the sponsor's investments. Indeed, research at the soccer World Cup 1998 in France showed that although 55 percent of respondents could spontaneously recall any sponsor, this result rose to 80 percent for fans who identified themselves as being "very interested" in the soccer World Cup. Additionally, high involvement further reduced the number of incorrect sponsor attributions from 67 to 56 percent (Meenaghan 2001). Another study of Hansen & Scotwin (1995) reveals further evidence that more involved sports fans have significantly higher recall than do those not involved for one sponsor. Pham (1992) has shown that when consumer involvement in a sponsored event is high, consumer information processing is significantly affected which in turn leads to more active processing and presumably greater interest towards the sponsorship. It is likely that the greater the involvement in the event, the more sympathy towards the sponsor and consequently the more positive the sponsor's image.

#### *Effect of experience with the brand on its perception*

Sponsorship messages can only pass on specific information about a product or service if the consumers have a basic knowledge about the sponsor and its product category (Keller 1993; Baird 1998; Grohs et al. 2004). Then, the consumers can connect the information conveyed by the sponsorship (e.g., logos and signs) to established knowledge and value structures and, as a consequence, enhancing sponsor recall (Deimel 1992, Glogger 1999). Thus, brand knowledge in sponsorship terms as the amount of associations already held in the minds of consumers about the sponsored property and the sponsor is an important starting point in explaining sponsorship identification and image transfer. For image transfer to take place, brand knowledge relates to both brand recall as the ability to name (typically unprompted) the brands involved in a given sponsorship and brand recognition as the ability to recognise the product category(ies) of the brands. Brand image as “perceptions about a brand as reflected by the brand associations held in memory” (Keller 1993, p. 3) is based upon brand associations – linkages a consumer holds in his/her memory structure regarding the brand developed from a variety of sources (e.g., experiences, information etc.). These associations can be influenced when a brand becomes linked with a sporting event through sponsorship activities (Keller 1993). The pre-existing associations regarding a sporting event become linked with the sponsoring brand and the event image (deriving from the type of event, the event’s characteristics and past experiences with the event (Gwinner 1997) is transferred to the brand. Thus, the congruence between a sponsored event’s image and the image/positioning goals for a company’s brand and the image transfer process from event to the brand is important.

#### *Attitude toward Sponsorship*

As an enduring evaluative disposition toward an object or class of objects (Chisman 1976), attitudes include affective (e.g., the degree to which one likes or dislikes a given brand), cognitive (e.g., knowledge and beliefs about a given brand), and behavioural components (e.g., the purchase of a given brand). People desire all three attitude components to be harmonious and try to achieve consistency (Dean 1999). In the case of sponsorship, a corporate sponsor hopes that the consumer’s positive attitude towards the sponsored event may rub off onto the product, brand or company. In this context, it is necessary to examine the attitude towards event sponsorship in general and to assess the image of sponsorship as a generic phenomenon. While consumers sometimes have negative attitude towards advertising, sponsorship as a communication tool often appears to cause more positive effects and a level of goodwill depending on the category of sponsorship engagement, e.g. support of cultural activities, sports (Meenaghan 2001). The response to corporate sponsorship activities is for this reason dependent on the attitude and the degree of goodwill towards sponsorship in general.

#### **Core Model: Customer Value Dimensions**

In view of our specific research question to examine cross-national differences in customer evaluation of sponsor-event association and against the background of our general framework, we have developed a core model with special emphasis on the focal construct ‘Customer Value’.

As a context-dependent (Holbrook 1994; Parasuraman 1997), highly personal and multi-dimensional concept, perceived customer value – what means that it is associated through the use to product, service or object and involves a tradeoff between the outstanding perceived benefits and costs (Zeithaml 1988) – can be defined as “an interactive relativistic consumption preference experience” (Holbrook 1994, p. 27), “a tradeoff between the quality or benefits they perceive in the

product relative to the sacrifice they perceive by paying the price” (Monroe 1990, p. 46), “a customer’s perceived preference for and evaluation of those product attributes, attribute performances, and consequences arising from use that facilitate (or block) achieving the customer’s goal and purposes in use situations” (Woodruff 1997, p. 142), or “a consumer’s overall assessment of the utility of a product based on perceptions of what is received and what is given” (Zeithaml 1988, p. 14).

Following a comprehensive understanding of the customer value construct, all relevant actual and potential value sources of the consumer’s product or brand perception should be integrated into one single model. Drawing on, integrating, and extending the work of Park et al. (1986), Sheth et al. (1991), Ulaga (2003), Woodall (2003), Holbrook (1999; 2005), and Heard (1993–94) on the conceptualization of customer value, Smith & Colgate (2007) developed a customer value framework based on four major types of value that can be created by organizations: Functional/instrumental value, experiential/hedonic value, symbolic/expressive value, and cost/sacrifice value.

In order to enhance current understanding of value perception in view of a sponsored event and a sponsoring company, the question of what really adds value in consumer’s perception is defined in this paper through the existence of four latent customer value dimensions:

#### *Functional Value Dimension*

The functional dimension of customer value represents the core benefit and basic utilities such as e.g. the quality, the uniqueness, the usability, the reliability, and durability of a certain product (Sheth et al. 1991). In general, a product or a service is designed to perform a particular function to satisfy consumer needs defined by the physical-chemical-technical (e.g., technical superiority), concrete or abstract product/service dimensions (e.g., Park et al. 1986). Consumers expect the item they buy to work right, to look good, to last a long time, and to perform as expected and as promised (e.g., Fennel 1978). Following Woodruff (1997), functional value encompasses three key facets (1) correct, accurate, or appropriate features, functions, attributes, or characteristics (such as aesthetics, quality, customization, or creativity); (2) appropriate performances (such as reliability, performance quality, or service–support outcomes); and (3) appropriate outcomes or consequences (such as strategic value, effectiveness, operational benefits, and environmental benefits) (Smith & Colgate 2007).

#### *Affective Value Dimension*

The affective dimension of customer value refers to the experiences, feelings, and emotions a certain brand or product provides to the consumer in addition to its functional utility (Hirschman & Holbrook 1982; Sheth et al. 1991, Westbrook & Oliver 1991). Especially luxury products are likely to provide such subjective intangible benefits (Dubois & Laurent 1994). Research has repeatedly identified the emotional responses associated with the luxury consumption, such as sensory pleasure and gratification, aesthetic beauty, or excitement (Benarrosh-Dahan 1991; Fauchois & Krieg 1991; Roux & Floch 1996; Vigneron & Johnson 2004). Hence, affective value describes the perceived subjective utility and intrinsically pleasing properties acquired from the purchase and consumption of a brand to arouse feelings and affective states, received from the personal rewards and fulfilment (Sheth et al. 1991; Westbrook & Oliver 1991).

#### *Symbolic Value Dimension*



The symbolic dimension of customer value focuses a customer's personal orientation towards a brand or product and addresses personal matters such as consumer's self-concepts, self-worth or self-identity value (e.g., Vigneron & Johnson 2004; Hirschman & Holbrook 1982). Consumers may associate psychological meaning to a product or they use certain (luxury) brands to integrate the symbolic meaning into their own identity (Holt 1995; Vigneron & Johnson 2004) or to support, express, and develop ones own identity, personality, tastes, and values (Douglas & Isherwood 1979; Hirshman 1988; Dittmar 1994). In addition to the personal meaning a social component of customer value and the prestige, status, or image of a certain brand or product is of special importance. For example the consumption of luxury goods appears to have a strong social function (Vigneron & Johnson 1999, 2004; Bearden & Etzel 1982; Brinberg & Plimpton 1986; Kim 1998).

#### *Economic Value Dimension*

The economic dimension of customer value addresses direct monetary aspects such as price, resale price, discount, investment etc. It refers to the value of the product expressed in dollars and cents, to what is given up or sacrificed to obtain a product (e.g., Ahtola 1984; Chapman 1986; Mazumdar 1986; Monroe & Krishnan 1985). Similar to firms, consumers also try to minimize the costs and other sacrifices that may be involved in the purchase, ownership, and use of a product (Smith & Colgate 2007). Overall, the economic value refers to the cost/sacrifice in terms of (1) economic costs, such as product price, operating costs, switching costs, and opportunity costs; (2) psychological-relational costs including cognitive difficulty/stress, conflict, search costs, learning costs, psychological switching costs, and psychological relationship costs, such as attachment; (3) the personal investment of customers, the effort, and energy consumers devote to the purchase and consumption process; and (4) the risk (personal risk, operational risk, financial risk, or strategic risk) perceived by customers in buying, owning, and using a product (Smith & Colgate 2007).

In a sponsorship context, it has to be stated that the connection of a brand with a sponsored event should lead to a positive influence towards the brand amongst visitors at the event (Gwinner 1997). By creating a positive association between a sponsored event and the sponsoring brand, sponsorship seems to affect the customer value perception. The awareness and corporate image of the sponsored event and the sponsoring brand have impacts on all or some of these four values in different ways (Koo et al. 2006; Pope 1998).

In the current study, a consumer's perceived brand/sport event value is expected to influence the functional, affective, symbolic, and economic responses toward the sponsoring firm. Figure 2 shows how the different customer value dimensions are proposed to interact with each other. Basically, the affective dimension of America's Cup (AC) value is supposed to affect the dimensions of Louis Vuitton (LV) value. The same holds for the functional and the symbolic dimension. The economic dimension of America's Cup will not be considered because it cannot be bought by the consumer as it happens with ordinary consumer goods.

-----Insert Figure 2 about here-----

Against this background, the following exploratory research hypothesis was developed in relation to the foregoing discussion:

H<sub>1</sub>: *A positive relationship between value dimensions of the sponsored event (AC) and value dimensions of the sponsoring brand (LV) will exist.*

## **METHODOLOGY**

## Sample and Data Collection

This study is based on a real time observation which aims at capturing consumer values toward sponsored event and sponsoring brand during the America's Cup 2007 which was organised in Spain. In order to investigate the research model an Internet survey with a snowball sampling method was developed in Spain, France, Italy and Germany. So, we have been able to collect a large international "convenience sample". Data collection lasted from May 15 to June 21. It has been organised using an Internet form (Ganassali & Moscarola 2004) sent to addresses gathered by students from five universities: one from France, one from Germany, one from Italy and two from Spain. A total amount of 1425 valid questionnaires were received. Table 1 describes the sample structure.

