INCORPORATING:

FIFTH INTERNATIONAL EVENT MANAGEMENT RESEARCH CONFERENCE
6TH – 7TH JULY 2009

&

THIRD EVENT EDUCATION AND RESEARCH NETWORK AUSTRALASIA SYMPOSIUM
8TH JULY 2009

CONFERENCE THEME
Meeting the Challenge of Sustainable Development: How do public and corporate events engage with the global agenda?

VENUE:
Holiday Inn, Surfers Paradise, Australia

PRESENTED BY:
Australian Centre for Event Management, University of Technology, Sydney

ENDORSED BY:
The International Special Events Society (ISES) – Australasian Affiliate
The theme chosen for the Conference is Meeting the Challenge of Sustainable Development: How do public and corporate events engage with the global agenda? This theme was selected in recognition of the greatly expanded focus on the linkage between events and the broad area of sustainable development in recent years. Events also have the potential to act as agents for creating environmental awareness and knowledge, as well as attitude and behaviour change. This is reflected in the myriad of environment based festivals and other events that now take place within Australia and internationally.

The Conference format will involve keynote presentations by local and international presenters based around this theme, as well as workshops, seminars and case studies. It will also include a number of more general topics associated with event management.

The Conference provides an excellent opportunity to discuss and exchange ideas with leaders in the Australian and international event industry, and with established researchers in the field.

Following on from the Conference, a one-day Symposium will be conducted exploring issues associated with education and training in the events field. The Symposium will feature international and local perspectives, as well as the latest developments in event related teaching and learning resources.

These Proceedings contain refereed papers that have been subjected to a double blind refereeing process conducted by academic peers with specific expertise in the key themes and research orientation of the papers. They also contain working papers that have been reviewed by the conference committee.

Australian spelling has been applied throughout the editing process, and grammar and expression have been standardised whilst making every effort to respect the content and integrity of the papers.

The Conference committee hopes that these Proceedings will serve to strengthen the foundations of the rapidly emerging field of event studies, and takes great pleasure in recommending the Proceedings of the Conference and Symposium to you.

John Allen AM
Foundation Director
Australian Centre for Event Management
University of Technology, Sydney
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PROGRESSING EVENT EVALUATION: GLOBAL TRENDS AND INDICATORS FOR TRIPLE BOTTOM LINE REPORTING

Carmel Foley and Katie Schlenker
University of Technology, Sydney

Abstract

This paper reviews local and international literature on event impact evaluation, examining current developments and best practice in event evaluation tools and approaches. Literature on event impacts in economic, social and environmental dimensions identifies potential indicators to support event evaluation tools. These, in turn, have different application at organisational, regional, national or global scales. From this review can be drawn guidelines and protocols for specific event evaluations at a variety of scales.

Acknowledgement

This paper draws on background literature in support of a research project funded by Australia’s Sustainable Tourism Cooperative Research Centre (STCRC). Permission to publish this article is gratefully acknowledged.
CONTINUAL IMPROVEMENT OF AN EVENT:
AN EVALUATION OF THE 2007 AND 2008 ‘ONE EARTH’
FESTIVALS

Paul Fallon
University of Salford,
Salford, England

Paul Hyde
Independent Researcher

Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to demonstrate how evaluation contributes to the continual improvement of an event. The One Earth Festival, held in Chester (UK), provides the context for the study. One Earth is an annual summer celebration aimed at raising awareness of environmental issues through a variety of art and environmental activities. This study compares the findings from two visitor surveys undertaken in 2007 and 2008. In total 208 questionnaires were completed by the leaders of individual visitor groups during the event. SPSS Version 16.0 was used for the statistical analysis of the data. A series of t-tests enabled a comparison of visitor opinions, attitudes and satisfaction relating to the Festival over the two years to be made. The main findings are that product improvements made to the 2008 Festival as a direct result of visitor feedback in 2007 were generally successful. However, results also emphasise that there are opportunities for further improvements to the Festival, and that evaluation is important in helping identify these. One of these main opportunities relates to the environmental legacy of the festival (through improved learning and adoption of practical measures by attendees). Overall, the study firmly establishes the important, multi-faceted and ongoing contribution of visitor evaluation in the event management process.

Key words:
Evaluation, event management process, environmental theme

INTRODUCTION

Event evaluation is becoming increasingly important for a number of reasons, including: the growth of the events sector and the subsequent need to establish its legitimacy; the economic significance of events; the utilisation of resources invested in events; and interest in the wider legacy of events (Carlsen, Getz & Soutar, 2000; Getz, 2007; Allen, O’Toole, Harris & McDonnell, 2008). Indeed, given the possibility of scarcer resources and investment as a direct result of the economic downturn, it is likely that evaluation will assume even greater importance in the future.

Event evaluation essentially represents the process of critically observing, measuring and monitoring the implementation of an event in order to assess its outcomes.
accurately’ (Allen et al, 2008, p.530). Additionally, as a process whereby ‘insights are gained, lessons are learnt and events are perfected’ (Bowdin, Allen, O’Toole, Harris & McDonnell, 2006, p.412), evaluation occupies a more strategic role as an aid to future planning and quality improvement. Clearly, the potential insights and lessons learnt from one event are not limited to repeat deliveries of the same event but may also be more widely beneficial to the growing events community. Despite this potential, research in this area generally remains unpublished, with most published research relating to the economic outcomes of events (Williams & Bowdin, 2003). Admittedly, this is not surprising given the significance of the economic dimension of events, and in particular the investment of resources and related opportunity cost issues. Getz (2005), supporting the ‘triple bottom line’ approach (Allen et al, 2008), emphasises that social, cultural and environmental outcomes that potentially aid the development of society in general should also be considered. Numerous researchers e.g. Bourdeau, De Coster & Paradis (2001), Getz, O’Neill & Carlsen (2001), Taylor & Shanka (2002), Weiler, Truong & Griffiths (2004) and Taylor (2006) highlight the experiential dimension of events, advocating the evaluation of the customer satisfaction and service quality characteristics of events. However, to date there has been little acknowledgement of how the results from such studies are used to aid future planning and quality improvement.

Admittedly, barriers may hinder or prevent such an event evaluation process from taking place. These barriers may relate specifically to the organisation, such as lack of time and/or resources to carry out effective evaluation (Carlsen et al, 2000; Williams & Bowdin, 2007) or even complex research approval procedures. Other barriers may be more operational, for example difficulties in collecting data from visitors during or after an event. Clearly, in view of its wide-ranging significance, the resource implications of event evaluation need to be considered at the outset of the project. Given such constraints, it may not be practical or possible to evaluate every aspect of an event, resulting in the need for choices to be made regarding the focus of evaluation. Indeed, this may explain the limitations in published research to date.

Consequently, the purpose of this paper is to add to the extant literature by demonstrating how event evaluation of visitor satisfaction and opinions contributes both to the assessment of event outcomes and the future event planning process, as well as giving an indication of how well the intended legacy of an event has been achieved.

**The One Earth Festival**

The context for this study is the One Earth Festival. The One Earth Festival is an annual event held in July in Grosvenor Park, which is located in the centre of the city of Chester (in the North West England region of the UK). Reflecting the general recent growth of events with explicit environmental themes (Getz, 2007), the event is a celebration designed to raise environmental awareness through a variety of activities related to arts, music, crafts, science & technology and fun. Its key aim is to help the public – especially families - learn about and engage with environmental issues, and thereby help to reduce their impact. The Festival is organised by a range of partners, including Cheshire Wildlife Trust and Chester City Council, with funding provided
from a number of sources, including external sponsorship. Entrance to One Earth is free, although a variety of opportunities exist for visitors to spend money during the Festival, for example on certain charged activities and on food & drink. Consequently, the desired event outcomes are environmental, socio-cultural and economic in nature, and potentially extend beyond the Festival given its location in the city centre park.

The Festival is mainly targeted at families. Entertainment and activities consistent with its main themes are provided by a variety of organisations, most of whom are local. These organisations include: Cheshire Wildlife Trust; Chester Zoo; Corio Raptors (a charity caring for ill-treated birds); Friends of the Earth; Chester Cyclists Campaign; Chester Canal Heritage Trust; Riverside Organic (selling organic hot food); and a variety of local artists and performers. Participants are grouped together and operate from a number of designated marquees (with 2008 titles): ‘Wildlife Safari’; ‘Live Lightly’; ‘Rescued Raptors’; ‘Eco Adventure’; and ‘Green Grub’; as well as a ‘Performance Arena’.

Significantly, no formal feedback had been obtained from visitors to One Earth prior to 2007. Consequently, two visitor surveys were implemented during the 2007 and 2008 Festivals to establish a profile of visitors and to investigate visitor behaviour, opinions and satisfaction relating to the Festival. The results of the 2007 survey – especially strengths/weaknesses identified via both the closed and open question responses - were used by the Festival organisers following an initial debriefing and subsequently during the planning and development of the 2008 Festival. For example, low mean ratings for the statement ‘It’s been easy to find out what’s on and where at One Earth’ and advertising-related comments in responses to the open-ended question ‘What if anything could be improved about the Festival?’ (e.g. ‘No posters in the park beforehand’ and ‘Better publicity and better information regarding what’s on and where’) were addressed in improvements to the promotional effort in 2008. In terms of the product offer, a ‘Performance Arena’ was added to provide live entertainment for visitors in 2008, whilst the 2007 main ‘wow’ factor (‘Rescued Raptors’ marquee) was retained. Low 2007 satisfaction ratings and suggested improvements relating to more operational components such as toilet facilities, provision of both food & drink and places to sit & eat (e.g. ‘Somewhere to sit and eat’, ‘Food and drink – will go back to Chester to eat’, ‘Indoor seating to eat, drink and relax) were also acknowledged; this was especially important given their potential influence on visitor expenditure and length of stay. Consequently, a dedicated food & drink marquee - ‘Green Grub’ – was added in 2008. Figure 1 gives further details of these and other improvements. These improvements can also be seen within the context of the Ansoff Matrix (Ansoff, 1957) – see Appendix 1.
MAIN BODY

Literature Review

Event evaluation is an ongoing process taking place throughout the life of an event, with three key phases: pre-event, during the event and post-event (Allen et al, 2008). Pre-event evaluation considers the feasibility of the event; monitoring and control takes place during the event and enables necessary adjustments to be made; and post-event evaluation involves the measurement of outcomes and possible improvements to future events.

Post-event evaluation is the most popular form of evaluation (Bowdin et al, 2006), probably reflecting its wider implications beyond the event itself. Its main functions include:

- Creating a profile of the event audience
- Measuring the outcomes of the event i.e. against the mission and objectives
- Establishing the strengths and weaknesses of the event and identifying subsequent areas for improvement
- Investigating the actual and potential legacy of the event
- Evaluating the event management process
- Facilitating the debriefing of key participants and stakeholders
- Contributing to organisations’ ongoing planning and management processes.

