

USING SPORT AS A TOOL TO MARKET UNHEALTHY FOOD

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ABSTRACT

This paper is focused on how unhealthy food and drinks companies sponsor sports athletes, teams and events as a means of promoting their brands. Currently, across many sports, there is evidence of unhealthy food and drink sponsors. From a business perspective, sport provides an ideal platform to influence the public into forming positive attitudes towards their brands. Sport also provides companies with an opportunity to target and penetrate new and unexplored markets. The objective of this paper is to highlight this contradictory association that ethically needs reviewing. Within this paper it is argued that due to the potential impacts of developing inaccurate attitudes of unhealthy food and drinks companies, sports governing bodies can and should make a stance against allowing these brands to be aligned with a healthy life pursuit. Keywords: Unhealthy consumption, sport, marketing, brand association, attitude formation

1. Introduction

In parallel with the increasing prevalence of health conditions associated with poor food and drink consumption such as obesity, there has been a greater interest in the marketing of unhealthy consumption. In today's society, high status individuals such as athletes and celebrities are considered commodities that are sponsored and used to endorse brands through the media. Sport tends to have a positive and healthy image, which is often taken advantage of by brands to endorse their company and products. Consequently, corporate sponsorship frequently generates a favourable image for the sponsor, both at the corporate and brand level (Gwinner & Eaton, 1999). Indeed, previous research (e.g., Carison & Donovan, 2008) has reported that athlete or celebrity endorsement can impact the effectiveness of advertising and brand recognition. Additionally, athlete or celebrity endorsement can influence the attitudes formed about the brand (Kamins, Brand, Koeke & Moe, 1989; Till, Stanley & Priluck, 2008), purchase intentions and purchase behaviour (Bush, Martin & Bush, 2004; Spry, Pappu & Cornwell, 2011). Through endorsement, brands aim to emotionally connect consumers with the products and by doing so achieve their own marketing objectives (McGhee, 2012). Overtime, athlete and celebrity endorsement has become more common, due to the potential gains of making this association for brands (Miller & Laczniak, 2011). Charbonneau and Garland (2005) suggested that using well known athletes can be a 'cut through' tool in gaining consumers' attention in the cluttered media environment. It is also suggested that brand endorsement is most successful when athletes provide genuine testimonials for the products that they use in their performance (Stone, Joseph & Jones, 2003).

However, one area of concern is the exposure of young people to the endorsement of unhealthy consumption. Children are frequently exposed to athlete endorsed foods that are nutritionally unhealthy and energy dense (Bragg, Yanamadala, Roberto, Harris & Brownell, 2013). This finding is distorted from the World Health Organisation's (2010) recommendations on food marketing and non-alcoholic beverages in which it states that based on the impacts of exposure and power, policy is required to reduce the "exposure of children to, and power of, marketing of foods that are high in saturated fats, trans-fatty acids, free sugars, or salt" (p. 8). Despite these recommendations, there appears to have been relatively little change in the endorsement of unhealthy consumption to childhood populations, despite calls for policy to change (e.g., Nestle, 2006). In fact children may be the target of persuasive marketing techniques to increase their brand recognition and preferences for advertised food products (Kelly, Hattersley, King & Flood, 2008). Furthermore, Dixon, Scully, Wakefield, Kelly, Chapman and Donovan (2011) reported that parents believed food products were healthier and were more likely to purchase them when endorsed by athletes.

Brands utilise three levels to endorse their image to consumers which may vary due to the supposed recipient; corporate, local and individual franchise (Gronroos, 1990). It is likely that depending on the objective of sponsorship, brands will appear at these different levels. To achieve their goals, brands utilize various sources for their endorsement such as experts in the field, celebrities, CEOs or consumers. Which source is chosen, tends to be dictated by the intended effect on the consumer. For example, an intended effect might be to establish credibility in the minds of consumers (experts as endorsers), to attract attention to the market with little difference between the products (celebrities as endorsers) or to assure credibility (consumers as endorsers). Three other considerations that dictate the source selected for endorsement are: the level of perceived expertise; the personal motives of the source; and the degree of trust placed in the source. In instances when an athlete is used for brand endorsement, this may be achieved implicitly (when the athlete appears as the one using the product) or through co-presentation (when the athlete is associated with the product but does not necessarily use it), which results in attitude formation towards that brand.