-----Insert Table 1 about here-----

To avoid big mistakes with the cross-cultural context, we also had to control the characteristics of the final study sample. As specified in the literature on cross-cultural research, we had to control the composition of the four national samples on age and gender. This sample is not a representative one, nevertheless it offers a balanced set of data from each country with a good gender equilibrium and an age structure which over represents young adults (mostly in Germany).

## Quantitative and Qualitative Measures

The questionnaire combined the use of seven-point Likert type scales to measure consumer value creation following the guidelines provided by Smith & Colgate (2007) as shown in Table 2 and additional open ended questions (1- *Please quote 3 adjectives you associate with Louis Vuitton*, 2 - *Please quote 3 adjectives you associate with America's Cup*). This has been made on purpose to be able to bridge literature references and spontaneous empirical data (Bolden & Moscarola 2000). Thus, we have been able to collect in four different languages 989 different adjectives freely associated to LV and 1518 associated to AC. The open ended questions were asked before the exposition to the scales batteries. Thank to this procedure we are able to combine deductive quantitative and inductive qualitative approach what allow us to

- a. check if the free answers reflect the preconceived dimensions. This leads to a better validation of results.
- b. give more empirical meanings to the abstract dimension of the model: to which adjectives do functional, symbolic, and affective dimensions refer.
- c. analyse the transfer between event and brand directly from the analysis of "language connections" established at the level of free expressions.

-----Insert Table 2 about here-----

## Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches

Against the background of our questionnaire design, the data analysis is based on both quantitative and textual data analysis.

On one hand, and with respect to quantitative analysis, PLS path analysis performed with SmartPLS was used. Through this method, we were able to check the structure of the core model, that is, to establish whether the relationship between functional, symbolic, affective and economic dimensions of consumer values are stable or different from one country to the other.

This methodology has been chosen for two reasons:

1. It is not dependant of the model size (which cannot be run at the country level using other SEM methods).
2. It allows to compute scores for latent variables which allows us to cross them with the adjectives collected and thus to bridge quantitative and qualitative analysis.

On the other hand, the qualitative analyses was develop in order to reinforce the results previously obtained by the quantitative one. So, and to analyse the responses to the open ended questions, we have applied textual data analysis procedures using Sphinx Lexica (Gavard et al. 1998, Ganassali & Moscarola 2004):

1. Lexical analysis to analyse at the country level the frequencies of the adjectives used and the way they can be associated to the consumer values dimensions computed from the PLS path analysis.
2. Automatic content analysis to build semantic fields (using dictionaries to define the set of words from different language that have a same meaning). This allows us to compare at a conceptual level the ideas expressed in different languages, and to build an inductive model of consumer values from empirical data that can be compared to the literature based one.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### Quantitative Results from Analysis of Customer Value Dimensions

#### *Measurement model assessment*

The theoretical model was estimated for each one of the four countries through partial least squares regression (PLS) using SmartPLS software 2.0 (Ringle, Wende & Will 2005). The significance of the parameters was estimated using bootstrapping with 500 sub samples of the same sample size that the original one had. PLS exhibit good prediction accuracy as it tries to achieve the best possible estimation of individual data. Usually, relationship structural relations are underestimated though to its estimation procedure, assuring that no premature conclusions are drawn regarding the relationship between the constructs. To evaluate the reliability of the constructs three criteria were followed. First, the average variance extracted (AVE)>.50 (Fornell & Larcker 1981). Second, the composite reliability (CR)>.70 (Fornell & Larcker 1981) and, finally, the Cronbach's alpha > .70 (Churchill, 1979).

Regarding convergent validity, Bagozzi & Baumgartner (1994) and Bagozzi & Yi (1988) criteria were followed, that is: loadings of each item >.60 and significant and, in the case one item were in the limit of acceptance, it was retained if the average of the loadings of the items that form one factor were higher than .70 (Hair et al. 1998). Discriminant validity was assured checking that the square correlation between each couple of factors were lower than the AVE of those factors (Fornell & Larcker 1981).

Following those criteria, only item LVECO3 was dropped in all the four countries. The tables that derive from these criteria can be found in Appendix 1.

#### *Structural Relations*

Now the results concerning the four different samples (Spanish, French, Italian, and German samples) will be commented to examine the proposed theoretical model in the different countries.

Regarding the *Spanish* sample, five significant relationships have been identified among the three dimensions of the Americas Cup consumer value and the four dimensions of the Luis Vuitton consumer value. In this sense, firstly AC affective value positively affects the affective and functional value that consumers associate to LV. This means that when a consumer thinks that an

event is beautiful, pleasure, exciting, the sponsoring brand will be perceived on one side as an attractive, pleasure and sensual brand, and on the other side as a product with good quality, reliable and lasting longer. Secondly, the AC functional value positively affects the LV affective value. This means that the consumer that considers the AC event as an interesting, important, significant and well-organized competition will perceive Luis Vuitton as an attractive, pleasure and sensual brand. Finally, the AC symbolic value shows the highest relationship between both LV symbolic value and LV economic value. So, Spanish consumers that emphasize the AC symbolic value will also underline that LV is a class brand, trendy, with prestige, exclusive and expensive.

-----Insert Table and Figure 3 about here-----

Related to the *French* sample, only three significant relationships have been identified. The first one shows a positive correlation between AC affective value and LV affective value. The second one highlights a positive relationship between AC symbolic value and LV symbolic value. Finally, there is a positive effect of the AC symbolic value on LV economic value. The absence of relationship between the AC functional value and any of the dimensions of the LV customer value must be underlined. This result can be because French consumers do not consider the functionality dimension of value neither in the AC event, nor in the LV brand.

-----Insert Table and Figure 4 about here-----

In the case of the *Italian* sample, each dimension of the AC consumer value fits with its corresponding dimension of the LV consumer value. That is, there exist three significant effects in this way: AC affective value on LV affective value, AC functional value on LV functional value, and AC symbolic value on LV symbolic value.

-----Insert Table and Figure 5 about here-----

Finally, the *German* sample verifies the highest number of relationships of the theoretical model. In this sense, six significant relationships have been identified. Firstly, AC affective value positively correlates to the LV affective value and negatively to the LV economic value. This negative relationship could be explained due to the uncertainty of this sporting event among German people, maybe because this is the first time that a German team has joint the competition. Secondly, AC symbolic value positively affects all the dimensions of the LV consumer value. As in the case of France, the absence of relationship between the AC functional value and any of the dimensions of the LV customer value must be underlined. This result can be because German consumers do not consider the functionality dimension of value neither in the AC event, nor in the LV brand.

-----Insert Table and Figure 6 about here-----

The quantitative results are summarized in Figure 7. In this sense, the following points could be stated:

1. Just in the case of Italy, the AC functional value affects the LV functional value.
2. In the four samples analysed, the AC affective value affects the LV affective value.
3. In the four countries studied, the AC symbolic value positively correlates to the LV symbolic value.

4. In three of the four countries (except Italy), AC symbolic value shows a positive relationship with regard to the LV economic value.
5. Just in the case of Spain, there is a positively correlation between the AC affective value and the LV functional value; and the AC functional value and the LV affective value.
6. Just in the case of Germany, the AC affective value is negatively related to the LV economic value. And just in this sample, the AC symbolic value is related to the LV affective and functional value.

-----Insert Figure 7 about here-----

So our hypothesis could be partially accepted. Some of the dimensions of the event value are related with some of the dimensions of the sponsor brand value in the four countries but others not. So cross cultural differences have been identified.

## Qualitative Results from Analysis of Open Ended Questions

### *Language specificities according to countries*

The answers to the two open ended questions give the adjectives associated to the brand, Louis Vuitton and of the Event America's Cup. These descriptions are free expressions given in each national language. When we look at the most frequently used words it is clear that the ideas of *expense, luxury and beauty* are shared in each country for LV and those of *sport and competition* for AC, Nevertheless some differences come to light too: *quality* appears as important for LV only in France and the Germans have a very different perception of AC. They don't see it as a *prestigious* event but as an *annoying* and expensive *maritime* event.

-----Insert Table 7 about here-----

As to get a complete outlook on the semantic differences in the description made of both LV and AC we have grouped adjectives according to semantic fields – a set of words that have the same meaning. We are thus proceeding on inductively trying to find out some dimensions that could match the brand and the event description. This led us for AC:

1. to include in *quality* semantic field ideas of requirement, skill, technology, sport etc.
2. to add a *nature* dimension that contents all the maritime and natural elements.
3. to introduce the *fame* dimension as corresponding to the fashion one in LV description.

As shown in Figure 8, according to the Chi square test, there are significant differences from one country to the other:

With regard to the brand, French contrastively perceive LV as *luxurious, fashionable* and qualitative but *ugly*, when Italians see it as *beautiful* and *exciting*. German are more sensible to the *expense* than to the luxurious aspects, and Spanish share with French the perception of a luxurious brand but are less negative.

With regard to AC, Germans are differentiated by their focus on *nature*, Spain unsurprisingly is characterised by *fame*, Italy by *excitement* and *vanity*. France here again selects *quality*.

-----Insert Figure 8 about here-----



### ***How do consumer value dimensions correspond to adjectives associated to brand and event description?***

The answers to this question give us a perception that is independent from the conceptual model that led to the quantitative measures of consumer values toward the brand and the event. Let us now check the congruency of the free expressions with the dimensions (symbolic, functional, affective, and economic) built in the questionnaire design.

The following maps are the result of a principal component analysis based on the measures of dimensions PLS scores for the use of each adjective quoted more than 5 times.

In each country the same structure appears clearly opposing positive adjectives on the right and negative ones on the left. Furthermore the dimensions are illustrated by the constellations of words.

-----Insert Figure 9 and 10 about here-----

### ***Language connections and transfer from event to brand***

The quantitative analysis has shown that the dimensions of the brand correspond to some respect to the dimensions of the event. Can we assess the same results on the basis of qualitative data?

The results below are established at the level of semantic fields. They show statistically significant (chi square analysis) connections for each country. However, some remarkable connections can be pointed out: *tradition (LV) and luxury (AC)* for France, *quality (LV) and luxury (AC)* for Germany, *quality (LV) and excitement (AC)* for Italy, *Beauty (LV) and Excitement (AC)* for Spain. The same type of transfer between positive features of brand and event occurs with some differences according to country, which can claim for the assessment of an attribute transfer which is moderated by country particularities.

-----Insert Table 8 about here-----

## **CONCLUSION**

The purposes of this study were to compare the way in which consumers from different countries assign value to a sponsored event and a sponsoring brand based on a combination of deductive quantitative and inductive qualitative approaches. Data were collected using a snowball sampling method in Spain, France, Italy, and Germany leading to a total amount of 1425 valid questionnaires. The results have implications for both sponsorship research and practice as they revealed new insights in the customer's functional, affective, symbolic, and economic evaluation of sponsor-event association on a cross-national level.