(After Faulkner, 1997; Van Der Wagen, 2001; Williams & Bowdin, 2003; Shone &
Post-event evaluation helps to ‘build up a picture’ of the event which can be shared with key stakeholders and used in future planning and decision-making (Woolf, 2004; Taylor, 2006; Allen et al, 2008). Ultimately, it ‘feeds observations and information back into the event management cycle, leading to a process of continual improvement’ (Allen et al, 2008, p.535). This process has been summarised by Allen et al’s (2008) event management process model (see Appendix 2), and clearly lies at the heart of other related management models such as Deming’s Management Cycle (Walton & Deming, 1986). Figure 2 illustrates how the evaluation of the Festival, and the visitor survey in particular, sit within the Deming Cycle as a process for continual improvement and learning.

**Figure 2.**
**Evaluation of the Festival within the Context of the Deming Cycle**

![Deming Cycle Diagram]

Source: Adapted from Deming’s Management Cycle (Walton & Deming, 1986)

Whilst post-event evaluation commonly incorporates a survey of the event participants and/or audience, for example in order to explore their opinions and satisfaction with the event (Bowdin et al, 2006), given the range of stakeholders in an event ‘it is realistic to assume that a number of approaches or methods can be used to provide a complete picture’ (Taylor, 2006: 181). For example, in their study of UK local authority event-based tourism, Thomas & Wood (2003) identified visitor feedback/surveys as the most common means of evaluation. This emphasis on the visitor is logical given that organisations need to closely monitor public acceptance of the content of events to ensure that it is still congruent with the needs of contemporary society and, ultimately to avoid failure or decline (Bowdin et al, 2006), and especially when there is growing competition for the public’s time and money together with
greater emphasis on accountability in terms of investment decision-making. Emphasising the multi-dimensional nature of post-event evaluation, Ralston, Ellis, Compton & Lee (2007) used ‘mystery shopper’ observations and interviews with both staff and patrons in order to investigate the event experience in more depth. The evaluation can be repeated each year to enable a comparison of successive events, to establish trends and/or to develop the event further (Taylor, 2006; Allen et al, 2008). This longitudinal approach is clearly consistent with the continual improvement philosophy.

Taylor’s (2006) consideration of - amongst other variables - visitor profiles, motivations and satisfaction in relation to the ‘Spring in the Valley’ wine festival in Western Australia from 1999 to 2003 represents one of the few published longitudinal event evaluation studies of its type. The findings relating to visitor satisfaction are especially interesting, although no direct statistical comparison was possible due to data collection refinement over the length of the study. They indicate that management attention to previously under-performing event features can improve visitor satisfaction with these features. Furthermore, resulting benefits from these improvements are not limited to the ‘Spring in the Valley’ festival but also affect the wine tourism destination as a whole (Taylor, 2006). Crucially, the study also emphasises the need for ongoing event improvement, since other key features suffered a decline in satisfaction in the same period.

**METHOD**

Two questionnaire surveys were undertaken with visitors to the One Earth Festival – one each in July 2007 and July 2008. In 2008, a further dimension was added to the evaluation of the event via a participant survey, although the findings are not discussed here. The overall approach gained approval from Chester City Council’s Research Standards Panel. The main overall aims of the surveys were:

- to create a profile of visitors to the One Earth Festival
- to investigate visitor behaviour, opinions and satisfaction relating to the Festival to inform future planning and development
- to obtain visitor feedback on improvements made in 2008 (in response to the 2007 findings)
- to investigate the environmental legacy of the One Earth Festival.

**Survey Instrument**

The 2007 and 2008 visitor questionnaires were identical in terms of the type of questions asked relating to behaviour, opinions, satisfaction and personal details, which enabled a comparison of the two years to be made. However, and reflecting the observation that no two festivals are the same (Taylor, 2006), some of the actual content of 2008 questionnaire was updated from 2007; the reasons for this were mainly related to changes to the Festival offer compared to 2007. The structure of the questionnaires followed well established recommendations on questionnaire design e.g. Orams and Page (2000) and Hill and Alexander (2000).
The self-completed questionnaires comprised mainly closed questions. Five-point scales were used to elicit visitors’ opinions, satisfaction and future behavioural intention relating to One Earth. For example, levels of satisfaction were measured on a scale anchored at ‘1 = Very Dissatisfied’ and ‘5 = Very Satisfied’. Respondents were also offered the opportunity to opt out via either ‘Don’t Know’ or ‘Didn’t Experience’ options (after Orams and Page, 2000). The questions were informed by discussions with the One Earth Festival organisers as well as the relevant literature. For example, Getz (2007) identifies atmosphere, organisation and weather as three key event attractiveness factors, whilst Bowdin et al (2006) and Taylor (2006) acknowledge the importance of more basic features such as information/signage, catering facilities and toilets. Consequently, these features were all incorporated into the questionnaires. The environmental theme of One Earth was also acknowledged via a number of questions designed to explore the Festival’s ‘personal outcomes’ legacy (after Getz, 2007). Open questions were also included in the questionnaire to find out what visitors liked best about the Festival and how they would like to see it improved. As in Taylor’s (2006) study, these represented a critical component of the questionnaire, especially in terms of both contextualising and supplementing the quantitative data generated.

### Sample and Data Collection

In total, 208 questionnaires were completed over both years – 111 in 2007 and 97 in 2008. In both surveys, visitors attending the Festival were invited to take and complete the questionnaire in their own time using two different approaches. In the more active method, the research team moved around the Festival site approaching visitors to complete the questionnaire at various key nodes on the site (after Taylor, 2006). In the more passive method, representatives from Cheshire Wildlife Trust working at the Information Point invited visitors who called to the Point to complete the questionnaire. These methods were chosen as the most practical in the circumstances, especially given that there were no formal entrance or exit points to the Festival; this was mainly due to its location in a local park, unlike other related studies where visitor entrance/exit was more formally monitored e.g. Crompton and Love (1995). This ‘open access’ also meant that it was not possible to directly measure attendance at the Festival, admittedly a basic piece of event information (Getz, 2005). Crude estimates by the Festival organisers suggested possible numbers of 2000 visitors in 2007 and 5000 in 2008.

As recommended by Allen et al (2008), it was found useful to clearly articulate to respondents the purpose of the survey. Consequently, very few of those visitors approached were unwilling to participate in the survey, although no specific formal record of refusals was kept. If a group, as is normal with this type of event (Ryan, 1995), the ‘lead’ member was asked if they would be willing to complete the questionnaire, on the basis that he/she represented the key decision-maker in the group (after Beaman, 2003). Respondents returned the completed questionnaires either to the members of the research team who had originally distributed them around the site or to the Information Point. In total over the two years, the response
rate was almost 60 per cent i.e. the number of returned questionnaires compared to those handed out.

Whilst not a main focus of this paper (although a main focus of the surveys from the organisers’ perspective), some brief consideration of the profile and behaviours of respondents for both years is useful in providing some context for the findings, especially the comparison of the findings relating to visitors’ opinions, satisfaction and future behavioural intention. Overall, visitor profiles for both years were very similar, and indicate that the main family target market was being reached:

- Most respondents (65 per cent in 2007; 64 per cent in 2008) were from the local area
- Almost half of respondents (50 per cent in 2007; 48 per cent in 2008) had been to the One Earth at least once before
- Almost all were accompanied by at least one other person (93 per cent in 2007; 96 per cent in 2008), and more than half (56 per cent) were accompanied by children in 2007, compared with more than two thirds (70 per cent) in 2008 – this indicates that the main target market was attending the Festival
- More than three quarters of respondents (80 per cent) planned to stay at the Festival for two hours or more in 2008, compared with just less than two thirds (60 per cent) in 2007 – this represents a key success for the 2008 festival
- There were the same three most popular motivations for visiting One Earth i.e. ‘especially to attend the Festival’, ‘something to do with family and friends’ and ‘been before and enjoyed it’ in both 2007 and 2008, although the order of popularity was slightly different
- There were the same three most popular information sources i.e. ‘newspapers/magazines’, ‘just passing by’ and ‘friends/relatives’ in both 2007 and 2008, although the order of popularity was slightly different – this possibly reflects the changes made to the promotional effort in 2008.

**Data Analysis**

The data was analysed using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) Version 16.0. Whilst the limited sample size prevented more sophisticated statistical analysis, independent-samples t-tests were used to compare the 2007 and 2008 mean ratings of respondents in terms of their opinions, satisfaction and future behavioural intention relating towards One Earth. Independent-samples t-tests were used, given that the respondents for the 2007 and 2008 surveys represented two different groups (as per Pallant, 2001), notwithstanding the similarity of their profiles. As is common with visitor perception/satisfaction studies undertaken at successful events (Ryan, 1995), the continuous data gained via the scales was skewed towards a set of positive responses.
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results

Table 1
Opinions about the 2008 One Earth Festival

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<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>DS</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>AS</th>
<th>DK</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One Earth is a good event for kids</td>
<td>4.79</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One Earth is an important event that should be held annually in Chester</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grosvenor Park is an ideal setting for One Earth</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One Earth is a good event to bring friends and family to</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One Earth has felt a safe place to visit</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One Earth has been well organised</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One Earth is a fun-filled event</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One Earth is a good place to learn about how to help the environment</td>
<td>4.53</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One Earth offers something for everyone</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One Earth 2008 has been easy to get to</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One Earth 2008 is colourful</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One Earth has inspired me/us to do more things to help protect the environment</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I/we have learnt some things to personally do to help protect the environment</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It’s been easy to find out what’s on and where at One Earth 2008</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One Earth is a good event to visit no matter the weather</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

DS = Disagree Strongly, D = Disagree, N = Neither, A = Agree, AS = Agree Strongly, DK = Don’t Know

Respondents were asked to rate their levels of agreement with a range of statements relating to different aspects of the One Earth Festival. These statements provide a more general visitor evaluation of the Festival, as well as indicating its environmental legacy. Table 1 provides a list of the fifteen statements presented to respondents in 2008, together with respondents’ responses in terms of levels of dis/agreement. Overall, the findings indicate positive visitor opinions about the One Earth Festival in 2008. Interestingly, the relatively lower ratings relating to environmental legacy are arguably disappointing given the main theme of the Festival, indicating that it does not represent the ‘transforming’ experience anticipated (after Getz, 2007).

Since only fourteen of these statements presented to respondents in 2008 were identical to those presented in 2007, t-tests were subsequently only carried out on these fourteen statement ratings. There were statistically significant differences (p<0.05) between levels of agreement from 2007 and 2008 on eight of these aspects (57 per cent) – see Table 2. With the exception of ‘One Earth is a good event to visit no matter the weather’, levels of agreement in 2008 were higher than in 2007. Whilst levels of agreement for five of the other six statements were also higher in 2008 than in 2007, these were not statistically significant (p>0.05).
Table 2
Opinions about the One Earth Festival - Significant Differences between 2007 and 2008

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Significance Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One Earth is a good event to visit no matter the weather</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>3.429</td>
<td>p&lt;0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One Earth is colourful</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>-4.267</td>
<td>p&lt;0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There seems to be something for everyone</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>-4.041</td>
<td>p&lt;0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One Earth is fun</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>-4.219</td>
<td>p&lt;0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One Earth has been well-organised</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>-3.798</td>
<td>p&lt;0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One Earth is a good event to bring friends/family to</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>-2.779</td>
<td>p&lt;0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One Earth is a good event for kids</td>
<td>4.59</td>
<td>4.79</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>-2.857</td>
<td>p&lt;0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One Earth has felt a safe place to visit</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>-2.224</td>
<td>p&lt;0.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents were asked to rate their levels of satisfaction with a range of individual Festival attributes; as such these ratings provide more specific evaluations, especially in terms of products and services available. Table 3 provides a list of the fourteen attributes presented in the 2008 survey, together with corresponding respondents’ ratings. Again, the results indicate positive perceptions of the Festival overall, with only 21 (less than 2 per cent) total dissatisfaction ratings (Very Dissatisfied and Dissatisfied).