1.1 Attitude formation

Attitude formation occurs as a result of pairings between potential attitude objects (conditioned stimuli) and stimuli (unconditioned stimuli), resulting in either positive or negative attitudes towards an object (Olson & Fazio, 2001). For example, fire might be paired with being burnt. Research examining the impact of pairing a conditioned and unconditioned stimuli can be used to explain how this classical conditioning may determine subsequent behaviour. The Elaboration Likelihood Model (Petty & Wegener, 1986) is a model of persuasion that has been used to explain attitude formation and maintenance. The model proposes two routes for processing information (central and peripheral). Processing through the central route is considered to be complex, involving a comprehensive analysis and incorporation of relevant information, which results in stronger attitudes (O'Brien, Puhl, Latner, Miro & Hunter, 2010). In contrast, processing through the peripheral route is considered to be less complex, resulting in weaker attitudes as they are influenced by superficial aspects of a given message such as the attractiveness and credibility of an object (O'Brien et al., 2010). Two integral mechanisms of the model that influences which of the routes information is processed through are motivation and ability. Individuals who have high motivation and an ability to process the information will use the central route as opposed to the peripheral route. If these central route requirements are not met, information is likely to be processed through the peripheral route.

The Elaboration Likelihood Model (Petty & Wegener, 1986) has also been used to explain attitude change by modifying existing attitudes, particularly in relation to media and advertisement exposure (e.g., Flint, Hudson & Lavalley, 2013). When attitude occurs through the central route and therefore the motivation and ability to process requirements are met, it is likely to cause long term attitude change (Petty & Cacioppo, 1979). Petty, Cacioppo and Schumann (1983) suggested that when information is processed through the peripheral route, persuasion will have a stronger effect, because diligence to a given source of information is not required and may occur as a result of a positive outcome or experience, or due to the credibility of the source of information, such as a nutritionist providing advice about food consumption (Petty et al., 1983). In this instance, influential individuals who may be perceived as role models such as sports personnel are likely to have greater influence in modifying existing attitudes than someone who is not admired to the same degree.

Finally, increasing the personal relevance of information and therefore eliciting a stronger connection with a given stimuli, has a greater likelihood of leading to attitude modification (Engel & Blackwell, 1982; Petty & Cacioppo, 1979). Petty et al. (1983) proposed that an inverse relationship exists between personal relevance and persuasion. Thus when personal relevance is low, greater persuasion is required, whereas persuasion is less important when personal relevance is high.

2. Statement of the problem

Due to the lifestyle of many people in today's society, consumption of unhealthy food and drink has become an important topic for examination. Empirical evidence demonstrates the unequivocal links between unhealthy consumption and ill health. Thus intervention to reduce unhealthy consumption is clearly warranted. However, there are copious amounts of evidence to demonstrate that unhealthy food and drink are promoted to the public through a variety of sources such as sport. In an attempt to build favourable attitudes and consumption of their products, brands of unhealthy food and drink use sport as a vehicle to achieve this due to the aura and often global interest of sport in society. For many young people who are socialised into engaging and following sport, there is an increased likelihood that they will not only develop favourable attitudes towards unhealthy consumption due to the alliances evident between sportspersons, teams and competitions with unhealthy consumption, but also a greater likelihood of consuming unhealthy food and drink as a consequence. Thus, should sportspersons, teams and competitions take more responsibility to promote and align themselves with brands that represent good health in line with the characterisation of sport?

3. Context

3.1 Sport sponsorship

There are five areas of sport sponsorship: sport team, athlete, broadcast and media, sport facility, and sport event or competition structure. Unhealthy products are prominent in all areas of sport sponsorship. In the USA, unhealthy brands dominate the sport sponsorship market. In 2011 PepsiCo, Inc. were ranked as the biggest contributor to sports sponsorship with an estimated spend of \$340M-\$345M. Unsurprisingly, their rival beverage company The Coca Cola Co. was ranked 2nd spending \$265M-\$270M. Other notable unhealthy consumption brands are listed in table 1, demonstrating the prevalence of such brands in sport sponsorship (IEG Sponsorship Report, 2012).