In particular, our study encompassing both deductive and inductive research revealed that

- a. consumer value dimensions and adjectives associated to sponsoring brand and sponsored event are statistically linked which allows to see these relations as the results or the conditions of a transfer between sponsoring brand and sponsored event.
- b. the same type of structural relations between sponsoring brand and sponsored event appears in each country with the exception of some minor particularities that can be explained by cultural or historical differences. Nevertheless, this data support the hypothesis that this type of sponsorship involving a globalized brand and event is not very much affected by local particularities but that a basic transfer occurs mainly at a symbolic level where both the brand and the event benefit from their own specificity and distinction (quality, excitement, beauty, fame, fashion...).

- c. the double deductive and inductive research methodology has allowed us to bridge quantitative qualitative analysis and thus to confirm and enrich our conclusions.

So, and as main managerial implication, it must be noted that sponsorship activities/programmes should be fully integrated in overall communication strategy. In this context, communication managers must consider the cross-cultural differences that could affect the levels of awareness, attitudes, values towards the brand and the event.

This research has some limitations that can constitute future research line. For example, there are some factors that can affect both event and brand consumer value. In this paper, only the relationships among event and brand dimensions of value have been connected.

Future research could be carried on other product categories or other kind of events, not necessary related to sports. Another interesting topic for further research could be to expand the analysis to the event value transfer model by considering the influence of sponsorship on brand value as compared to other more traditional communication tools.

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

*(Due to the page limitation, the complete references are available upon request)*

- Aaker, J. L., Maheswaran, D. (1997): The effect of cultural orientation on persuasion, *Journal of Consumer Research*, 24 (3), pp. 315-28.
- Alder, N. J. (1983): Cross-National Management Research: The Ostrich and the Trend, *Academy of Management Review*, 1983, Vol. 8, pp. 226-232.
- Ahtola, O. T. (1984): Price as a 'Give' Component in an Exchange Theoretic Multicomponent Model, *Advances in Consumer Research*, 11, 623-636.
- Akaah, I. P., Yaprak, A. (1993): Assessing the Influence of Country of Origin on Product Evaluations: an Application of Conjoint Methodology, *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 1993, Vol. 5, pp. 39-53.
- Allen, M. W. (2001): A Practical Method for Uncovering the Direct and Indirect Relationships between Human Values and Consumer Purchase, *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 2001, Vol. 18, pp. 102-120.
- Bearden, W. O., Etzel, M. J. (1982): Reference group influence on product and brand purchase decisions, *Journal of Consumer Research*, 9, 2, 183-194.
- Benarrosh-Dahan, E. (1991): Le Contexte Lexicologique du Luxe, *Revue Française du Marketing*, 132/133, 2-3, 45-54.
- Bhat, S., Reddy, S. K. (1998): Symbolic and Functional Positioning of Brands, *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 1998, Vol. 15, pp. 32-43.
- Bolden, R., Moscarola, J. (2000): Bridging Quantitative-Qualitative Divide, The Lexical Approach to Textual Data Analysis, *Social Science Computer Review*, Vol 18, 4, Winter 2000 450-460.
- Brinberg, D., Plimpton, L. (1986): Self-Monitoring and Product Conspicuousness on Reference Group Influence, *Advances in Consumer Research*, 13, Lutz, R. J. (ed.), Provo, UT.: Association for Consumer Research.
- Chao, P. (1993): Partitioning Country of Origin Effects: Consumer Evaluations of a Hybrid Product, *Journal of International Business Studies*, 1993, Vol. 24, pp. 291-306.
- Chapman, J. (1986): The impact of Discounts on Subjective Product Evaluations, working paper, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University.
- Cornwell, T. B., Maignan, I., (1998): An international review of sponsorship research, *Journal of Advertising*, 27 (1), pp. 1-21.

- Cornwell, T. B., Roy, D. P., Steinard, E. A., (2001): Exploring managers' perceptions of the impact of sponsorship on brand equity, *Journal of Advertising*, 30 (2), pp. 41-51.
- Crowley, M. G. (1991): Prioritizing the sponsorship audience, *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 25 No.11, pp. 11-21.
- Dalakas, V., Kropp, F. (2002): Attitudes of Youth Toward Purchasing from Sponsors: A Cross-Cultural Perspective, *Journal of Euromarketing*, 12 (1), pp. 19.
- Davis, H. L., Douglas, S. P., Silk, A. J. (1981): Measure Unreliability: A Hidden Threat to Cross-National Marketing Research?, *Journal of Marketing*, 1981, Vol. 45, pp. 98-108.
- De Mooij, M. (2001): Convergence and Divergence in Consumer Behaviour, *World Advertising Research Center*, 2001 October, pp. 30-33.
- Dibley, A., Baker, S. (2001): Uncovering the Links between Brand Choice and Personal Values among Young British and Spanish Girls, *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, 2001, Vol. 1, pp. 77-93.
- Dittmar, H. (1994): Material possessions as stereotypes: Material images of different socio-economic groups, *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 15, 4, 561-585.
- Douglas, S. P., Craig, C. S. (1992): Advances in International Marketing, *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 1992, Vol. 9, pp. 291-318.
- Douglas, M., Isherwood, B. (1979): *The World of Goods*, Basic, New York, NY.
- Dubois, B., Laurent, G. (1994): Attitudes toward the concept of luxury: An exploratory analysis, *Asia-Pacific Advances in Consumer Research*, Leong, S. M./Cote, J. A. (eds), 1, 2, 273-278.
- Ekwulugo, F. (2003): Branding in Cross-Cultural Marketing, In: Rugimbana R., Nwankwo, S. (Eds.) *Cross-Cultural Marketing*. Italy: Torquay, Devon: Thomson Learning, 2003, pp. 92-107.
- Farrelly, F. J., Quester, P. G. (1997): Integrating sports sponsorship into the corporate marketing function, *International Marketing Review*, 14 (2/3), pp. 170.
- Fauchois, A., Krieg, A. (1991): Le Discours du Luxe, *Revue Française du Marketing*, 132/133, 2-3, 23-39.
- Fennell, G. G. (1978): Perceptions of the Product-in-use Situation, *Journal of Marketing*, 42, 2, 39-47.
- Ferrandi, J-M., Valette-Florence, P., Prime, N., Usunier, J-C. (2000): Linking Personal Values and Time Orientations: The Case of the Attitude towards Cellular Phone in France and Germany, *Convegno 'Le Tendenze del Marketing in Europa'*, Università Ca Foscari Venezia, 2000, November, pp. 1-18.
- Ganassali, S., Moscarola, J. (2004): Protocoles d'enquête et efficacité des sondages par Internet, *Décisions marketing*, 33, pp. 63-75.
- Ganassali, S., Moscarola, J. (2004): Raccolta ed elaborazione dei dati testuali mediante Internet, *Micro & Macro Marketing*, 3, pp. 689-end.
- Gavard Perret & Moscarola, J. (1998): Lexical analysis in marketing, *Recherche et Application en Marketing* 1998.
- Gwinner, K. (1997): A model of image creation and image transfer in event sponsorship, *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 14 No. 3, 1997, pp. 145-158.
- Hassan, Salah S. and Katsanis, Lea Prevel (1994) "Global Market Segmentation Strategies and Trends" in *Globalisation of Consumer Markets: Structures and Strategies*, Erdener Kaynak and Salah S. Hassan, eds. International Business Press: New York, pp. 19-25.
- Heard, E. (1993/94): Walking the Talk of Customer Value, *National Productivity Review*, 11 (Winter), 21-27.
- Hirschman, E. (1988): Upper Class Wasps as Consumers: A Humanistic Inquiry, *Research in Consumer Behavior*, 3, Hirschman, E. C. (ed.), Greenwich, CT: JAI Press, 115-148.

- Hirschman, E. C., Holbrook, M. B. (1982): Hedonic Consumption: Emerging Concepts, Methods and Propositions, *Journal of Marketing*, 46, 3, 92-101.
- Holbrook, M. B. (1999): *Consumer Value: A Framework for Analysis and Research*, London: Routledge.
- Holbrook, M. B. (2005): Customer Value and Autoethnography: Subjective Personal Introspection and the Meanings of a Photograph Collection, *Journal of Business Research*, 58 (1), 45–61.
- Holt, D. B. (1995): How consumers consume: A typology of consumption practices, *Journal of Consumer Research*, 22, 1, 1–16.
- Hulland, J. S. (1999): The Effects of Country-of-Brand and Brand Name on Product Evaluation and Consideration: A Cross-Country Comparison, *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 1999, Vol. 11, pp. 23-40.
- Kim, J. S. (1998): Assessing the causal relationships among materialism, reference group, and conspicuous consumption of Korean adolescents, *Consumer Interests Annual*, 44, 155.
- Koo, G.-Y., Quarterman, J., Flynn, L. (2006): Effect of Perceived Sport Event and Sponsor Image Fit on Consumers' Cognition, Affect, and Behavioral Intentions, *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 2006, 15, 80-90.
- Knight, G. A., Spreng, R. A., Yaprak, A. (2003): Cross-National Development and Validation of an International Business Measurement Scale: the COISCALE, *International Business Review*, 2003, Vol. 12, pp. 581-599.
- Kropp, F., Jones, M., Rose, G., Shoham, A., Florenthal, B., Cho, B. (1999): Group Identities: A Cross-Cultural Comparison of Values and Groups Influences, *Journal of Euromarketing*, 1999, Vol. 8, pp. 117-131.
- Lee, J. A., Kacen, J. J. (1999): The Relationship between Independent and Interdependent Self-Concepts and Reasons for Purchase, *Journal of Euromarketing*, 1999, Vol. 8, pp. 83-99.
- Liefeld, J. P., Wall, M., Heslop, L. A. (1999): Cross-Cultural Comparison of Consumer Information Processing Styles, *Journal of Euromarketing*, 1999, Vol. 8, pp. 29-43.
- Malhotra, N. K. (2001): Cross-cultural marketing research in the twenty-first century, in *International Marketing Review*. 18 ed.
- Marshall, D. (1992): Does sponsorship always talk the same language? An overview of how attitudes to sponsorship vary across Europe, *Sponsorship Europe '92*, Esomar (Ed.). Monaco: Esomar.
- Marshall, D. W., Cook, G. (1992): The corporate (sports) sponsor, *International Journal of Advertising*, Vol. 11, pp. 307-24.
- Mazumdar, T. (1986): Experimental Investigation of the Psychological Determinants of Buyers' Price Awareness and a Comparative Assessment of Methodologies for Retrieving Price Information from Memory, working paper, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University.
- Meenaghan, J. A. (1983): Commercial sponsorship, *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 7 No. 7, pp. 5-73.
- Meenaghan, T. (1991a): The role of sponsorship in the marketing communication mix, *International Journal of Advertising*, Vol. 10 No. 1, pp. 35-47.
- Meenaghan, T. (1991b): Sponsorship – legitimizing the medium, *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 25 No. 11, pp. 5-10.
- Meerabeau, E., Gillett, R., Kennedy, M., Adeoba, J., Byass, M., Tabi, K. (1991): Sponsorship and the drinks industry in the 1990s, *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 25 No. 11, pp. 39-56.
- Metwally, M. M. (1993): An Analysis of Australian Exports to Middle Eastern Countries, *Middle East Business and Economic Review*, 1993, Vol. 5, pp. 19-37.
- Monroe, K. B., Krishnan, R. (1985): The Effect of Price on Subjective Product Evaluations, Perceived Quality, J. Jacoby and J. Olsen, eds. Lexington MA: Lexington Books, 209-32.