Table 3
Satisfaction with Features of the 2008 One Earth Festival

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>VD</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>S</th>
<th>VS</th>
<th>DE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arts and crafts workshops</td>
<td>4.59</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value for money</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance Arena</td>
<td>4.53</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The variety of things to see and do</td>
<td>4.48</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wildlife Safari marquee</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rescued Raptors marquee</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eco-adventure marquee</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Live Lightly marquee</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of food and drink available</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Places to sit and relax generally</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Green Grub marquee</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Places to sit to eat food and drink</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selection of food and drink available</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Toilet facilities</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>453</td>
<td>517</td>
<td>113</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

VS = Very Dissatisfied, D = Dissatisfied, N = Neither, S = Satisfied, VS = Very Satisfied, DE = Didn’t Experience

A series of t-tests were only carried out on the ratings of attributes (n=10) presented to respondents in both the 2007 and 2008 surveys to enable a direct comparison to be made. For example, and as already indicated in the preceding discussion, this was not possible with the ‘Performance Arena’ since this feature was introduced for the first time in 2008. Table 4 identifies the eight attributes (80 per cent) for which there were statistically significant differences in 2007 and 2008. In all eight cases, levels of satisfaction in 2008 were statistically significantly higher than in 2007. Levels of
satisfaction were also higher in 2008 for the two other Festival features not included in Table 4, but these did not reach statistical significance (p>0.05).

### Table 4

Satisfaction with Features of One Earth - Significant Differences between 2007 and 2008

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Significance Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eco-adventure marquee</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>-5.352</td>
<td>p&lt;0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts and crafts workshops</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>4.59</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>-4.714</td>
<td>p&lt;0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The variety of things to see and do</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>4.48</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>-4.062</td>
<td>p&lt;0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Live Lightly marquee</td>
<td>4.02*</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>-3.454</td>
<td>p&lt;0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selection of food and drink available</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>-4.369</td>
<td>p&lt;0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of food and drink available</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>-5.042</td>
<td>p&lt;0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Places to sit and eat food and drink</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>-6.374</td>
<td>p&lt;0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Places to sit and relax generally</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>-6.822</td>
<td>p&lt;0.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The 2008 Live Lightly marquee combined two marquees from the 2007 One Earth Festival i.e. Sustainable Communities and Global Dimensions (2007 means of 4.02 and 4.00 respectively)

Tables 5 and 6 indicate respondents’ overall satisfaction with, and behavioural intention following, the 2008 Festival. These are consistent with respondents’ opinions towards, and satisfaction with, individual features of the Festival. Indeed, the overall satisfaction mean rating is the highest of the fifteen satisfaction measures (including both individual features and overall satisfaction) presented to respondents in total in the questionnaire.

### Table 5

Overall Satisfaction with the 2008 One Earth Festival

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>VD</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>S</th>
<th>VS</th>
<th>DK</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall Satisfaction with One Earth 2008</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

VS = Very Dissatisfied, D = Dissatisfied, N = Neither, S = Satisfied, VS = Very Satisfied, DK = Don’t Know

### Table 6

Behavioural Intention Following the 2008 One Earth Festival

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>VU</th>
<th>U</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>L</th>
<th>VL</th>
<th>DK</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood of recommending One Earth to others</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood of returning to One Earth next year</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

VU = Very Unlikely, U = Unlikely, N = Neither, L = Likely, VL = Very Likely, DK = Don’t Know

Table 7 shows that the 2008 ratings for overall satisfaction and likelihood of recommending were statistically significantly (p<0.05) higher than in 2007. The 2008 ratings for likelihood of returning were also higher than 2007, although there was no statistically significant difference between them (p>0.05).
Table 7
Overall Satisfaction with the One Earth Festival - Significant Differences between 2007 and 2008

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Significance Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall Satisfaction with One Earth</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>-5.514</td>
<td>p&lt;0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood of recommending One Earth</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>-2.043</td>
<td>p&lt;0.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

Overall, the results paint an encouraging picture, indicating that visitors to One Earth Festivals in both 2007 and 2008 generally had positive perceptions of the Festival. A comparison of the results from 2007 and 2008 consistently indicates more positive opinions of, attitudes towards and satisfaction with One Earth in 2008 than in 2007. Whilst admittedly four different measurement scales are used, it is interesting to note that the 2008 ratings are higher than 2007 for twenty-six of the twenty-seven variables compared, and they are also statistically significantly higher for seventeen of nineteen variables.

The comparisons relating to satisfaction with both pull features and operational features of One Earth illustrate that specific improvements made to the Festival as a result of feedback initially gained in 2007 have benefited the overall visitor experience. For example, Table 4 shows significant increases in satisfaction in terms of the overall offer i.e. ‘The variety of things to see and do’ as well as individual attractions e.g. ‘Eco-Adventure’ marquee (which had both more and new activities). Additionally, the open-ended comments relating to favourite aspects of the Festival (e.g. ‘Atmosphere, bands, picnic and stuff for kids’, ‘The variety, the performances – can see things here that I would not have seen elsewhere’ and ‘Variety of crafts and music’) not only highlight that product augmentation, including provision of the ‘Performance Arena’, has also been successfully implemented, but also shows how this has contributed to the overall festival experience.

Improvements related to more basic needs i.e. food & drink provision and associated facilities have also made a difference. Levels of satisfaction with all three attributes relating to food & drink included in the survey were significantly higher in 2008. Interestingly, however, these improvements still arguably represent ‘work in progress’, since they have left a number of 2008 visitors dissatisfied. Some of the reasons for this dissatisfaction were identified in the 2008 responses to the ‘How would you improve the Festival?’ open question, which highlighted that the new provision did not cater appropriately for vegetarians and also did not offer well located waste recycling facilities. Arguably, these concerns are not surprising given the environmental theme of the event and the likelihood of its particular appeal to vegetarian visitors. Ultimately, and as in Taylor’s (2006) study, they emphasise the ongoing ‘journey’ of the continual improvement process. Furthermore, these results and comments also emphasise the importance of food & drink in the visitor experience, notwithstanding their potentially greater significance to Festival organizers as a larger revenue stream. Whilst it is not directly evident from the
findings, it can be suggested that the improvements related to food & drink may also have increased the dwell time of visitors at the Festival (with twenty per cent more people staying for two hours or more in 2008 than in 2007), for example, since some respondents in 2007 indicated that they had to leave Festival to go in search of food in Chester city centre.

It should be acknowledged that there may have been other influential factors on the more positive visitor perceptions in 2008. For example, the improved weather (sunnier and warmer) in 2008 may well have been a contributory factor, and is supported by responses to the ‘What did you like best about the Festival?’ open question (e.g. ‘Today’s weather and pleasant atmosphere’ and ‘Great weather’). Further support for this notion comes from the significant difference in respondents’ opinions relating to the ‘One Earth is a good event to visit no matter the weather’ statement also (see Table 2). Additionally, the increased number of responses from family groups (groups with children) in 2008 than in 2007 may also have been influential, as is suggested by the significantly higher ratings for statement such as ‘One Earth is a good event to bring friends/family to’ and ‘One Earth is a good event for kids’ (again, see Table 2). However, this is clearly welcome news given that this represents the Festival’s key target market. Clearly, ongoing survey research and/or more in-depth qualitative research in future would illuminate this issue further.

Given the environmental theme of the Festival, it is interesting that those opinions relating to personal environmental outcomes i.e. ‘One Earth has inspired me/us to do more things to help protect the environment’ and ‘I/we have learnt some things to personally do to help protect the environment’ represent some of the lowest means (both 3.98 in 2008), in relative terms, on the opinion scale (see Table 1). Admittedly, it should be noted ‘agree’ still represents the most frequently occurring response in both cases. Although no comparison could be made regarding the former statement because it was new to the 2008 survey, the lack of statistically significant difference (p>0.05) between 2008 and 2007 ratings for the latter learning-related statement suggests a similarly low outcome in the previous year also. In effect, and notwithstanding difficulties in measuring impacts of this type and also limitations in the data, this may indicate a trend with regard to this aspect of One Earth and, consequently, these results arguably raise doubts about the ultimate legacy of the Festival. In contrast, ‘One Earth is a good place to learn about things we can do to help the environment’ achieved a higher ranking and rating in both the 2007 (mean=4.43) and 2008 (mean=4.53) surveys, with no significant difference (p>0.05) between the two years. Perhaps this shows that attendees feel that One Earth helps raise awareness (particularly through fun and for children) and has the potential to change behaviour, but the offer in 2007 and 2008 has not actually helped with practical or inspiring measures to do so. Clearly more research is necessary to investigate this further. Emphasising the continual nature of the event improvement process, these results suggest that this particular aspect of the Festival, which has not so far really been considered by Festival organisers, needs much greater attention. For example, it may be useful to include the delivery of a stronger environmental message via a vibrant guest speaker in the popular ‘Performance Arena’. Importantly, the event would also benefit from examining other environmental aspects to improve its direct environmental performance e.g. through an environmental review of its
activities (Hyde and Reeve, 2009) as well as measures to influence transport choice for visitors, participants and suppliers.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The findings from this study provide empirical evidence of the benefits of carrying out post-event evaluation, as suggested by a number of authors e.g. Faulkner (1997), Van Der Wagen (2001), Williams & Bowdin (2003), Shone & Parry (2004), Silvers (2004), Woolf (2004), Bowdin et al (2006), Getz (2007) and Allen et al (2008), in order to aid future event planning and decision-making. Via both the 2007 and 2008 surveys, One Earth Festival organisers now have a clear idea of their audience and are aware of the strengths and weaknesses of the event, i.e. they now have a ‘picture’ from which to work. As a result of the 2007 survey, necessary recognisable improvements have been made to various aspects of the festival, including both ‘wow’ as well as operational features. However, the findings from both surveys also suggest that the environmental legacy of the Festival, i.e. in terms of personal learning and inspiring visitors to do things to help the environment, requires further consideration. Further detailed attention also needs to be paid to the Festival’s food & drink offer, for example in terms of its variety.

Ultimately, as with any repeat event, the One Earth Festival has ongoing opportunities for year-on-year improvement, and the potential contribution of evaluation to the development of future Festivals has been firmly established. Indeed, the very implementation of a survey, and especially the consideration of its findings in post-event debriefings, has had a galvanising effect in terms of creating a culture for improvement amongst the Festival’s various organisers.