It should be noted that PepsiCo Inc.'s sponsorship activities are not restricted to the USA, having secured title sponsorship of the Indian Premier League (IPL) for five years 2012 -2017 at an approximate cost of \$71.77M. Cricket is a multinational sport, meaning it is played in a limited number of nations and has been perceived as not having a global appeal (Gupta, 2009). However, the recent creation of 20Twenty cricket has been the catalyst for the commercialisation of cricket and later the IPL which has strategically drawn on the successes of global sports marketing and modern technology to produce what is a national league with a body of international players (Gupta, 2009). The success of the IPL is due to a number of factors including India's huge sporting market of over a billion people, the advertising revenues from domestic sources as well as ticket sales and merchandizing, which have resulted in a profitable tournament. Annually, the IPL raises £1.8 billion is sponsorship, exceeding what the International Cricket Council (ICC) receives from two world cup cycles. Due to their sponsorship, PepsiCo Inc. benefit from reaching an international audience; 170 million Pakistanis, 153 million Bangladeshis, 21 million Sri Lankans and 29 million Nepalese make up the multinational demographic of the IPL's audience (Gupta, 2009).

3.2 Sports event sponsorship: the Olympic Games

The most high profile example of food and drink companies sponsoring major sporting events is the deal that exists between the Olympic Games and two of its most high profile sponsors; McDonalds Corp and The Coca Cola Co. These two companies have often been labelled as 'unhealthy consumption' companies in recent years yet they remain a dominant force in the sports sponsorship market. Indeed, at the most recent Olympic Games in London 2012, there was even a suggestion by the London Assembly to call for a ban on Olympic sponsors that produce high calorie food and beverages. The political statement came on the back of vociferous protests from health organisations that the celebration of athletic excellence is not the place to be tempting young people with Big Macs (Phillips, 2012). One of the most vocal critics of the International Olympic Committee (IOC) has been the Academy of Medical Royal Colleges, who argue that the presence of McDonalds Corp and The Coca Cola Co., both of which have exclusive rights to sell food and non-alcoholic beverages respectively, 'sends out the wrong message to children' (Phillips, 2012).

Despite the call for a ban by the London Assembly, this never materialised and both McDonalds Corp and The Coca Cola Co. had a significant presence at the London 2012 Olympic Games with the on-site McDonalds venue at the Olympic park being the largest in the world to date. Part of the reason why these two sponsors have such a considerable presence at the Olympic Games is due to them being one of The Olympic Partners (TOP). Indeed, without companies like McDonalds Corp and The Coca Cola Co. the Olympics Games would be under serious financial threat (Phillips, 2012). Cash generated by commercial partnerships accounts for more than 40% of Olympic revenues and the companies under fire have been two of the biggest contributors for a number of years. The Coca Cola Co. has sponsored every Olympic Games since 1928, making it the longest continuous partner of the Olympic Movement, whilst McDonalds Corp has been a partner since the Montreal Olympics in 1976. Incidentally, the Montreal Olympics is well documented to have been one of the reasons why the Olympic Games sought more sponsorship after the

financial collapse of the Canadian city post hosting the event. Furthermore, involvement of this magnitude comes at a substantial price. TOP sponsors are likely to pay around \$100m for a four-year commitment and sponsors typically spend three to four times the sponsorship amount to plan and execute the associated marketing campaigns. For example, according to the IOC, additional expenditure of advertising aside, revenue from TOP between 2005 and 2008 came to around \$866m, underlining how vital the program is to the Olympic Games (Phillips, 2012).

Both of these companies have had their say on their role at the Olympic Games. The Coca Cola Co. reports that of the drinks it sells at the Olympic and Paralympic Games 75% are water, juice or sugar-free drinks, whilst McDonalds Corp points to their healthier options (porridge, bagels and salads), suggesting that complex health issues such as obesity cannot be solved by companies alone.

Despite the underlying moral arguments surrounding the partnership between sport and typically 'unhealthy consumption' companies, given the financial benefits, it might be argued that the Olympic Games needs McDonalds Corp and The Coca Cola Co. more than they need the Olympics Games. This is further evidenced in today's modern society by the amount of individual sportsmen and sportswomen who endorse food and drink products alongside other products and services.