- Monroe, K. B. (1990): Pricing: Making Profitable Decisions, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.
- Papadopoulos, N., Heslop, L. (1990): National Stereotypes and Product Evaluations in a Socialist Country, *International Marketing Review*, 1990, Vol. 7, pp. 32-48.
- Parameswaran, R., Yaprak, A. (1987): A Cross-National Comparison of Consumer Research Measures, *Journal of International Business Studies*, 1987, Vol. 18, pp. 35-49.
- Parasuraman, A. (1997): Reflections on Gaining Competitive Advantage Through Customer Value, *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 25(2), 154-161.
- Park, C. W., Jaworski, B. J., McInnis, D. J. (1986): Strategic brand concept-image management, *Journal of Marketing*, 50, 3, 135-145.
- Petty, R. E., Cacioppo, J. T. (1986): Communication and Persuasion: Central and Peripheral Routes to Attitude Change, Springer-Verlag, New York, NY.
- Pope, N. (1998): Consumption values, sponsorship, awareness, brand and product use, *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 7(2), 124-136.
- Poon, D. T. Y., Prendergast, G. (2006): A new framework for evaluating sponsorship opportunities, *International Journal of Advertising*, 25 (4), pp. 471-87.
- Ratnatunga, J., Ewing, M. T., (2005): The brand capability value of integrated marketing communication (IMC), *Journal of Advertising*, 34 (4), pp. 25-40.
- Roux, E., Floch, J.-M. (1996): Gérer L'Ingérable: La Contradiction Interne de toute Maison de Luxe, *Décisions Marketing*, 9, 2-3, 15-23.
- Russell, C. A., Valenzuela, A., (2005): Global Consumption: (How) Does Culture Matter? *Advances in Consumer Research*, 32 (1), pp. 86-89.
- Salciuviene, L., Auruskeviciene, V., Lydeka, Z. (2005): An Assessment of Various Approaches for Cross-Cultural Consumer Research, *Problems & Perspectives in Management* (3), pp. 147-59.
- Samli, A. C. (1994): Towards a Model of International Consume Behaviour: Key Considerations and Research Avenues, *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 1994, Vol. 7, pp. 63-85.
- Sheth, J. N., Newman, B. I., Gross, B. L. (1991): Consumption Values and Market Choices, Cincinnati: South-Western.
- Sheth, J. N., Newman, B. I., Gross, B. L. (1991): Why We Buy What We Buy: A Theory of Consumption Values, *Journal of Business Research*, 22(2), 159-170.
- Shimp, T. A., Sharma, S. (1987): Consumer Ethnocentrism: Construction and Validation of CETSCALE, *Journal of Marketing Research*, 1987, Vol. 24, pp. 280-289.
- Smith, J. B., Colgate, M. (2007): CUSTOMER VALUE CREATION: A PRACTICAL FRAMEWORK, *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, vol. 15, no. 1 (winter 2007), pp. 7-23.
- Sojka, J. Z., Tansuhaj, P. S., (1995): Cross-cultural Consumer Research: A Twenty-Year Review, *Advances in Consumer Research*, 22 (1), pp. 461-74.
- Steenkamp, J. B. E. M., Burgess, S. M. (2002): Optimum Stimulation Level and Exploratory Consumer Behavior in an Emerging Consumer Market, *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 2002. – Vol. 19, pp. 131-150.
- Thakor, M. V., Katsanis, L. P. (1997): A Model of Brand and Country Effects on Quality Dimensions: Issues and Implications, *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 1997, Vol. 9, pp. 37-51.
- Tse, David K., Wong, John K.; and Tan; Chin Tiong (1988) "Towards Some Standardised Cross-Cultural Consumption Values", *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol. 15, pp. 387-395.
- Uлага, W. (2003): Capturing Value Creation in Business Relationships: A Customer Perspective, *Industrial Marketing Management*, 32 (8) 677-693.



- Valette-Florence, P., Sirieix, L., Grunert, C., Nielsen, N. (1999): Means-end Chain Analysis of Fish Consumption in Denmark and France: a Multidimensional Perspective, *Journal of Euromarketing*, 1999, Vol. 8, pp. 15-27.
- Vigneron, F., Johnson, L. W. (2004): Measuring perceptions of brand luxury, *Journal of Brand Management*, 11, 6, 484-506.
- Vriens, M., Hofstede, F. T. (2000): Linking Attribute, Benefits, and Consumer Values, *Marketing Research*, Fall 2000, Vol. 12, pp. 4-10.
- Walliser, B. (2003): An international review of sponsorship research: extension and update, *International Journal of Advertising*, 22 (1), pp. 5-40.
- Westbrook, R. A., Oliver, R. L. (1991): The dimensionality of consumption emotion patterns and consumer satisfaction, *Journal of Consumer Research*, 18, 1, 84-91.
- Wills, J., Samli, A. C., Jacobs, L. (1991): Developing Global Products and Marketing Strategies: A Construct and a Research Agenda, *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 1991, Vol. 19, pp. 1-11.
- Wong, N., Rindfleisch, A., Burroughs, J. E. (2003): Do Reverse-Worded Items Confound Measures in Cross-cultural consumer research? The Case of the Material Values Scale, *Journal of Consumer Research*, 2003, Vol. 30, pp. 72-90.
- Woodall, T. (2003): Conceptualising 'Value for the Customer': A Structural, Attributional and Dispositional Perspective, *Academy of Marketing Science Review*, 2003(12), 1-42.
- Woodruff, R. (1997): Customer Value: The Next Source for Competitive Advantage, *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 25 (2), 139-153.
- Yavas, U., Verhage, B. J., Green, R. T. (1992): Global Consumer Segmentation versus Local Market Orientation, *Management International Review*, 1992, Vol. 32, pp. 265-272.
- Zeithaml, V. A. (1988): Consumer Perceptions of Price, Quality, and Value: A Means-End Model and Synthesis of Evidence, *Journal of Marketing*, 52(3), 2-22.

## FIGURES

Figure 1. General Model.