Finally, on a technical note, the benefits of including both open questions in event surveys of this type have also been re-emphasised, especially in terms of contextualising quantitative data. Clearly further research, and possibly more in-depth qualitative research, would be useful to One Earth Festival organisers in investigating the issues raised by survey work to date more thoroughly and effectively.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The authors would like to acknowledge help and support from Jan Shone and Virginia Hunt (Cheshire Wildlife Trust) and Bev Wilson (Chester City Council: Research and Intelligence) together other members of the One Earth Steering Group and volunteers at the festival.
REFERENCES


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### Appendix 1
An Ansoff's Matrix Analysis of One Earth Festival Developments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Current Products</th>
<th>New Products</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Market Penetration</strong></td>
<td><strong>Product Development</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Families</td>
<td>- Green Grub (marquee)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Birds of Prey (Rescued Raptors)</td>
<td>- Performance Arena</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Wildlife Safari</td>
<td>- Enhanced 'Out &amp; About' (Eco-Adventures) marquee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Live lightly (Sustainability / Global Dimensions) Marquees</td>
<td>- Zoo stand in Wildlife Safari</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Promotion and Publicity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>New Markets</th>
<th>Current Markets</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Market Development</strong></td>
<td><strong>Diversification</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- same weekend as Raft Race &amp; Amphitheatre event provided opportunity for new footfall</td>
<td>- Signing choir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- promotion at Zoo</td>
<td>- Asian band</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Ansoff (1957)

### Appendix 2
The Event Management Process

- **Planning**
  (based on objectives and research)

- **Evaluation**
  (based on observation, feedback and surveys)

- **Implementation**
  (of the event plan)

Source: Allen et al, 2008, p.535
THE INFLUENCE OF TRADE MEDIA ON GREENING IN THE BUSINESS EVENTS INDUSTRY

Judith Mair and Leo Jago
Victoria University.

Abstract

Agenda setting theory in the media suggests that differential media emphasis (such as frequency of coverage, length of coverage and coverage content) communicates to the public an agenda of which issues are most important. It is proposed that the extent and type of media coverage of climate change and sustainability in the trade press may be contributing to setting a ‘greening’ agenda for those working in the business events sector. A sample of articles published in the trade media between 2007 and 2008 was collected with the intention of characterising not only the amount of coverage that the topics of climate change and sustainability receive in the trade media, but also the differential emphasis. Content analysis of the manifest content was used in order to categorise and reduce the data. This paper provides a summary of the key themes that came out of this review of the media and presents a discussion of the influences that this had on greening in the business events sector. Suggestions are also provided for how this research can be advanced in future.

Key words:
Business events, media, sustainability and climate change

INTRODUCTION

Greening refers to measures and initiatives taken by a company, organisation or industry sector to introduce more sustainable practices and facilities. There is a substantial body of literature on the drivers of greening (Andersson & Bateman, 2000; Bansal & Roth, 2000; Bramwell & Alletorp, 2001; Fineman & Clarke, 1996; Lynes & Dredge, 2006) and a series of drivers have been identified from these studies, including gaining a competitive advantage; managerial values or attitudes (or the presence of an environmental champion); image enhancement/improved reputation; the rise in companies with corporate social responsibility policies; and pressure from stakeholders (Mair and Jago 2009). Although the media has been identified in a number of studies as one stakeholder amongst many (Bramwell & Alletorp, 2001; Lynes & Dredge, 2006), pressure from the media in general, and the trade media in particular, has not yet been identified as a driver of greening. Yet almost every day in the media there are articles, editorials and opinion pieces on various potential impacts of climate change, many of which can be minimised by increased greening, and this is the case for much of the trade press too. In addition, the media has been demonstrated to be a catalyst for change in other areas of pro-social behaviour, such as public health campaigns (McDaid, 2004), road rage (Roberts & Indermaur, 2005), obesity (Boyce, 2007) and political voting intentions (Martin, 2000). Recent research (Mair and Jago 2009) has suggested that at least in the particular case of business events, the media may be a strong driver of increased greening. Anecdotal evidence from that research
highlighted both the perceived increase in media coverage of climate change, sustainability and the environment and the apparent increase in sustainable practices and facilities. This exploratory study aims to investigate possible links between media coverage of these issues and increased greening.

In the area of mass communication and media studies, there is a long-established theory which may help to underpin investigations into the influence of the media on greening. Agenda-setting theory, initially proposed in 1972 by McCombs and Shaw, does not itself propose that the media changes behaviour, nor does it provide any mechanism whereby behavioural change may be achieved. Nonetheless, agenda-setting theory certainly explains how the salience of certain issues changes with the differential media emphasis and coverage.

It seems clear that media coverage of climate change and sustainability affects the salience of these issues for the public. This paper intends to examine whether trade media coverage of climate change and sustainability (both the extent of coverage and the tone and topics covered) has any bearing on the anecdotal increased salience of these issues to the trade, as evidenced by the visible increase in greening/introduction of sustainable practices and facilities. This research uses a case study of the business events industry and examines the coverage of climate change and sustainability issues in the business events trade press. The paper will begin with a review of media literature, and will give a short introduction to the business events sector. The paper will then discuss the methodology used in this research along with the findings. Finally, the paper will conclude with a discussion section and suggestions for future research.

MEDIA THEORY

According to Boykoff and Boykoff (2007, p. 1202) “Media Coverage of climate change matters”. They argue that news media coverage of climate change and other environmental issues plays a key role in shaping people’s beliefs about these issues. This notion is grounded in agenda-setting theory, originally proposed as a way of explaining how media coverage shaped the political views and voting intentions of the American public (McCombs & Shaw, 1972). In turn, this theory had its foundations in the by now often quoted line “The press may not be successful much of the time in telling people what to think, but it is stunningly successful in telling its readers what to think about” (Cohen, 1963, p. 13).

Agenda setting theory suggests that in choosing and displaying news, those in the media (editors, journalists and broadcasters amongst others) play an important part in shaping public opinion – media frames organise central ideas, defining a controversy to resonate with the individual’s core values and assumptions. Frames are basically the lens through which an individual ‘sees’ the media coverage (Nisbet & Mooney, 2007). They allow an individual to cut through complex issues and identify why an issue matters, who might be responsible and what should be done (Nisbet & Mooney, 2007). Those reading or watching the news not only learn about a given issue, but, in line with the amount and type of media coverage, decide how much importance to attach to that issue – that is, the media sets the agenda regarding public opinion of an
issue (McCombs & Shaw, 1972). More recent research suggests that by deciding which aspects of an issue to cover in detail, the mass media influences the way people perceive an issue as a whole (Thøgersen, 2006).

Since the original paper written by McCombs and Shaw in 1972, a great deal of research has been carried out in this area, including research into public agenda setting, policy agenda setting and media agenda setting. According to Kosicki (1993, p 101), “coming to grips with the totality of what has been written about agenda-setting is an exceedingly complex task”. Given that fifteen years of additional research has been contributed to the literature in this area since these words were written, it is clear that a thorough review of all the agenda-setting literature is beyond the scope of this paper.

In terms of understanding the basic premise of agenda-setting theory, it is important to remember that it focuses not on people’s opinions as such, but rather on issue salience – how important an issue is perceived to be (Soroka, 2002). Agenda-setting research has demonstrated that increased issue salience for the media leads to increased issue salience for the public (Soroka, 2002).

However, the role of different types of media in agenda setting has been less widely researched, and the role played by the trade media in setting the agenda for an industry or trade has not been covered in depth in the literature to date. The reasons for this are unclear, but it appears to offer fertile ground for new research. In a research paper on building practice in Sweden, the authors established that the trade media did have a discernible effect on green building practice, primarily through the image of ‘green’ buildings conveyed by trade magazines (Gluch & Stenberg, 2006). The authors further posit that repeated exposure to such contrived images of ‘green’ buildings (which may simplify the complexity of the actual buildings featured) may have implications on practitioners’ actual environmental behaviour (Gluch & Stenberg, 2006). Such findings lend weight to the suggestion that the trade media can be influential in portraying a particular image or view of an issue and that repeated exposure to this potentially limited or biased image or view may have implications for how an issue is perceived by those in industry.

**BUSINESS EVENTS**

‘Business events’ is generally understood to include meetings, incentives, conventions and exhibitions. This sector is of growing economic importance to Australia, and a large number of other destinations worldwide. In Australia, the business events sector is widely accepted as being of vital importance (Deery, Jago, Fredline, & Dwyer, 2005). In their National Business Events Study, Deery et al (2005) showed that 28.4 million delegates attended business events in Australia in 2003. This highlights the scale of business events in Australia and given this importance, it is imperative that the sector remains competitive and successful.

However, the business events sector may face unprecedented difficulties in the years to come, primarily occasioned by its heavy reliance on the airline and travel industries. In times of economic downturns, business travel may be reduced substantially, and this comes on top of anecdotal evidence from the business events
sector that the rise in the number of companies with Corporate Social Responsibility programs (CSR) has meant that large organisations have already started to cut business travel in order to reduce their carbon emissions. For Australia, a long haul destination for most of its key markets, pressure for consumers (both leisure and business travellers) to cut carbon emissions by avoiding long haul travel may prove costly for the business events sector in the long term. Negative publicity linking carbon emissions from air travel with climate change has been around for some years now, and is unlikely to go away in the near future. Indeed there is growing evidence of negative publicity in the UK and Europe particularly associated with long haul travel.

Therefore, the business events sector is particularly sensitive to the issues of climate change and sustainability and as such presents an interesting case study for this research, investigating the role of media pressure in the greening of an industrial sector.

**METHOD**

As discussed, climate change and sustainability have increasingly become the focus of considerable media coverage, particularly in the past few years. This paper uses a content analysis of the manifest content of a range of online business events trade media publications between January 2007 and December 2008. Manifest content involves denotative meaning – the meaning that most people give to particular words and phrases (Riffe, Lacy, & Fico, 1998). Therefore, the analysis will not consider any hidden meanings, or latent content. Key stakeholders in the business events sector representing industry associations, conferences and exhibitions were asked to nominate the online publications which, in their view, are most widely read by those in the business events sector. The most common responses were mice.net, mice asia.net, mice.nz, ebtmice, CEI Asia (online) and Spice News (the online version of Main Event magazine). Other common publications mentioned included CIT and CIM (both of which are available by subscription only and do not have freely available online searches or content), and Tradeshow Week and Exhibition Week (both of which are published overseas and again are not freely available). Therefore, these publications were excluded from this analysis. It is accepted that excluding these publications does limit how widely the results of this study can be generalised, but nonetheless in this exploratory phase, it was decided that the six publications mentioned above (mice.net, mice asia.net, mice.nz, ebtmice, CEI Asia (online) and Spice News) over the two year period (January 2007 – December 2008) would provide a suitable purposive sample for this particular analysis. It should be noted that although they are connected by name, mice.net, mice asia.net and mice.nz do not carry the same articles and therefore there was no possibility of over-estimating the number of relevant articles by double counting them.