3.3 Sports athlete sponsorship: Subway Restaurants

A number of international sportsmen and sportswomen currently earn more money through endorsement deals than their playing salaries in their respective sports (Gallagher, 2012). Whilst there is a little doubt that this is a good deal from a business and personal welfare point of view for athletes, there has been increasing criticism in recent years that sports stars are attaching themselves (wrongly in many people's views) to unhealthy food or drink products. In the UK, health campaigners have called on the government to ban sports stars from promoting so called 'junk food', claiming that athletes are earning millions by fuelling childhood obesity (Gallagher, 2012). Recently, in the aftermath of London 2012, a number of Olympic medallists have signed lucrative deals with unhealthy consumption companies. For example, gymnast Louis Smith and boxer Anthony Ogogo are the new faces of a Subway Restaurants advertising campaign to 'encourage fans to train hard and eat fresh' by eating American-style 'submarine' soft baguettes.

Great Britain (GB) pole vaulter Holly Bleasdale and USA swimmer Michael Phelps (the most successful Olympian of all time) also promote 'low fat' subs from the chain, which has more than 1,500 outlets across the UK. However, there is little evidence, at this point, to suggest that sports stars actively practice what they preach (Gallagher, 2012). Furthermore, Michael Phelps states that his favourite sub is a foot-long meatball marinara, which gives him almost 1,000 calories with 36g of total fat, 14g of which is saturated. Including food that contains nutritional values such as this in a diet, might be fine for an athlete who needs to consume more than the average daily guidelines, but for the average individual this one meal would contain approximately half of the daily calories, total fat and saturates for an adult; Phelps consumes around 12,000 calories a day when in training to keep in peak physical condition in his profession. Malcolm Clarke, from the Children's Food Campaign (CFC) states that the huge discrepancy between sports stars calorie consumption compared to the average individual is a major problem in this type of marketing. Clarke also criticised fast food companies for their 'vague health promises' and has called for them to stop using sports stars to promote their products. He argues that companies such as Subway use 'clever marketing' and that their healthy pledges are intentionally vague and non-accountable. Clarke comments that if a Subway sandwich is chosen outside of the '5g of fat or less' range, it's likely to contain very high quantities of sugar and salt (Gallagher, 2012).

Subway itself defends its policies and says that it has reduced salt content by a third in recent years. Furthermore, the company has signed up to all four of the government's public health responsibility deal pledges to reduce salt and eliminate artificial trans fats, display calorie information on menu boards, and calorie reduction. Sales of low-fat subs have increased by 11% as at November 2012, however, the company declined to give figures regarding overall sales (Gallagher, 2012).

3.4 Sports team sponsorship: alcoholic beverages

A further trend in recent years has been the rise, and subsequent critique, of alcohol sponsors in sport and in particular in professional football. Previously, there was a debate about tobacco sponsorship in professional sport although this has become increasingly regulated in recent years. In the UK, tobacco advertising has been prohibited by law since 1989 (European Commission, 2012) and sponsorship of sporting events since 2003 (HM Government, 2002). In contrast, both alcohol advertising and non-advertising marketing in the UK are covered by self-regulated codes of practice. This is a topic which has been discussed in more detail in recent years particularly as excessive alcohol consumption and the associated negative health effects are a major public health concern. For instance, WHO (2011) reports that almost 4% of all deaths worldwide are attributable to alcohol. With this in mind, Graham and Adams (2013) examined the frequency of alcohol marketing (both formal commercials and otherwise) in televised top-class English professional football matches. They stated that the relationship between football and alcohol is symbiotic and that this is demonstrated by increasingly sophisticated marketing techniques. In Australia, 15% of all alcohol commercials and 20% of beer commercials on television linked alcohol to sports (Pettigrew, Roberts, Pescud, Chapman, Quester & Miller, 2012). The English Premier League (EPL), currently the most wealthy football league in the world, was sponsored by Carling lager (an alcohol brand) for the first 8 years of its existence. In fact, during the 2011-12 season 15 of the 20 teams in the EPL had alcohol brands as official sponsors (Graham and Adams, 2013). When analysing six broadcasts (total = 1101 minutes), Graham and Adams (2013) reported that visual alcohol references in televised top-class English football matches are common with an average of nearly two per minute during the 2011-12 season. Examples of alcohol brands sponsoring sports teams previously include Chelsea FC sponsored by Cools and Everton FC sponsored by Chang Beer. However, verbal references to alcohol are rare and formal alcohol commercials accounted for <1% of broadcast time (Graham and Adams, 2013). The authors concluded that restriction of all alcohol sports sponsorship, as seen for tobacco may be justified.