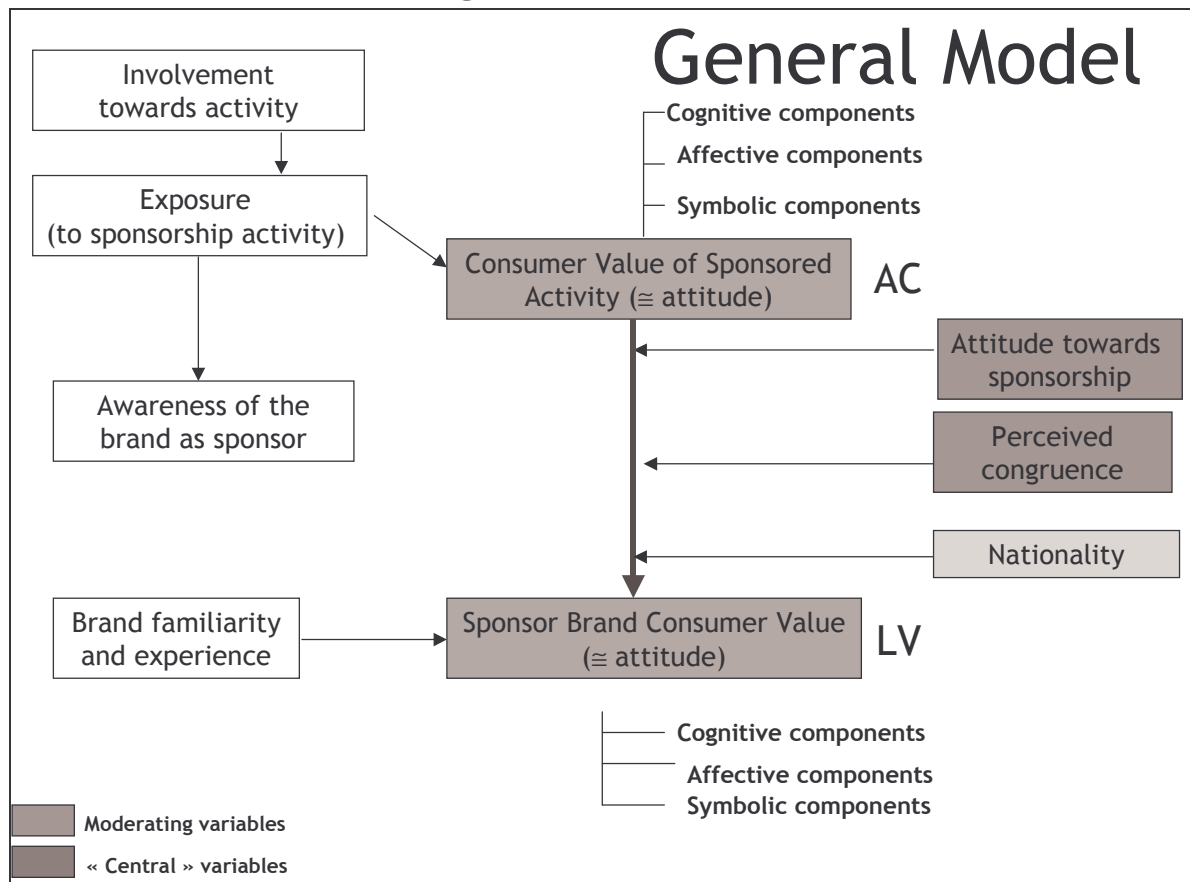
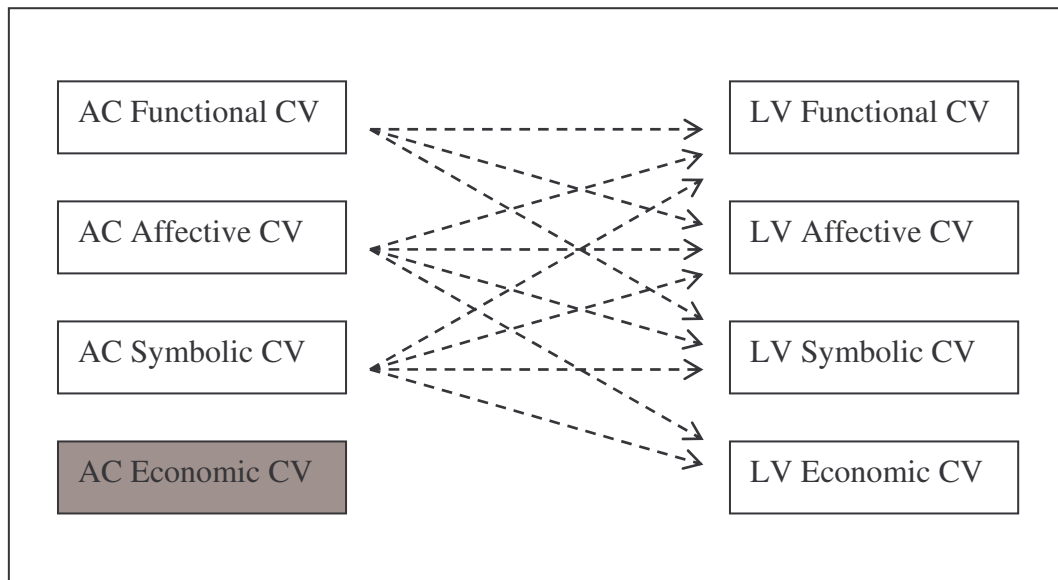
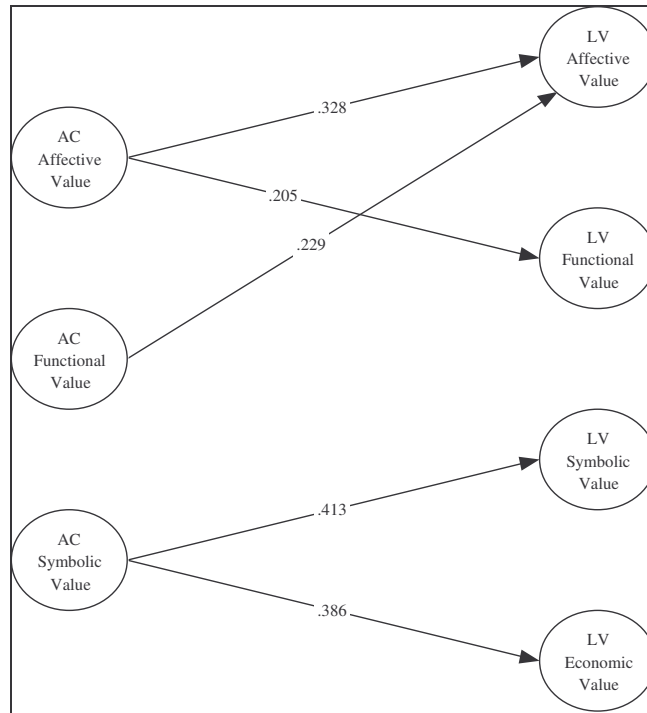


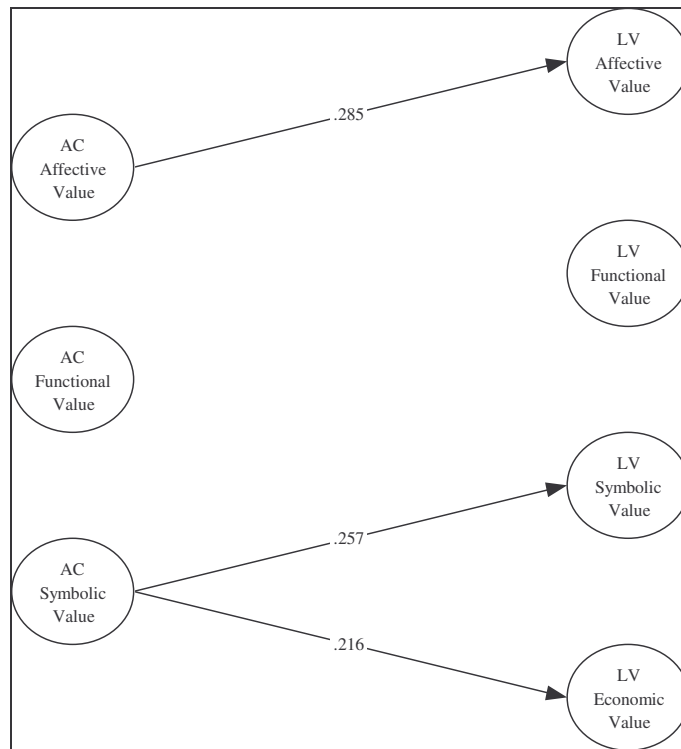
Figure 2. Customer Value Core Model and Proposed Relationships.



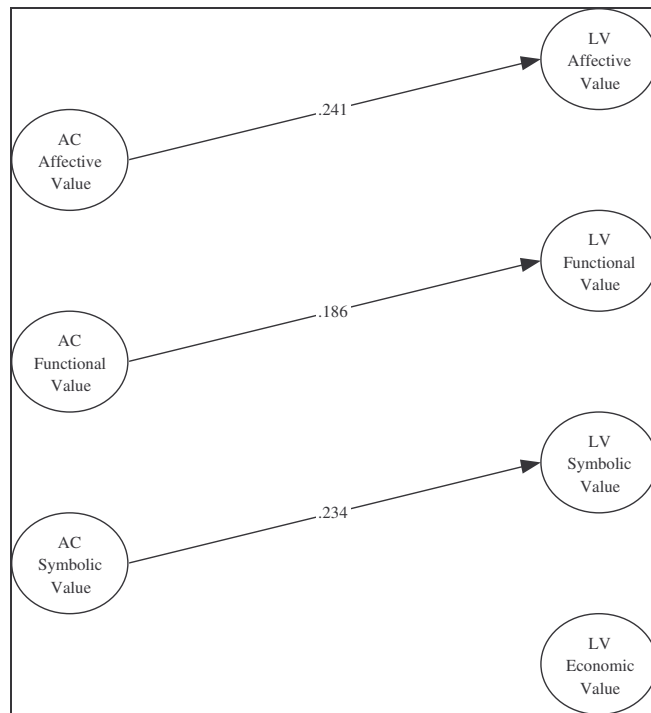
**Figure 3. Results illustration. Spanish sample.**



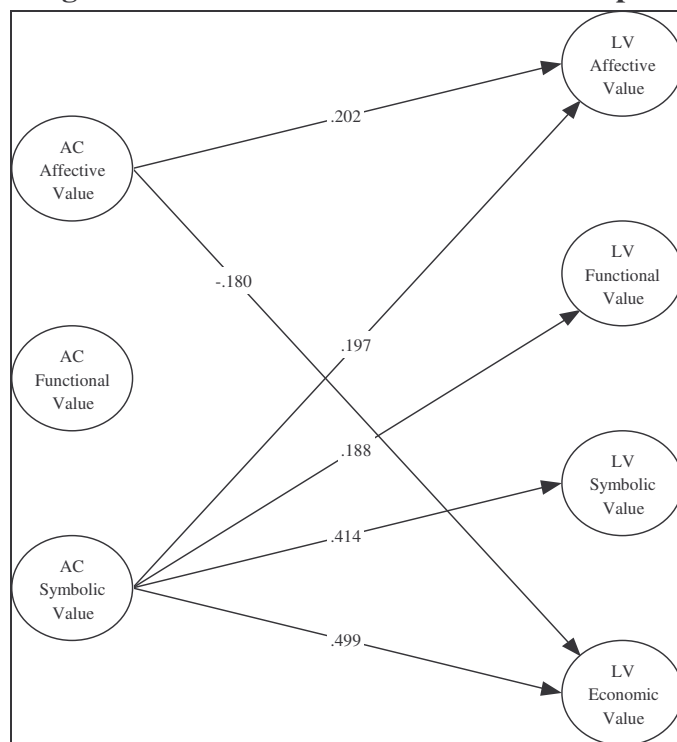
**Figure 4. Results illustration. French sample.**



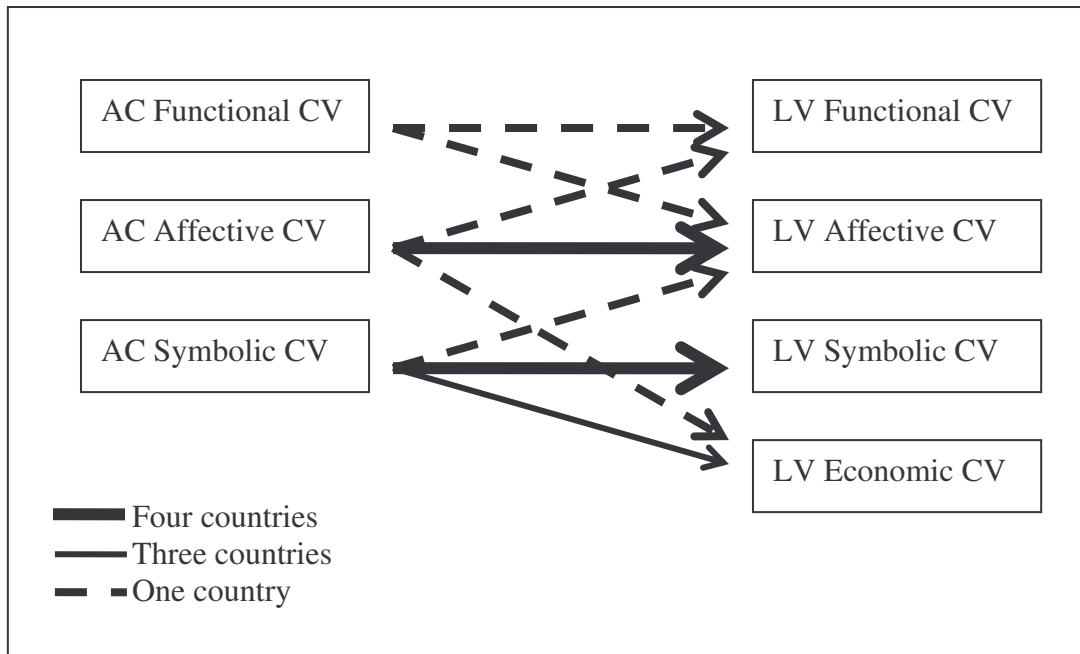
**Figure 5. Results illustration. Italian sample.**