Relatively straightforward categories were selected initially in order to search the online publication databases. These were ‘climate change’, ‘sustainability’, ‘environmentally friendly’ and ‘green’. This initial search elicited approximately 150 articles. These were then checked for relevance (the category ‘green’ in particular yielded many articles with ‘Green’ as someone’s surname, or in a phrase such as ‘giving the green light to...’). The final count of relevant articles was 132. These
included industry news items, international news items and a number of features and editorials.

Once the articles to be analysed have been identified, the next step in the content analysis process is to determine appropriate content categories (McMurray, Pace, & Scott, 2004). In this instance, the literature on industrial greening suggests that the drivers (or barriers) of greening include the financial costs involved and the time involved, as well as the possibility of accreditation or legislation, and increasing levels of demand from consumers; and from the supply chain, therefore it was decided to use these as content categories. In addition, reading of the articles suggested further themes which appeared to be common to a number of articles, including lists of measures that companies can take to be more sustainable, references to carbon footprints/emissions and connections with other international crises or dramatic events (such as fuel prices or the worsening global economic situation). Finally, a number of the articles dealt with what can be described as industry news – a hotel that has been refurbished, or a convention centre that has opened. This was considered to be a separate category. Therefore, the categories of content used are those shown in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1 Content categories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Costs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time involved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accreditation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demand from consumers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Measures that can be taken</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition to these categories other coding themes were also determined. In order to make some judgement on whether trade publications influence attitudes towards climate change and sustainability, it was decided to note both the tone of coverage (positive, negative or balanced) and also the degree of action that was called for in the articles. This was coded from ‘story urges the reader to act’ (uses phrases such as ‘we must do something’, ‘it is vital that we act’ and ‘we strongly encourage...’); ‘story suggests action by the reader’ (uses phrases like ‘it is a good idea to...”, and ‘many companies have improved their business by ...’); ‘story hints at action by the reader’ (no clear call to action, but nonetheless the reader is left with the impression that the story content would be a good course of action); and ‘story makes no suggestion of action’ (a report that simply gives the facts). Additionally, the date of article, length of article, broad content of article (climate change, sustainability or environmentally-friendly topics) and publication in which the article appears was also coded. Therefore in addition to those categories given in Table 1, each article was also coded according to the categories given in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2 Additional Content Categories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Date of article</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tone of coverage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree of action implied</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In content analysis it is important to consider the reliability of the analysis. One of the major areas where content analysis can become flawed is when a number of people are coding the analysis – in that instance, reporting inter-coder reliability is
suggested (Riffe et al., 1998). However in this study all coding was carried out by the author and therefore no inter-coder bias can have occurred. In order to reduce the subjective nature of the coding process where a single coder is used, an additional researcher reviewed the coding of some early articles to ensure a consistent approach. Nonetheless, categorisation of material was done on a discretionary and judgemental basis, as is often the case with content analysis, and therefore the results of this exploratory study provide some reflections on the themes and issues connected to industry greening without attempting to provide definitive answers.

It was intended to use inferential statistics to test for significance and between-groups differences. Statistical analysis showed that the data were not normally distributed. In such cases, the use of non-parametric statistical techniques is advised (Field, 2000). Therefore, in order to test for between groups differences, Mann-Whitney U Tests and Kruskal Wallis H tests were used.

**RESEARCH FINDINGS**

A total of 132 articles were analysed, and initial results show that in 2007 there was a total of 28 stories covering climate change, the environment and sustainability. In 2008 this had risen to 104 articles, a substantial increase. It should be pointed out that articles from Spice News from early 2007 (January – March) were not available online, and therefore it is possible that the total number of articles in 2007 may have been higher had these been included in the analysis. Nonetheless it is reasonable to conclude that coverage of climate change, the environment and sustainability has increased over the period of time under consideration. This initial finding provides a strong foundation for the suggestion that increased greening in the business events industry may be linked in some way to increased media coverage of these topics, since media coverage has indeed increased.

Climate change was the topic of only 14% of articles overall in 2007 and 2008. Sustainability accounted for 36% of articles and being environmentally friendly was the subject of 40% of the articles. The remainder were a mix of topics. Also interesting is the finding that the percentage of articles devoted to climate change as a topic dropped from 2007 (21%) to 2008 (12%). This finding is not consistent with the situation in the general media where coverage of climate change appears to dominate over coverage of sustainability issues or being generally environmentally friendly.

Each article was coded for tone of coverage (positive, negative or balanced). Results showed that the vast majority of articles were positive in tone (71%), whilst only 13% were negative and 16% were balanced. Again this shows support for the proposal that media coverage, both amount and type of coverage, is playing a role in persuading suppliers to the business events sector to become greener in their business. Table 3 illustrates the cross tabulation of tone of coverage and story content. Since the majority of articles cover the topic of becoming more sustainable or environmentally friendly in a positive way, this helps to contribute to the argument that portraying sustainability in a positive light may be linked with increased uptake of sustainable practices amongst businesses.
Table 3 – Tone of Coverage x Story content

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tone of coverage</th>
<th>Climate Change</th>
<th>Sustainability</th>
<th>Environmentally Friendly</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>73%</td>
<td>85%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balanced</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition, statistical tests indicated that there was indeed a significant between-groups difference in the tone of coverage using story content as the grouping variable. Stories covering climate change were significantly more likely to be negative in tone than stories covering either sustainability or being environmentally friendly, and correspondingly, stories covering climate change were significantly less likely to be positive in tone than other stories. Table 4 illustrates these results.

Table 4 – Kruskal-Wallis H Test Statistic with Story Content as Grouping Variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tone of Coverage</th>
<th>Chi-Square</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp.Sig (1-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14.522</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Therefore, not only were there fewer stories about climate change than might have been expected (based on general observation of the mass media coverage of the topic), but additionally, stories covering climate change were significantly more likely to be negative in tone. It may be surmised that this will influence how people perceive the issue. Sustainability and being environmentally friendly, on the other hand, were significantly more likely to be portrayed in a positive way, which again is likely to influence people to perceive these topics in a favourable light.

In terms of the issues covered by the stories, ten content categories were used (costs; time available; accreditation/legislation; consumer demand; measures that can be taken; carbon footprints/emissions; connections with other global issues; supplier issues; international news; and industry news). Table 5 shows the frequencies of these issues, divided by year of article.

Table 5 Frequencies of Content Categories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cases</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Cases</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Cases</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Costs</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time available</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accreditation/legislation</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>76%</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumer demand</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>69%</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Measures*</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>85%</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carbon footprint/emissions</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>85%</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Connections with other issues</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplier issues</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International news</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry news</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>74%</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at p<0.05
The issue most commonly mentioned was the measures that businesses can take to be more sustainable and environmentally friendly (for example more recycling and waste management, energy saving measures etc). This was mentioned in 69 of the 132 articles covered, and is statistically significantly (p<0.05) more likely to be mentioned in 2008 (even allowing for the fact that overall more articles were published in 2008). Also frequently mentioned were accreditation, and carbon footprints/emissions, both covered in 34 articles. Despite suggestions in the literature that the time it takes to become more sustainable, and the costs involved, are likely to be important factors for businesses, very few articles covered these topics. This is in line with the finding above that most articles covering sustainability and being environmentally friendly were given a positive tone, rather than focussing on potential negatives such as costs and lack of time. Also interesting was the almost total lack of articles reporting international news such as the various UN meetings and summits on climate change. This may point to a wish on behalf of publishers not to repeat news available elsewhere in the general media, but may also hint at some reluctance on the part of the trade media to dwell on potentially serious or bad news.

In order to examine the issue of tone of coverage further, cross tabulations were carried out using tone of coverage and content categories. Table 6 illustrates that there are some statistically significant findings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 6 Tone of Coverage x Content Categories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive Cases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Costs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accreditation/legislation*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumer demand*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Measures*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carbon footprint/emissions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Connections with other issues*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplier issues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International news</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry news</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Significant at p&lt;0.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This shows that mentions of ‘accreditation’, ‘consumer demand’ and ‘measures that can be taken’ are all significantly more likely to be positive than negative. In fact, 91% of all mentions of ‘measures that can be taken’ were positive in tone. This lends further weight to the suggestion that the way that the media covers a topic or issue can influence the salience of that issue – the trade media has been covering accreditation schemes, consumer demand for greener products and measures that can be taken to become more environmentally friendly in a consistently positive way over the past two years, at the same time as previous research has highlighted a trend towards increased investment in sustainable facilities and practices in the business events area. Conversely, mentions of connections between climate change, the environment and sustainability and other global issues (such as high fuel prices and the global economic downturn) are significantly more likely to be negative in tone, although the topic in general is not often covered (only 10 articles out of 132), further evidence that
the trade media is likely to stress the positives and not the negatives. In fact, further
tests showed that of the seven articles covering connections with other issues in a
negative way, four were on the subject of climate change. Therefore a clear pattern of
positive coverage of sustainability and being environmentally friendly (including the
benefits of accreditation schemes and lists of measures that can be taken to become
greener), and negative coverage of climate change (including linking it with other
global problems) becomes clear.

In order to attempt an assessment of how media coverage might result in changing
issue salience, it was decided to examine the articles collected to determine the level
of action that they suggested. Articles were coded from 1 (story urges action) to 4
(story makes no mention of action). The frequencies for this are shown in Table 7.

Table 7 Frequencies for the variable ‘Action’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree of Action Implied</th>
<th>Cases</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Cum. %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Story urges action</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Story suggests action</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Story hints at action</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>64%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Story makes no mention of action</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>132</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table shows that the most common type of article is ‘story makes no mention of
action’ (36%). Whilst this suggests that articles in the trade media are unlikely to be a
catalyst for action in the reader, looking at the cumulative percentage, it can be seen
that 64% of all articles do imply that some sort of action is warranted. This may take
the form of the article stating outright that action is vital, or may be more subtle, but
nonetheless the reader is left with the impression that some kind of action in response
to reading the article would be a positive outcome. The implication of the above is
that reading such trade media articles is likely to have an influence on behaviour,
especially if the reader is exposed to repeated articles over time, all exhorting the
reader to take action.

Each of the content categories was also analysed in connection with the variable
‘action’ to see if there were any significant links between the issues covered in the
articles and the action that the article proposed. The results are shown in Table 8 and
do indeed highlight some significant findings.

Table 8 Action x Content Categories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Urges action</th>
<th>Suggests action</th>
<th>Hints at Action</th>
<th>No action suggested</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cases</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Cases</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Cases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Costs</strong>*</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time available</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accreditation/legislation</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Consumer demand</strong>*</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Measures***</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carbon footprint/emissions</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Connections with other</strong></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
For example, articles discussing the costs involved in greening were significantly less likely to suggest that no action is required (in fact in this study no articles did). Therefore, articles discussing costs were more likely to urge or suggest action, perhaps anticipating rising costs in future, and advocating early action. A similar picture is true for both consumer demand and measures that can be taken – both were significantly less likely to contain no suggestion of action, and were more likely to imply that action is both warranted and feasible. In terms of connections with other issues (already noted as being more likely to be linked with climate change stories and be portrayed negatively), although there is no statistical significance, it is still worth pointing out that 50% of such articles did not make any suggestion of action – this may imply that in the view of the trade media, such global issues as climate change, high fuel prices and economic downturns are out of the hands of individual operators, although other interpretations are possible. Finally, with regard to industry news, the vast majority (74%) did not make any suggestion of action – this is to be expected as most industry news items concerned hotel/convention centre openings, or refurbishments, or in some cases simply reported staffing changes.