Smith (2009) supports this viewpoint, reporting that teenagers who wear football shirts with alcohol sponsors emblazoned across the front are more likely to binge drink. These findings are concerning and seem warranted despite no current regulations evident to restrict alcohol brands sponsoring football teams beyond not appearing on merchandize for children. It has been argued that the UK restrictions should become germane to those currently evident in France, where the Loi Evin bans all advertising of alcohol at French based events and alcohol advertisements are restricted at events involving France held within the country (Law in Sport, 2013). For example, in the France, the Heineken Cup (rugby union's flagship European competition) is known as the H cup due to the restriction on alcohol sponsorship.

It should also be noted that sponsorship of sport by unhealthy brands also occurs at a community and national level. Sport sponsorship at both elite and club levels has been found to influence children's attitudes to unhealthy products (Kelly et al., 2011; Kelly et al., 2012; Pettigrew, Rosenberg, Fergusson, Houghton & Wood, 2013). For example, Pukka Pies are the official team sponsors of Leicester Ladies Hockey Club (Britain's leading ladies hockey club). Leicester Hockey Club has teams from grass-roots to international players, with players aged from 7 years upwards, offering competitive hockey from local leagues up to National Premier League levels, winning the national title four times in seven years and making the final of the 2007 European Club Championships. Leicester Hockey Club were formerly called Leicester Fyffes and

played in blue and yellow of Fyffes bananas. However, due to a Pukka Pies sponsorship deal, the team colours were changed to reflect the Pukka Pie brand, reinforcing the brands association with the sport team. In certain instances, mixed messages for young people may be furthered by the clubs involvement in promoting other aspects of healthy living. For example, Nicola White a Leicester and Team GB player is an ambassador for the Leicestershire Scheme 'Balls to Stop' part of the NHS anti-smoking campaign ('Stop') and is promoted by nutrition consultant Hannah Macleod, Leicester and Team GB Bronze Medallist.

3.5 Sports facilities: Wembley stadium

Concerns regarding alcohol sponsorship aside, unhealthy brands are entwined with football at all levels, from grass roots, children's leagues, initiatives to encourage adults to return to the game, major competition structures, and national stadiums. The official sponsors and suppliers to Wembley Stadium are worryingly dominated by unhealthy brands; Carlsberg, Mars, Coca Cola Co. and Walkers Crisps. Additional non-consumption related sponsors include gambling site BetFred and The National Express.

Carlsberg have been in partnership with the Football Association (FA) since 2000. More recently, Carlsberg UK reached an agreement with Wembley Stadium as the 'Official Beer of Wembley Stadium' from 2010-2014 and are labelled as a 'founding partner' of the national stadium. Carlsberg has exclusive pouring rights and tickets to all the major events (sporting and music) held at the stadium. During an England international fixture at Wembley stadium, 5 million pints of Carlsberg can be sold in one day across the whole of the UK (Wembley Stadium, 2014). In 2010, Mars agreed to become the official confectionary, ice cream and chocolate supplier to Wembley Stadium. The FA and Mars Chocolate UK have a longstanding alliance with Mars labelled as the 'Official Supporter of the England Team' and Official Partner to the Just Play programme until July 2018. The Just Play programme was launched in June 2011 and aims to increase the numbers of adults playing football by enabling them to return to playing football. In addition, Mars UK have recruited Theo Walcott, Mars ambassador for The FA Mars Just Play programme. Since its inception in 2011 Just Play has created 200,000 adult places at Just Play kickabout sessions, opened over 200 Just Play centres nationwide and trained over 400 Just Play organisers. The FA claims their partnership with Mars UK is testament to the strength of The FA Partner Programme.