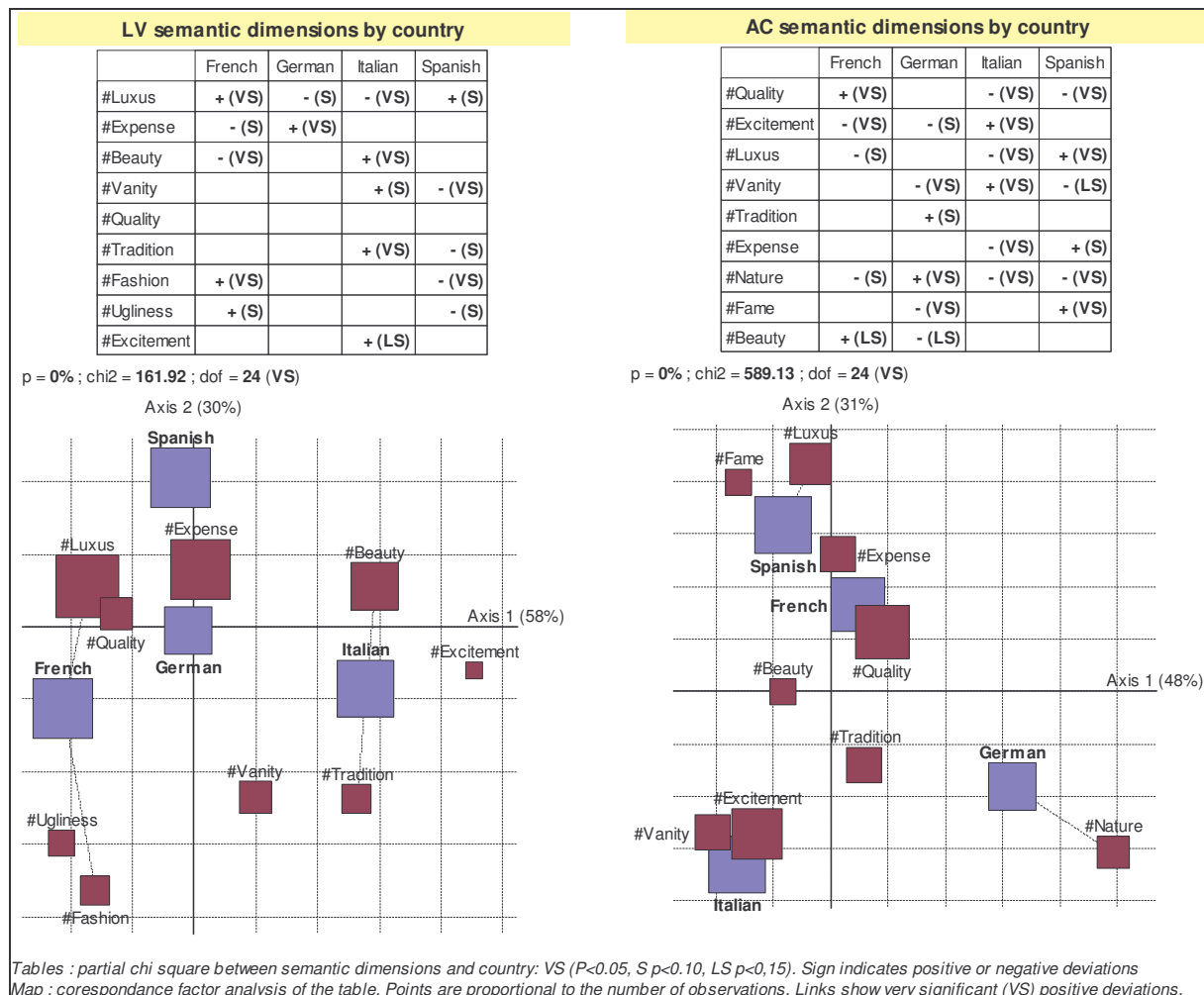
**Figure 6. Results illustration. German sample.**