In terms of variations between the publications, tests showed that certain publications were more likely to run particular types of story than others. For example, Ebtb.mice published 50% of all the stories on climate change, and 53% of all the stories on being environmentally friendly. Mice.net provided a total of 31% of all stories on sustainability. Regarding the coding categories, CEI Asia ran 70% of all stories about dealing with suppliers, whilst Ebtb.mice ran 50% of all stories on accreditation schemes. Mice.net had 40% of all stories on connections with other global issues and 37% of all industry news. CEI Asia did not publish any stories with a negative tone, whilst two publications (Ebtb.mice and mice.net) were together responsible for 59% of all negative articles. Neither Mice Asia.net nor Mice.nz ran any articles that were coded as being balanced – they always opted for either a positive or a negative view of a story. Finally, every story in CEI Asia was coded as implying some form of action – there were no articles coded ‘story makes no mention of action’, whilst 62% of articles in Mice.net made no suggestion of action. These results, although interesting, cannot be used to make any particular judgements on the contents of each publication, or to suggest that readers of one publication are more likely to be influenced than readers of other publications. This would, however, make an interesting topic for future study.

## CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

The findings from this research, although exploratory in nature, do appear to indicate that in accordance with agenda-setting theory, increased coverage of the issues of climate change and sustainability in the business events trade press can be linked with the increased salience of these issues. Anecdotal evidence from previous research (Mair and Jago 2009) suggested that those working in the business events area
considered that the importance of sustainability and being more environmentally friendly was increasing, as was the number of suppliers investing in sustainable practices and facilities. This study has demonstrated that business events trade media coverage of sustainability in particular has increased significantly in the two year period (January 2007 – December 2008), and this may in part explain why people in the business events industry are paying more attention to sustainability.

Additionally, and arguably more interestingly, the coverage of sustainability issues and becoming more environmentally friendly was almost always positive in tone, encouraging and sometimes urging readers to act. Such positive coverage may also play a role in encouraging suppliers to change their facilities and practices. Conversely, coverage of climate change in the business events media was often both negative in tone and linked with other global problems such as high fuel prices and the economic downturn, which was almost certain to lead readers to perceive such issues as being difficult or problematic, especially if they are exposed to this message repeatedly over time.

This differential emphasis may reflect another mass communications theory, namely, the ‘Issue Attention Cycle’, proposed in the early Seventies as a way to explain the cyclical nature of public attention towards social issues (Downs, 1972). The Issue Attention Cycle suggests that public interest in a social issue moves through five phases – the pre-problem stage (where a highly undesirable social problem exists but has not captured the public attention); alarmed discovery and euphoric enthusiasm (the public becomes aware of the problem and is alarmed by it, which is accompanied by enthusiasm to solve the problem); realising the cost of significant progress (gradual dawning that the cost of solving the problem is very high indeed); gradual decline of intense public interest (some people are discouraged, others are threatened by the problem and so suppress thoughts of it and finally most people get bored by the issue) and the post-problem stage (the problem is replaced at the centre of public concern by another issue). It may be the case that the business events trade media coverage of climate change is currently in stage three or four of the issue attention cycle – realising the cost of significant progress, followed by the gradual decline of intense interest – and this would help to explain why such an important global issue as climate change is reported upon negatively and in connection with other difficulties in the business events trade media. This would provide an interesting focus for future research.

The limitations of this study are those already discussed in the paper, namely that the sample was small and purposive and different results may have been obtained with a larger sample. However, as the purpose of the study was exploratory, the results are of interest in themselves and also provide a foundation for further research. The results from this study have highlighted a potentially fruitful area for future research, and it is now intended to continue with this research by going back to suppliers in the business events sector to examine their opinions as to what are the key influences on greening.
REFERENCES


Abstract

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) has emerged as an area of interest for event practitioners and venue managers worldwide. This study investigated the factors that influence managers’ intentions to engage in CSR behaviours in the context of the event venue industry. The Theory of Planned Behaviour was adopted as a conceptual framework to explore what types of behavioural belief, social pressure and perceived control venue managers perceived in relation to their intentions to CSR engagement. This paper presents findings of the preliminary stage of data collection in the study. From the initial data collection, 69 venue managers in Australia and New Zealand participated in an online survey. The results suggested that environmentally responsible initiatives were the prevailing CSR initiatives being undertaken in the industry. Respondents with lower intentions to CSR adoption received less support from important groups and experienced less control over the resources they needed for implementing CSR initiatives than those with higher intentions. To examine determinates and/or other factors that can facilitate venue managers’ CSR decisions, larger and more representative samples are necessary for future research.

Key words:
Corporate Social Responsibility, event venues, beliefs and intentions

INTRODUCTION

The concept of sustainability and corporate social responsibility (CSR) has increasingly become an important issue in the tourism and hospitality industry over the past two decades. As the Brundtland Report of the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development declared in 1987, sustainable development advocates the business conduct that benefits the present while not endangering the quality of life of future generations (Christie & Warburton, 2001). Corporate social responsibility
refers to a managerial strategy that facilitates the attainment of companies’ sustainability (Dwyer, Jago, Deery & Fredline, 2007; Marrewijk, 2003). For the event industry, the negative impacts results from business conduct, such as opportunity costs, leakages, pollution, waste, congestion, crime and disruption, can be enormous, especially when events reach a mega-scale (Davidson & Rogers, 2006; Rogers, 2003; Swarbrooke & Horner, 2001; Wagen & Carlos, 2005). In response to these impacts, several governmental agencies and professional associations have encouraged the business enterprises to adopt economic, social and environmental responsible actions.

In line with the sustainability principle, the Ministry of Tourism, New Zealand (2008) sets out four targeted outcomes in the Tourism Strategy 2015. The outcomes encompass the aspects of quality service, profitability, environmental protection and community involvement in the industry. In order to achieve the targets, many strategies and programs are being implemented to ensure the sustainable and responsible performance of the industry. The Qualmark grading system is a tool to accredit the service quality and environmentally-friendly practice demonstrated by tourism enterprises, including accommodation, attractions, visitor services, transportation and venues. The criteria for assessing quality tourism experiences are customer service, standard of facilities, overall business operations, environmental practices and general safety (Tourism New Zealand, n.d.). To highlight the environmental best practices in the industry, the green criteria, namely, energy efficiency, conservation initiatives, waste management and community activities, are added for Qualmark Green accreditation.

Similarly, Tourism Australia (2009) implemented a corporate social responsibility (CSR) audit which evaluated the level of accreditation across 278 business event related organisations, including accommodation, event organisers, venues and meeting service companies. The evaluation focused on the levels of green accreditation, CSR management, programs and projects, and demand for green products and services. The audit revealed that one third of total respondents have accreditations. Large companies employing over 100 people, international enterprises, accommodation, venues, convention and exhibition centres and convention bureaux had higher level of accreditation, CSR performance and recognition of demands for CSR than the industry average. The audit also revealed that CSR decisions were generally made by senior managers. Two thirds of respondents have written CSR policies, strategies and plans for complying with company policy (71%) and regulatory obligations (57%). Although 76% of respondents actively reduced the
in-house energy and water use, the majority of respondents (69%) did not participate in accredited greenhouse gas offset programs. With regard to demands for green products and services, 61% of all respondents recognised an increase in client demand and it is more widespread among convention centres (88%) and venues (81%) (Tourism Australia, 2009).

This CSR trend has been well addressed in many international event and meeting associations and exhibitions. According to an IMEX (the worldwide exhibition for meetings and incentive travel) survey, more than 70% of European business event buyers said that they ‘would deliberately avoid destinations/venues known to have a poor environmental record’ (IMEX, 2008, p.1). The Global Meetings & Incentives Exhibition (2008) survey indicated that 86% of meeting professionals agreed that CSR and environmental policies would be influential over the next ten years. Due to the green demands from the market, an increasing number of individual, corporate and government meeting planners, who are planning or will plan green meetings, is experienced in the event and meeting industry (Meeting Strategies Worldwide, 2009).

It is evident that the support of CSR adoption in the event industry has been raised. The venue sector plays an important role in the CSR agenda of the industry. Despite the fact that there have been enormous discussions on how venues can integrate CSR programs, policies and reports into their business strategies and operation, limited information is available for understanding the facilitators and inhibitors that affect CSR implementation. Given that decision makers generally hold the power to determine the CSR adoption of an organisation, this research proposes to identify the factors that influence venue managers’ decisions in CSR behaviours. The findings will have implications in encouraging more CSR adoption in event venues through proper education and training.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Conceptualising CSR

CSR has been recognised as an innovative means for increasing market values, improving the quality of products and services, maximising the long-term prosperity, balancing the claims of most key stakeholders, namely people, planet and profit (McAdam & Leonard, 2003; Meehan, Meehan & Richards, 2006). When conceptualising CSR, numerous researchers (Alas & Tafel, 2008; Garriga & Melé,
frequently referred to the Carroll’s CSR pyramid. In this paradigm, Carroll (1979; 1991) organised economic, legal, ethical, and philanthropic responsibilities in accordance with the level of social expectations associated with each area (see Figure 1). He suggested that “the total CSR of business” (Carroll, 1991:43) was in the simultaneous fulfilment of the four responsibilities. A socially responsible company goes beyond its required responsibility of being profitable legally and takes actions to minimise harms (socially expected) and maximise benefits (socially desired) for their stakeholders, including shareholders, employees, customers, suppliers, the environment and society on which it relies.

Figure 1
The Pyramid of Corporate Social Responsibility

Source: adapted from Carroll (1991, p.42) and Schwartz & Carroll (2003, p.504)

Wood (1991) extended Carroll’s CSR pyramid (1979) by adding CSR operating processes and outcomes as well as increasing the level of principles (institutional, organisational, and individual). Wood developed a new Corporate Social Performance (CSP) model, which defines “a business organization's configuration of principles of social responsibility, processes of social responsiveness, and policies, programs, and
In the CSP model (Wood, 1991), the principle of CSR consists of three levels - legitimacy, public responsibility, and managerial discretion. The legitimacy implies that businesses of all kinds have institutional obligations to meet. Those obligations are defined by society and basically are prescriptive in nature. Therefore, corporations are prohibited from acting in a socially unfavourable way. The public responsibility focuses on direct and indirect impacts on society resulting from organisational behaviour. This principle requires a company to act for social well-being and to recognise its social role and the relationship to society that it engages with. The final principle suggests that moral actors (managers) have choices and discretion to determine how to behave in line with CSR according to their economic, legal, and ethical restrictions. Consequently, those managers have their moral responsibilities to carry out CSR practices when options and opportunities are available to them.