4. Implications

In alignment with the Elaboration likelihood Model (Petty & Wegener, 1986), the pairing of a brand with an athlete, sports team or sports competition is likely to result in the formation of an attitude towards that brand through association. If athletes such as David Beckham who may be perceived by consumers as a role model or major sporting competitions (e.g., the Olympics Games) endorse unhealthy consumption brands (e.g., PepsiCo Inc. or McDonalds Corp), there is a likelihood that the consumer will form favourable and potentially inaccurate attitudes towards these brands due to an association with what is usually perceived as a healthy life activity and that those engaging at the elite level represent the epitome of health. For example, Kelly, Baur, Bauman, King, Chapman and Smith (2011) reported that 85% of children believed that food and beverage brands sponsored sport to help out sports clubs and that 59% bought the brands products to return the favour. Another technique used by food and beverage companies to influence the formation of favourable attitudes towards their brands is to give out rewards or merchandise. For example, Kelly et al. (2011) reported that children who received vouchers and certificates from food and beverage brands had a greater likelihood of liking their products. Clearly given the influential role that sports athletes, clubs and competitions have on young people and children, and their social responsibility to endorse and promote healthy lifestyles, there is an ethical debate regarding whether an alignment with brands of unhealthy consumption should be permitted. Should sports athletes, clubs and competitions lead the way in not associating themselves with unhealthy living?

Whilst sponsors may argue that they are not intentionally targeting children and young people, there is an undeniable impact on the attitudes that young people and children form towards their brand. However, we would dispute this argument given evidence that brands have made conscious efforts to influence the consumer previously. For example, in the months leading up to the London Olympic Games 2012, McDonalds Corp included a '*stepometer*' in their happy meal product which as Pettigrew et al. (2013) states is likely to lead to confusion based on the association of an unhealthy product with a healthy lifestyle message.

From the perspective of brands for unhealthy consumptions, involvement in sport, given its aura as a reflection of health and wellbeing, can not only play a role in forming positive attitudes in young people, but also contribute to the modification of existing attitudes that may be unfavourable. It is also apparent that brands use sport as a vehicle to penetrate new markets. For example, it was previously reported that McDonalds Corp have sponsored a local ice hockey team in Canada that had an association with a children's clinic that developed a stronger brand association in the local community (Cousins & Slack, 1996). Thus brands may sponsor sports in an attempt at modifying previous unfavourable opinions of them and in other cases reach new markets as a means of attaining further public backing and increased sales of their products.

5. Conclusion

A number of questions have been identified in this article that require discussion given the potential implications of forming inaccurate attitudes about unhealthy consumption caused by brand endorsement through sport. The dissemination of sport to the masses is an ideal platform for the marketing of unhealthy consumption and it has become increasingly apparent that the financial gains made through brand endorsement has dictated that despite promoting an opposing lifestyle to what is akin to sport and therefore a healthy lifestyle, athletes and sports teams appear to be at the beckon call of these brands. There is an ethical debate about whether brands for unhealthy consumption should be endorsed and permitted to sponsor athletes, sports team and sports competitions given the likely associations. This is particularly important given that food marketing has now been acknowledged as a contributing factor to childhood obesity (WHO, 2006; Zimmermann, 2011). This article should serve as a catalyst for research examination into the impact of the contradictory association between sport and unhealthy consumption brands, and the modification of current sponsorship laws to prohibit brands of unhealthy consumption being endorsed through sport.

As alluded to in this article, the lack of restrictions for brand sponsorship in sport at different levels has led to the unparalleled alignment of sport with unhealthy consumption. Many implications exist and are being realised in today's society with the emergence of health complications associated with unhealthy consumption. Due to public interest and demand, sport will remain an influential source. Thus, we believe that sport can and more importantly should take a stance against unhealthy consumption brands to promote the missions of being active and following a healthy lifestyle. Sport can of course play a key role in modifying current attitudes to condition a more positive association with healthy consumption brands.

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Table 1: Sport sponsorship by unhealthy consumption brands

| Company | 2011 rank | Amount |
|--|------------------|---------------|
| PepsiCo Inc | 1st | \$340M-\$345M |
| The Coca Cola Co. | 2 nd | \$265M-\$270M |
| Anheuser-Busch In Bev | 3 rd | \$255M-\$260M |
| MillerCoors LLC | 8 th | \$135M-\$149M |
| Mars Inc. | 23 rd | \$45M-\$50M |
| Dr Pepper Snapple Group Inc. | 29 th | \$40M-\$45M |
| McDonalds Corp | 35 th | \$35M-\$40M |
| Yum Brands, Inc. (KFC, Pizza Hut, Taco Bell) | 40 th | \$35M-\$40M |
| Subway Restaurants | 70 th | \$20M-\$25M |
| Papa Johns International, Inc. | 71 st | \$20M-\$25M |
| The Hershey Co. | 86 th | \$15M-\$20M |

(IEG Sponsorship Report, 2012)