**Figure 8: Final relationships obtained**

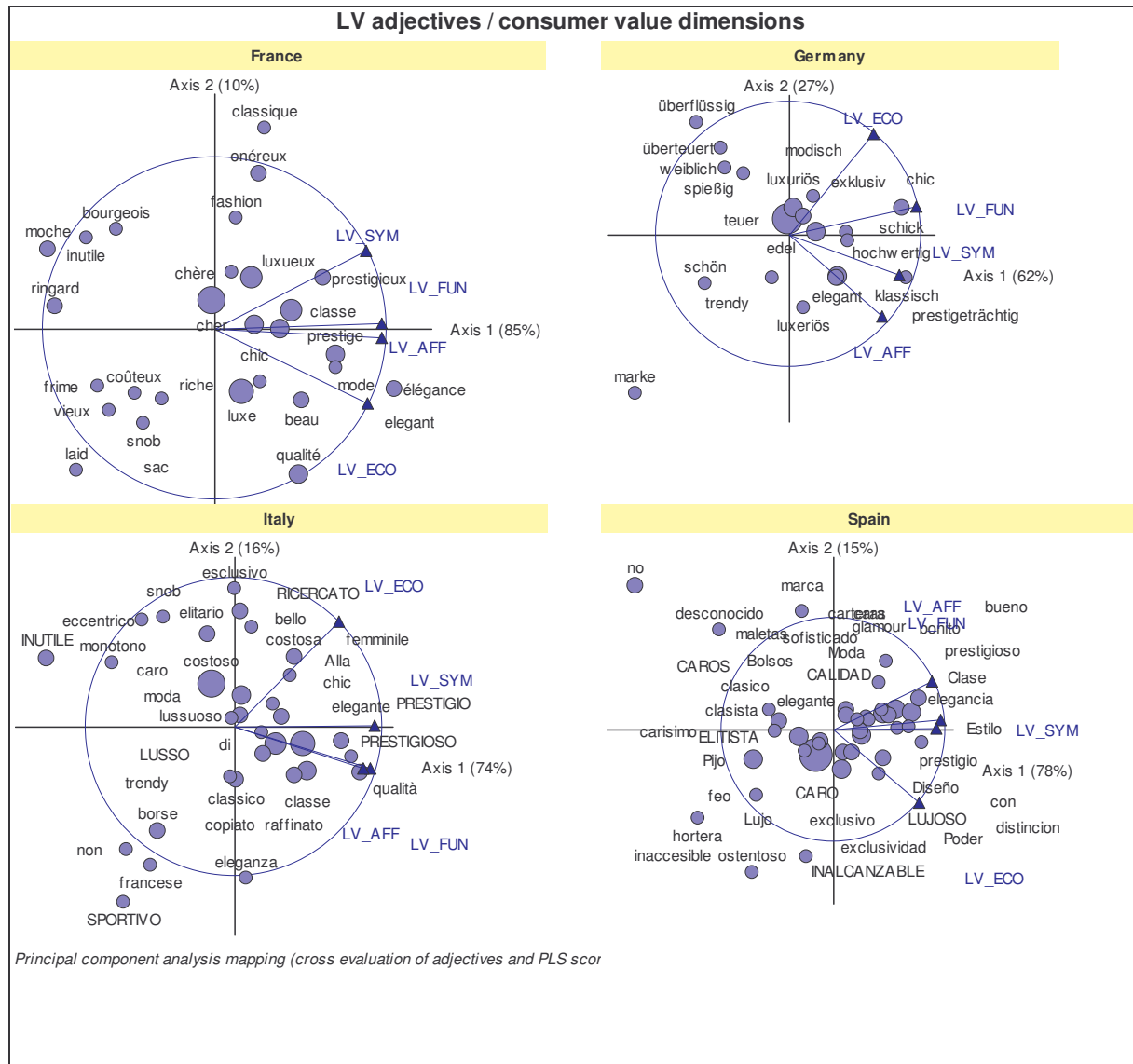


**Figure 8. LV and AC Semantic Dimensions by country.**

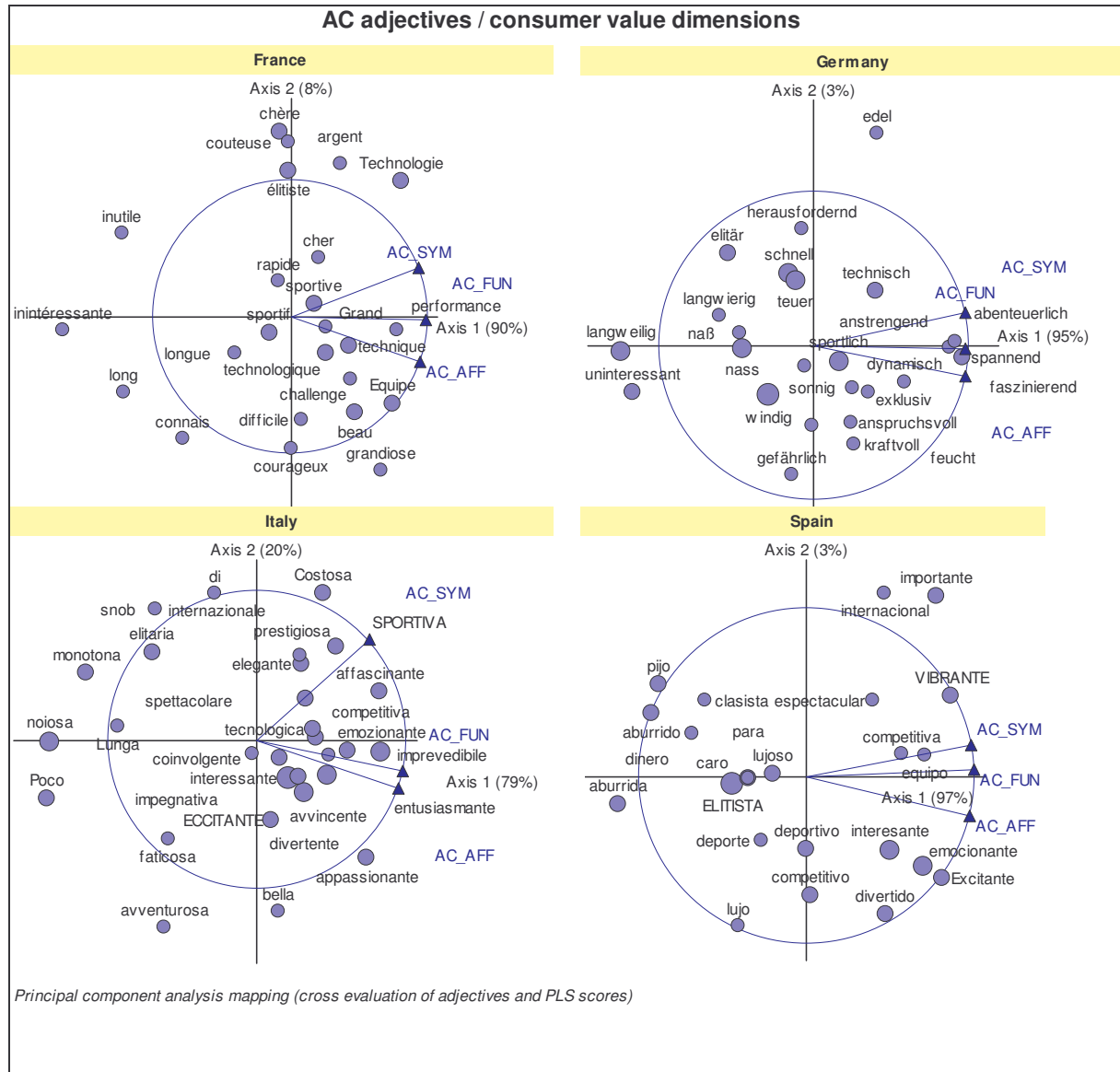




**Figure 9. LV Adjectives/Consumer Value Dimensions.**



**Figure 10. AC Adjectives/Consumer Value Dimensions.**



## TABLES

**Table 1. Sample Characteristics.**

Variable	Categories	Spain N=392	France N=403	Italy N=369	Germany N=261	Total N=1425
Gender	Male	51.5	49.6	46.9	55.9	50.6
	Female	48.5	50.4	53.1	44.1	49.4
	Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Age	<20	0.3	6.7	1.6	0.8	2.5
	20-29	46.7	45.7	51.6	64.8	50.9
	30-39	30.6	16.9	21.1	23.0	22.9
	40-49	14.0	17.6	15.4	3.4	13.5
	50-59	6.6	10.9	9.2	6.1	8.4
	60+	1.8	2.2	1.1	1.9	1.8
	Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Income	<500	4.9	13.2	2.4	16.1	8.6
	500-999	9.7	10.9	3.3	26.4	11.5
	1000-1999	31.7	23.9	29.1	23.8	27.4
	2000-3999	38.4	32.8	42.7	21.8	34.9
	4000+	15.3	19.2	22.6	11.9	17.7
	Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

**Table 2. Scale Items.**

Construct	Item	Description
AC Affective Value	ACAFF1	AC races are beautiful to see
	ACAFF2	AC is pleasure
	ACAFF3	AC makes me dream
	ACAFF4	AC is exciting
AC Functional Value	ACFUN1	AC is an interesting competition
	ACFUN2	AC is well-organized
	ACFUN3	AC is an important event
	ACFUN4	AC is a significant sporting event
AC Symbolic Value	ACSYM1	AC is “in the blow”
	ACSYM2	AC means prestige
	ACSYM3	AC is a class event
	ACSYM4	AC is trendy
LV Affective Value	LVAFF1	LV is an attractive brand
	LVAFF2	LV is a sensual brand
	LVAFF3	LV is pleasure
LV Economic Value	LVECO1	LV is an expensive brand
	LVECO2	LV is exclusive
	LVECO3	LV fits to my purchasing power
LV Functional Value	LVFUN1	LV products are good quality
	LVFUN2	LV products are lasting long(er)
	LVFUN3	You can rely on LV products
LV Symbolic Value	LVSYM1	LV means prestige
	LVSYM2	LV is a class brand
	LVSYM3	LV is trendy

**Table 3. Structural relations. Spanish Sample.**

Structural relationship	$\beta$ standardized	T value Bootstrap	R Squared
AC_AFF -> LV_AFF	0.328**	3.89	LV_AFF=0.165 LV_ECO=0.012 LV_FUN=0.102 LV_SYM=0.088
AC_AFF -> LV_ECO	0.024 <sup>ns</sup>	0.33	
AC_AFF -> LV_FUN	0.205*	2.24	
AC_AFF -> LV_SYM	0.153 <sup>ns</sup>	1.79	
AC_FUN -> LV_AFF	0.229*	2.02	
AC_FUN -> LV_ECO	0.064 <sup>ns</sup>	0.53	
AC_FUN -> LV_FUN	0.191 <sup>ns</sup>	1.83	
AC_FUN -> LV_SYM	0.052 <sup>ns</sup>	0.55	
AC_SYM -> LV_AFF	0.009 <sup>ns</sup>	0.09	
AC_SYM -> LV_ECO	0.386**	3.50	
AC_SYM -> LV_FUN	0.120 <sup>ns</sup>	1.32	
AC_SYM -> LV_SYM	0.413**	4.95	

\*p<.05; \*\*p<.01; ns = not significant

**Table 4. Structural relations. French Sample.**

Structural relationship	$\beta$ Standardized	T value Bootstrap	R Squared
AC_AFF -> LV_AFF	0.285**	2.95	LV_AFF=0.114 LV_ECO=0.041 LV_FUN=0.051 LV_SYM=0.118
AC_AFF -> LV_ECO	-0.009 <sup>ns</sup>	0.08	
AC_AFF -> LV_FUN	0.089 <sup>ns</sup>	0.93	
AC_AFF -> LV_SYM	0.127 <sup>ns</sup>	1.43	
AC_FUN -> LV_AFF	-0.048 <sup>ns</sup>	0.45	
AC_FUN -> LV_ECO	-0.009 <sup>ns</sup>	0.07	
AC_FUN -> LV_FUN	0.093 <sup>ns</sup>	0.83	
AC_FUN -> LV_SYM	-0.015 <sup>ns</sup>	0.14	
AC_SYM -> LV_AFF	0.119 <sup>ns</sup>	1.25	
AC_SYM -> LV_ECO	0.216*	2.46	
AC_SYM -> LV_FUN	0.068 <sup>ns</sup>	0.80	
AC_SYM -> LV_SYM	0.257**	3.28	

\*p<.05; \*\*p<.01; ns = not significant

**Table 5. Structural relations. Italian Sample.**

Structural relationship	$\beta$ standardized	T value Bootstrap	R Squared
AC_AFF -> LV_AFF	0.241*	2.43	LV_AFF=0.097 LV_ECO=0.022 LV_FUN=0.084 LV_SYM=0.072
AC_AFF -> LV_ECO	0.015 <sup>ns</sup>	0.16	
AC_AFF -> LV_FUN	0.125 <sup>ns</sup>	1.51	
AC_AFF -> LV_SYM	0.045 <sup>ns</sup>	0.54	
AC_FUN -> LV_AFF	0.083 <sup>ns</sup>	0.78	
AC_FUN -> LV_ECO	0.073 <sup>ns</sup>	0.60	
AC_FUN -> LV_FUN	0.186*	1.97	
AC_FUN -> LV_SYM	0.017 <sup>ns</sup>	0.13	
AC_SYM -> LV_AFF	0.004 <sup>ns</sup>	0.05	
AC_SYM -> LV_ECO	0.079 <sup>ns</sup>	0.73	
AC_SYM -> LV_FUN	-0.005 <sup>ns</sup>	0.07	
AC_SYM -> LV_SYM	0.234**	2.80	

\*p<.05; \*\*p<.01; ns = not significant

**Table 6. Structural relations. German Sample.**

Structural relationship	$\beta$ standardized	T value Bootstrap	R Squared
AC_AFF -> LV_AFF	0.202*	2.5317	LV_AFF=0.144 LV_ECO=0.178 LV_FUN=0.124 LV_SYM=0.182
AC_AFF -> LV_ECO	-0.180*	2.3354	
AC_AFF -> LV_FUN	0.032 <sup>ns</sup>	0.3937	
AC_AFF -> LV_SYM	-0.080 <sup>ns</sup>	1.006	
AC_FUN -> LV_AFF	0.023 <sup>ns</sup>	0.2174	
AC_FUN -> LV_ECO	0.018 <sup>ns</sup>	0.1978	
AC_FUN -> LV_FUN	0.161 <sup>ns</sup>	1.5986	
AC_FUN -> LV_SYM	0.077 <sup>ns</sup>	0.8233	
AC_SYM -> LV_AFF	0.197*	2.0476	
AC_SYM -> LV_ECO	0.499**	6.2876	
AC_SYM -> LV_FUN	0.188*	2.0201	
AC_SYM -> LV_SYM	0.414**	5.3302	

\*p<.05; \*\*p<.01; ns = not significant

**Table 7. Adjectives most frequently associated with LV and AC.**

Adjectives most frequently associated with Louis Vitton							
France		Germany		Italy		Spain	
	% obs.		% obs.		% obs.		% obs.
cher	35%	teuer	58%	costoso	33%	CARO	48%
luxe	22%	edel	14%	elegante	24%	CALIDAD	10%
classe	15%	Luxuriös	13%	di	16%	elegante	10%
luxueux	12%	elegant	10%	classe	11%	prestigio	10%
Qualité	11%	hochwertig	9%	moda	7%	ELITISTA	9%
chic	8%	exklusiv	8%	classico	7%	Clase	9%
prestige	8%	schick	5%	caro	6%	Pijo	8%
mode	7%	nicht	4%	raffinato	5%	exclusivo	7%
prestigieux	5%	chic	4%	lussuoso	5%	Lujo	7%
beau	4%	modisch	4%	PRESTIGIOSO	5%	LUJOSO	6%

Adjectives most frequently associated with America Cup							
France		Germany		Italy		Spain	
	% obs.		% obs.		% obs.		% obs.
élitiste	6%	windig	20%	interessante	14%	ELITISTA	19%
sportif	6%	nass	14%	awincente	10%	interesante	8%
Equipe	4%	langweilig	12%	emozionante	9%	emocionante	7%
technique	4%	sportlich	11%	divertente	8%	aburrido	6%
beau	4%	schnell	11%	noiosa	8%	caro	6%
Technologie	4%	teuer	10%	affascinante	7%	competitivo	5%
technologique	4%	spannend	8%	competitiva	7%	divertido	5%
chère	3%	elitär	6%	tecnologica	7%	aburrida	4%
sportive	3%	technisch	5%	ECCITANTE	5%	lujoso	4%
cher	3%	uninteressant	5%	coinvolgente	5%	pijo	4%