**Determinants of CSR**

The level of managerial discretion in CSR principles proposed by Wood (1991) enhances the function of managers, especially top and senior managers, in organisations’ CSR performance. Longsdon and Yuthas (1997) supported that top managers’ ethic expectation and stakeholder selection affect the level of organisational moral development, namely pre-conventional (to benefit the self), conventional (to meet requirements of market-oriented stakeholders) and post-conventional level (to create value and respect the environment and society at large). Top managers’ expectations are influenced by individual and environmental factors, e.g. individual characteristics, societal expectations, industry and local norms, laws and regulations (Longsdon & Yuthas, 1997). Hemingway and Maclagan (2004) agreed that managers’ personal values are major factors explaining the implementation of CSR policies in organisations.

In addition to personal values and moral norms of managers, some research reported that demographics, culture and nationality differences may result in variable levels of CSR adoptions while company size, industry classification, and public support can be influential to CSR programs and disclosure (Basil & Weber, 2006; Quanzi, 2003; Roberts, 1992). Other studies revealed that economic performance and benefits are crucial motives for decision makers to adopt responsible conduct (Jamali & Mirshak,
Lee & Park, 2009). Similarly, Lenssen & Dentchev (2006) conducted an empirical study to explore what kind of knowledge and information was needed by managers to implement CSR performance in their companies. The results showed that managers are concerned about the value added to the companies, such as competitiveness and corporate reputation. Those studies implied that profit is the main driver in CSR decision processes. However, as discussed previously, the adoption of CSR may not be merely driven by the economics. The managerial discretion, personal values, and the level of compliance to expectations that society has of business may contribute to the CSR performance of organisations (Heminway, 2005; Wood, 1991).

The theory of reasoned action and the theory of planned behaviour

In order to investigate how managers’ values, attitudes and moral norms influence the managerial decisions to implement CSR, this research employed the theory of reasoned action (TRA) and the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) as a conceptual framework to understand the factors that influence managerial intentions toward CSR. The theory of reasoned action is one of the dominant approaches to modelling attitudinal influence on behaviour (Kokkinaki, 1999). The theory of reasoned action model explains how behavioural intentions predict behaviours that are under volitional control. In the model, individual behaviour is guided by intentions which are determined by attitudes and subjective norms toward the target behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Attitudes are derived from accessible beliefs about the behaviour and the evaluation of the behaviour outcome. Subjective norms are generated from the normative beliefs concerning the expectations of those who are important to the individual (so called significant others, such as parents, friends and boss in the work environment) as well as the person’s motivation to comply with those expectations. If people hold a favourable attitude towards a certain behaviour and perceive that their significant others agree with them on performing that behaviour, they will have an intention to act.

However, the theory of reasoned action may not be applicable to the situations that are not under complete volitional control. Ajzen (2006, p.1) added the variable of ‘perceived behavioural control’ to the theory of reasoned action to bridge this gap and called the new model the “theory of planned behaviour” (TPB). Perceived behavioural control relates to perceptions of how easy or difficult it is to implement the behaviour. It is an individual’s control beliefs about the presence of factors that may facilitate or impede performance of the behaviour and the perceived power of these factors. The
theory of planned behaviour assumes that human behaviour can be predicted by the three antecedents of behavioural intention, as discussed previously: attitudes toward behaviours, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control (Ajzen & Driver, 1992). These three antecedents are influenced by three salient beliefs: behavioural, normative and control beliefs (Ajzen, 2005). The more positive the attitudes, norms, and perceived control, the stronger the individual’s intention to perform the behaviour will be. These two models (see in Figure 2) are “identical when the subjective probability of success and the degree of control over internal and external factors reach their maximal values” (Ajzen, 1985, p.36, cited in Kaplanidou, 2006, p.16).

The theories have been applied widely in areas such as medicine and nursing, business, social learning and ethics, leisure and tourism, and environmental studies (Groot & Steg, 2007). Amongst studies using the theory of planned behaviour to investigate socially responsible behaviours, including environmental friendliness and ethical behaviours, the findings vary in terms of the level of influence of the three

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**Figure 2**

The Theory of Reasoned Action and the Theory of Planned Behaviour Model

![Diagram of the Theory of Reasoned Action and the Theory of Planned Behaviour Model](image)

Note: the TRA model is indicated in the punctuated frame
predictors on behavioural intention. In general, the three independent variables - attitude toward behaviours, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control - adequately explained the intention to engage in environmental protection behaviour, such as adopting innovative cleaner technologies and saving power (Corral, 2003). However, it may be the case that only one or two variables significantly influence the behavioural intentions. When examining the intention of unethical financial reporting, Carpenter and Reimers (2005) revealed that perceived behavioural control had less predictability than attitudes and subjective norms had. In another case of ethical behavioural intention, Fang (2006) concluded that in different ethical scenarios, only attitude significantly influences the intention. In addition, some research may add independent variables to ensure the explanation of the determinants of behavioural intentions. For example, Cordano & Frieze (2000) added past behaviour to predict intentions of environmental managers to reduce pollution relating to their business conduct. Buchan (2005) included ethical work climate in the theory of planned behaviour model to investigate the factors that influenced ethical behavioural intentions of public accountants. Examples above imply that the theory of planned behaviour have considerable predictability to explain managerial intentions toward CSR behaviours.

This paper presents the preliminary findings of the application of the theory of planned behaviour in the context of the venue sector. The focus at this stage is only on what CSR initiatives the venue managers have adopted and what beliefs may guide their decision making process. This paper addresses the following specific research questions:

1. What CSR initiatives are currently taking place in the venue industry?
2. What are the differences in beliefs between venue managers who are more and less likely to implement CSR initiatives?

**METHODOLOGY**

**Instrument development**

To develop a reliable and valid instrument, semi-structured interviews were conducted with experienced industry professionals to generate variables of CSR behaviours, attitudes toward CSR behaviours, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control. The potential interviewees were experts from professional associations and venue managers who have experiences in CSR implementation. The initial list was identified
from professional associations (i.e. International Congress and Convention Association and Green Meeting Industry Council) and venues with CSR accreditation (i.e. Green Global certification). Using snowball sampling, the interviews were stopped until the data reached to convergence.

From the semi-structure interviews, 13 experts responded to all open-ended questions. They were asked about the type of CSR initiatives they have participated in or observed in the industry. With regard to CSR beliefs, interviewees were asked about the advantages and disadvantages of CSR implementation (i.e. behavioural beliefs), the people who would encourage or discourage the CSR implementation (i.e. normative beliefs) and the circumstances and resource that would enable or disable the CSR implementation (i.e. control beliefs). Based on the results of content analysis, 30 CSR initiatives encompassing economic, social, environmental and organisational domains were identified. For variables of attitudes toward CSR initiatives, respondents believed that the benefits of implementing CSR included being profitable, improving reputation, allocating resource to environmental and social issues related to business operation, increasing the competitiveness, improving the quality of life, saving money and minimising the negative impacts. For variables of subjective norms, respondents reported that the social pressure regarding CSR implementation were mainly from clients, delegates and visitors, the boards, organisations’ competitors, governmental agencies, and the local community. As for perceived behavioural control, respondents believed that sufficient money, appropriate skills and knowledge, sufficient number of skilled staff, equipment and technology, and organisational missions were necessary for implementing CSR initiatives.

In order to investigate venue managers’ CSR behaviours and beliefs more extensively, all variables were transformed into questions for an on-line survey. The first section of the survey relates to the organisations’ current status of CSR engagement. The second section is about the behavioural, normative and control beliefs regarding CSR adoption. All questions were measured on a 7-point scale. The final section is in relation to the demographic information.

Sample

A pilot test was conducted with 30 random selected venue managers listed in the International Congress and Convention Association. After pilot-testing the face validity, the survey was sent to 640 members of the Venue Management
Association, Asia and Pacific (VMA). The VMA is one of the largest public venue management associations in the Asia-Pacific region. Members of the VMA include managers and senior executives from auditoriums, arenas, convention centres, exhibit halls, stadiums, performing arts theatres, and other public assembly facilities. It is an appropriate target population to obtain opinions from diverse segments of the venue sector. All members were invited to participate voluntarily in the on-line survey. A total of 69 fully completed surveys were received (response rate 11%).

RESULTS

Demographics

The majority of respondents were male (69%) and have professional education (37.7% with postgraduate degree and 33% with diploma or vocational training). More than 80 per cent of the respondents are top or middle managers with nearly 12-year working experiences on average. Specifically, 65.3% are top or middle manages of facility management, business operation, research and development, marketing and human resource, and 18.8% are managing directors. Table 1 summarises the demographics of respondents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographics</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Frequency (N)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>69.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>30.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of education</td>
<td>Postgraduate degree</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>37.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diploma/Vocational training</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Undergraduate degree</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>24.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High school</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Position</td>
<td>Top / Senior Manager of Operations, Facility, Research and Development, Marketing, Human Resource</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>65.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
All venues are based in Australia or New Zealand. About half are public venues (56.5%) and are employing less than 200 employees (59.4%). The main type of business the organisations were involved in include conventions (58%), exhibitions (55.1%), recreational/entertainment events (55.1%), meetings (52.2), and sport events (52.2%). Table 2 summarises the demographic information of the venues.

Table 2
Demographics of the Venues

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographics</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Frequency (N)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td></td>
<td>61</td>
<td>88.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>69</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ownership of venue</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td></td>
<td>39</td>
<td>56.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td></td>
<td>21</td>
<td>30.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public-private partnership</td>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>69</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of employee</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50~200</td>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>36.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 50</td>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
<td>23.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>201~350</td>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 500</td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>14.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>351~500</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>69</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of venue (Multiple choices)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Showground/functional facility</td>
<td></td>
<td>26</td>
<td>37.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convention &amp; exhibition centre</td>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>36.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recreation /entertainment facility</td>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>36.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From the descriptive statistics, 91.3% of the respondents reported that they were aware of CSR initiatives being implemented in their organisations. Approximately three fifths of the managers indicated that their organisations have implemented CSR initiatives for more than 3 years. Only 10.1% were beginners in CSR adoption. Among 30 CSR behaviours listed in the questionnaire, 11 initiatives were reported by more than half the respondents (see Table 3). The most frequently adopted CSR initiatives were related to water and power reduce and health and safety issues. When asking about the intention to CSR implementation, respondents, on average, reported that there were 50 to 74 per cent chances that they would implement CSR initiatives in the next 12 months (measured on a 7-point scale where 1 is 0%, 4 is 50% and 7 is 100%; mean=4.7, s.d.=1.32). Despite the fact that three quarters of the respondents indicated that their organisations had already implemented CSR, the score of intentions to CSR adoptions indicated that numerous respondents expressed low intention to CSR adoption. In order to understand the differences between respondents of high and low intention to CSR, the mean of intention (4.7) was used as a benchmark to distinguish respondents who were more likely to implement CSR initiatives from those who are less likely to intend to adopt CSR. In the following sections, the differences in relation to attitudes towards CSR behaviours, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control between the two groups will be reported.
Table 3
Frequency and Percentage of CSR Behaviours

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CSR Behaviour</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Frequency (N)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Economic</td>
<td>Accountable financial record</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>68.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reduce water and power</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>89.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reduce paper and plastic</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>82.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental</td>
<td>Environmental policies</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>79.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reduce water pollution</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>79.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Use public transportation</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Health and safety</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>89.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>Training and education</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>82.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Services for public benefits</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>69.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational</td>
<td>Sustainable management</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Good corporate citizen</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>69.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CSR beliefs: Attitude toward CSR behaviours

Overall, the respondents felt implementing CSR initiatives were good, easy, right things to do and beneficial (i.e. means of all statements were higher than 4 on the 7-point scale). When comparing the ranking of each statement (see Table 4), two groups agreed on the advantages of CSR adoption, namely, improving organisations’ reputation and image, minimising the negative impacts resulting from business conduct and improving the quality of life of the local community. Both groups also perceived improving the reputation and image of organisations as the most important, and improving the quality of life as relatively the least important. However, the mean scores of all statements were higher in the higher intention group in contrast to the lower intention group.