Numbers are percentages of respondents that quote adjectives listed



**Table 8. Language Connection between LV and AC Adjectives.**

Language connexion between adjectives of LV and AC (partial chi square)									
France									
	#Luxus	#Expense	#Beauty	#Vanity	#Quality	#Fashion	#Ugliness	#Tradition	#Excitement
#Quality					+			-	
#Excitement							-		+
#Luxus						-	+	+	
#Expense		+			-				
#Vanity				+					
#Tradition					-	+			
#Nature									
#Beauty		-		+					
#Fame		+				-			
Germany									
	#Expense	#Luxus	#Beauty	#Vanity	#Quality	#Ugliness	#Fashion	#Tradition	#Excitement
#Quality						-			
#Nature				+	-				
#Excitement		-	+	-		+	+		
#Tradition		+							
#Luxus	-				+				
#Expense									
#Vanity									
#Beauty									
#Fame									
Italy									
	#Expense	#Beauty	#Luxus	#Vanity	#Tradition	#Quality	#Fashion	#Ugliness	#Excitement
#Excitement		+		-					
#Vanity						-			
#Quality									+
#Tradition				+			+	+	
#Luxus		-					+		
#Expense	+								
#Beauty									+
#Fame		-							
#Nature									
Spain									
	#Luxus	#Expense	#Beauty	#Quality	#Vanity	#Tradition	#Fashion	#Ugliness	#Excitement
#Luxus	+		-		+				+
#Excitement			+		-				-
#Quality					-				
#Expense					+		+		+
#Vanity									
#Tradition					+				
#Fame			+		-				
#Beauty				+					
#Nature								+	

Partial chi square between semantic dimensions of LV (column) and AC (line) : VS ( $P < 0.05$ ,  $S p < 0.10$ ,  $LS p < 0.15$ ). Sign indicates positive or negative deviations

## APPENDIX

**Table A1. Reliability and convergent validity assessment. Spanish sample.**

Factor	Indicator	Loading	T Value	Cronbach $\alpha$	CR	AVE
AC Affective Value	ACAFF1	0.89	57.2	0.87	0.91	0.73
	ACAFF2	0.88	65.3			
	ACAFF3	0.72	21.2			
	ACAFF4	0.91	70.2			
AC Functional Value	ACFUN1	0.84	38.8	0.87	0.91	0.72
	ACFUN2	0.77	25.8			
	ACFUN3	0.90	70.5			
	ACFUN4	0.89	53.8			
AC Symbolic Value	ACSYM1	0.84	35.3	0.87	0.91	0.71
	ACSYM2	0.89	68.0			
	ACSYM3	0.84	33.9			
	ACSYM4	0.82	27.8			
LV Affective Value	LVAFF1	0.90	71.3	0.82	0.89	0.73
	LVAFF2	0.76	17.8			
	LVAFF3	0.89	49.6			
LV Economic Value	LVECO1	0.86	22.4	0.74	0.88	0.79
	LVECO2	0.91	51.7			
LV Functional Value	LVFUN1	0.91	75.5	0.84	0.90	0.76
	LVFUN2	0.78	22.2			
	LVFUN3	0.91	75.2			
LV Symbolic Value	LVSYM1	0.91	71.4	0.83	0.90	0.75
	LVSYM2	0.92	87.2			
	LVSYM3	0.75	20.0			

Note: CR=Composite Reliability; AVE=Average variance extracted

All t values significant ( $p < .01$ )

**Table A2. Discriminant validity assessment. Spanish sample.**

	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7
F1. ACAFF	0.85						
F2. ACFUN	0.79	0.85					
F3. ACSYM	0.66	0.84	0.84				
F4. LVAFF	0.51	0.49	0.42	0.85			
F5. LVECO	0.33	0.41	0.46	0.38	0.89		
F6. LVFUN	0.43	0.45	0.42	0.63	0.55	0.87	
F7. LVSYM	0.47	0.52	0.56	0.73	0.65	0.69	0.86

Note: Diagonal AVE's square root; Below the diagonal: correlation coefficient

**Table A3. Reliability and convergent validity assessment. French sample.**

Factor	Indicator	Loading	T Value	Cronbach $\alpha$	CR	AVE
AC Affective Value	ACAFF1	0.84	7.53	0.88	0.92	0.73
	ACAFF2	0.87	9.83			
	ACAFF3	0.81	6.32			
	ACAFF4	0.90	12.98			
AC Functional Value	ACFUN1	0.84	5.64	0.86	0.91	0.71
	ACFUN2	0.76	5.06			
	ACFUN3	0.88	7.69			
	ACFUN4	0.88	6.31			
AC Symbolic Value	ACSYM1	0.75	5.90	0.80	0.87	0.62
	ACSYM2	0.86	8.03			
	ACSYM3	0.85	7.60			
	ACSYM4	0.68	3.28			
LV Affective Value	LVAFF1	0.86	9.40	0.85	0.91	0.77
	LVAFF2	0.86	10.16			
	LVAFF3	0.90	12.87			
LV Economic Value	LVECO1	0.74	1.70	0.63	0.83	0.72
	LVECO2	0.94	2.71			
LV Functional Value	LVFUN1	0.90	7.34	0.91	0.94	0.84
	LVFUN2	0.92	9.18			
	LVFUN3	0.93	9.01			
LV Symbolic Value	LVSYM1	0.89	8.94	0.73	0.85	0.66
	LVSYM2	0.87	8.36			
	LVSYM3	0.65	3.27			

Note: CR=Composite Reliability; AVE=Average variance extracted

All t values significant ( $p < .01$ ) but LVECO1 ( $p < .05$ )

**Table A4. Discriminant validity assessment. French sample.**

	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7
F1. ACAFF	0.85						
F2. ACFUN	0.78	0.84					
F3. ACSYM	0.68	0.73	0.79				
F4. LVAFF	0.33	0.26	0.28	0.88			
F5. LVECO	0.13	0.14	0.20	0.35	0.85		
F6. LVFUN	0.21	0.21	0.20	0.53	0.50	0.92	
F7. LVSYM	0.29	0.27	0.33	0.64	0.70	0.59	0.81

Note: Diagonal AVE's square root; Below the diagonal: correlation coefficient

**Table A5. Reliability and convergent validity assessment. Italian sample.**

Factor	Indicator	Loading	T Value	Cronbach $\alpha$	CR	AVE
AC Affective Value	ACAFF1	0.899	50.0	0.90	0.93	0.77
	ACAFF2	0.912	70.8			
	ACAFF3	0.808	25.9			
	ACAFF4	0.896	59.7			
AC Functional Value	ACFUN1	0.848	34.7	0.83	0.89	0.67
	ACFUN2	0.702	11.8			
	ACFUN3	0.853	28.1			
	ACFUN4	0.861	29.9			
AC Symbolic Value	ACSYM1	0.64	4.6	0.76	0.83	0.55
	ACSYM2	0.859	19.3			
	ACSYM3	0.81	14.2			
	ACSYM4	0.636	4.6			
LV Affective Value	LVAFF1	0.857	29.9	0.80	0.88	0.71
	LVAFF2	0.817	25.4			
	LVAFF3	0.856	28.7			
LV Economic Value	LVECO1	0.815	2.8	0.52	0.81	0.68
	LVECO2	0.829	3.8			
LV Functional Value	LVFUN1	0.901	49.0	0.88	0.93	0.80
	LVFUN2	0.89	43.1			
	LVFUN3	0.899	43.0			
LV Symbolic Value	LVSYM1	0.879	15.6	0.74	0.85	0.66
	LVSYM2	0.865	20.3			
	LVSYM3	0.671	5.7			

Note: CR=Composite Reliability; AVE=Average variance extracted

All t values significant ( $p < .01$ )

**Table A6. Discriminant validity assessment. Italian sample.**

	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7
F1. ACAFF	0.88						
F2. ACFUN	0.77	0.82					
F3. ACSYM	0.44	0.60	0.74				
F4. LVAFF	0.31	0.27	0.16	0.84			
F5. LVECO	0.11	0.13	0.13	0.37	0.82		
F6. LVFUN	0.27	0.28	0.16	0.60	0.46	0.90	
F7. LVSYM	0.16	0.19	0.26	0.59	0.62	0.60	0.81

Note: Diagonal AVE's square root; Below the diagonal: correlation coefficient

**Table A7. Reliability and convergent validity assessment. German sample.**

Factor	Indicator	Loading	T Value	Cronbach $\alpha$	CR	AVE
AC Affective Value	ACAFF1	0.878	54.4	0.87	0.91	0.72
	ACAFF2	0.844	32.1			
	ACAFF3	0.791	26.7			
	ACAFF4	0.884	49.9			
AC Functional Value	ACFUN1	0.794	24.8	0.80	0.87	0.63
	ACFUN2	0.706	14.5			
	ACFUN3	0.821	29.1			
	ACFUN4	0.842	34.1			
AC Symbolic Value	ACSYM1	0.769	20.9	0.84	0.89	0.67
	ACSYM2	0.857	45.1			
	ACSYM3	0.866	47.7			
	ACSYM4	0.768	23.1			
LV Affective Value	LVAFF1	0.847	32.7	0.76	0.86	0.67
	LVAFF2	0.802	20.7			
	LVAFF3	0.813	24.9			
LV Economic Value	LVECO1	0.902	42.5	0.82	0.92	0.85
	LVECO2	0.936	76.4			
LV Functional Value	LVFUN1	0.886	48.1	0.84	0.90	0.75
	LVFUN2	0.873	39.5			
	LVFUN3	0.840	20.7			
LV Symbolic Value	LVSYM1	0.890	44.9	0.75	0.85	0.66
	LVSYM2	0.879	40.1			
	LVSYM3	0.649	10.6			

Note: CR=Composite Reliability; AVE=Average variance extracted

All t values significant ( $p < .01$ )

**Table A8. Discriminant validity assessment. German sample.**

	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7
F1. ACAFF	0.85						
F2. ACFUN	0.74	0.79					
F3. ACSYM	0.62	0.77	0.82				
F4. LVAFF	0.34	0.32	0.34	0.82			
F5. LVECO	0.14	0.27	0.40	0.39	0.92		
F6. LVFUN	0.27	0.33	0.33	0.58	0.51	0.87	
F7. LVSYM	0.24	0.34	0.42	0.62	0.76	0.66	0.81

Note: Diagonal AVE's square root; Below the diagonal: correlation coefficient