The group with higher intention agreed, comparing with the lower intention group, that CSR initiatives can help the organisations to increase the competitiveness (rank 5 comparing to rank 7). Paralleling with this perception, the higher intention group rated the importance of improving organisations’ competitiveness higher than their counterpart group (rank 2 comparing to rank 5). On the other hand, the lower intention group agreed that adopting CSR can result in long term profitability (rank 4
comparing to rank 6 in the higher intention group). Similarly, the group also rated being profitable in the long run higher than the other group (rank 2 comparing to rank 4). It is evident that although the two groups reported similar attitudes toward CSR behaviours, some underlying beliefs were different.

Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitudes toward CSR behaviours</th>
<th>More likely to intend to adopt CSR (N=44)</th>
<th>Less likely to intend to adopt CSR (N=25)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes in general</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wrong or Right</td>
<td>Rank 1 Mean 6.00 Std. 1.96</td>
<td>Rank 3 Mean 5.64 Std. 1.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harmful or Beneficial</td>
<td>Rank 2 Mean 5.98 Std. 1.91</td>
<td>Rank 3 Mean 5.65 Std. 1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad or Good</td>
<td>Rank 3 Mean 5.82 Std. 1.90</td>
<td>Rank 1 Mean 5.77 Std. 1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficult or Easy</td>
<td>Rank 4 Mean 4.73 Std. 1.69</td>
<td>Rank 4 Mean 4.48 Std. 1.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advantages of CSR adoption</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can improve reputation and image</td>
<td>Rank 1 Mean 6.16 Std. 1.99</td>
<td>Rank 1 Mean 5.88 Std. 0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can minimise the negative impacts</td>
<td>Rank 2 Mean 5.73 Std. 1.04</td>
<td>Rank 2 Mean 5.60 Std. 1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can improve the quality of life</td>
<td>Rank 3 Mean 5.50 Std. 1.25</td>
<td>Rank 3 Mean 5.36 Std. 0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can allocate resource properly</td>
<td>Rank 4 Mean 5.32 Std. 0.98</td>
<td>Rank 5 Mean 4.96 Std. 1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can increase the competitiveness</td>
<td>Rank 5 Mean 5.20 Std. 1.11</td>
<td>Rank 7 Mean 4.56 Std. 1.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can be profitable</td>
<td>Rank 6 Mean 5.11 Std. 1.19</td>
<td>Rank 4 Mean 5.24 Std. 1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can save money</td>
<td>Rank 7 Mean 5.00 Std. 1.48</td>
<td>Rank 6 Mean 4.76 Std. 1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The importance of the advantages</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improving reputation and image</td>
<td>Rank 1 Mean 6.43 Std. 0.82</td>
<td>Rank 1 Mean 6.16 Std. 0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing the competitiveness</td>
<td>Rank 2 Mean 6.05 Std. 1.12</td>
<td>Rank 5 Mean 5.52 Std. 1.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allocating resource properly</td>
<td>Rank 3 Mean 6.00 Std. 0.96</td>
<td>Rank 7 Mean 4.80 Std. 1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being profitable</td>
<td>Rank 4 Mean 5.91 Std. 1.38</td>
<td>Rank 2 Mean 5.88 Std. 1.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimising the negative impacts</td>
<td>Rank 5 Mean 5.86 Std. 1.17</td>
<td>Rank 3 Mean 5.84 Std. 1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saving money</td>
<td>Rank 6 Mean 5.70 Std. 1.36</td>
<td>Rank 4 Mean 5.56 Std. 1.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improving the quality of life</td>
<td>Rank 7 Mean 5.70 Std. 1.15</td>
<td>Rank 6 Mean 5.08 Std. 1.47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CSR beliefs: Subjective norms

On average, all respondents felt neutral or slightly agreed that the general public, most people in the organisations and important groups had expectations of them to implement CSR (mean=4.51, s.d.=.866). When comparing groups (see Table 5), the lower intention respondents received less support from the important stakeholders than their counterpart group because the mean scores for all six support sources were lower. While both groups identified the highest support from the boards whose opinions they valued the most, the higher intention group perceived more support from clients than the other group (rank 2 comparing to rank 3). The lower intention group valued clients’ opinions higher than their counterpart group (rank 2 with mean of 5.8 comparing to rank 3 with mean of 5.32). It is obvious that two groups experienced different level of social pressure regarding CSR adoption.

Table 5
Frequency and Percentage of Subjective Norms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjective Norms</th>
<th>More likely to intend to adopt CSR (N=44)</th>
<th>Less likely to intend to adopt CSR (N=25)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rank</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social pressure in general</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significant others in organisations</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General expectation</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most people in organisations</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The supports from important groups</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The boards support</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most competitors adopted CSR</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Governmental agencies support</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clients support</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local community support</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delegate and visitors support</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whose opinion managers value</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The boards</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local community</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clients</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delegate and visitors</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Governmental agencies</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do at least what competitors do</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4.45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CSR beliefs: Perceived behavioural control

On average, respondents reported that they felt neutral about their capabilities of adopting CSR and control over CSR implementation (mean=4.29, s.d.=1.422). As shown in Table 6, two groups had the same ranks regarding the behavioural control over CSR implementation. Both slightly disagreed that they had the complete discretion to implement CSR initiatives (i.e. the third rank with a mean around 3.6 and the fourth rank item with a mean around 3.3 in both groups). Both groups had similar opinions about the importance the five listed resources in CSR adoption. Both rated organisational missions and knowledge and skills as more important than financial, human and technological resources.

In terms of the perceived control over resources that were important for CSR adoption, the lower intention group had a lower level of discretion in all five resources, compared with their counterpart group. Specifically, the higher intention group agreed, compared to the lower intention respondents, that they had proper organisational missions to guide their CSR adoption (rank 1 comparing to rank 2) and sufficient skilled staff to implement CSR initiatives (rank 2 compared to rank 4). It is interesting to note that when asked about what resources were necessary for CSR implementation, the lower intention group rated all resources higher than the other group. It can be argued that the lower intention respondents experienced a mismatch in the resources in need and their availabilities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceived Behavioural Control</th>
<th>More likely to intend to adopt CSR (N=44)</th>
<th>Less likely to intend to adopt CSR (N=25)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Behavioural control In general</td>
<td>Rank</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capable of implementing CSR</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If I want I can implement CSR</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is up to me to implement CSR</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have complete control</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived control of the resources</td>
<td>Rank</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATION

Considerable evidence suggests that the event sector is increasingly accepting its responsibilities to minimise the negative effects and maximise the beneficial impacts result in its business conduct. This research used the theory of planned behaviour as the conceptual framework to investigate what CSR initiatives venue managers intended to implement and what beliefs they held in relation to their intentions to CSR adoption. The preliminary findings of this study suggested that more than 90 per cent of the respondents were aware of CSR initiatives being undertaken in their organisations. The majority of the frequently adopted CSR initiatives were environmentally responsible behaviours (i.e. reducing water and power, paper and plastic and water pollution, environmental policies, using public transportation). Indeed, researchers have contended that CSR behaviours in the meeting, convention and exhibition industry are more environmentally oriented and less focused on economic and social responsive initiatives (Davidson & Rogers, 2006; Swarbrooke & Horner, 2001; Rogers, 2003).

When comparing respondents with higher intentions to CSR implementation to those with lower intentions, the attitudes toward CSR behaviours, perceived social expectations and perceived control over CSR implementations were not identical. In terms of attitudes, the higher intention group agreed that CSR adoption would result in increased competitiveness while the lower intention group intended more to believe that CSR adoption could ensure long term profitability of organisations. It can be argued that economic responsibility (Carroll, 1991) was the main driver perceived by both groups. For perceived social expectations, as the lower intention group highly
valued the clients’ expectation, they perceived less support from clients regarding CSR adoption than the higher intention group. It suggested the lower intention respondents may not experience the conventional level of organisational moral development (Longsdon & Yuthas, 1997) when their counterpart group perceived the pressure to meet the expectation of market-oriented stakeholders (clients). As to venue managers’ perceived control, the lower intention group revealed relatively lower discretion to CSR implementation. This can be understood from Wood’s (1991) individual principle of the corporate social performance model. For example, because venue managers (moral actors) implement CSR initiatives according to their economic and ethical restrictions as well as the resource availability, it is reasonable that respondents with little control over the resources they needed may not be able to conduct CSR projects and thus revealed less intention to CSR implementation.

This paper presents findings in the early stage of the study. The preliminary findings reported give indications of key CSR beliefs and behaviour that will be further explored and explained as the study develops. In the following stage, data from more representative samples will be collected to test the theory of planned behaviour. The model testing will provide information about how attitudes, social expectations and perceived control positively and negatively influence the CSR decision-making process in the event industry. The findings of the study can be used in the education or training programs to encourage more CSR engagement. It will also help the governmental agencies to design proper interventions, e.g. official CSR certificates, to advocate CSR adoption in the industry. In addition to quantitatively testing the influence of beliefs on CSR intentions, in-depth qualitative studies or case studies will also be worthwhile in future research to examine managers’ intentions to implement or not to implement CSR initiatives.

REFERENCES


ENVIRONMENTAL PRACTICES IN EVENTS

Kathy Marles, Bill Merrilees and Paul Couchman
Griffith University

Abstract

Purpose
There is an ever increasing emphasis being placed on business in general to address not only issues of sustainability, but more specifically the issues associated with reducing the negative environmental outcomes of business activity. While there are some events that incorporate environmental sustainability as a core part of their brand (e.g. Woodford Folk Festival), there is less documented evidence that the strategies of ‘reduce, reuse and recycle’ have been adopted in the more ‘mainstream’ events sector. This paper explores the environmental policies and practices put in place by a highly successful business event.

Context
While the practices of reducing (avoiding waste), reusing and recycling have been adopted to some extent within the Hospitality industry, much of the motivation for incorporating these strategies has been the positive economic impact to the business. In other words ‘it pays to be green’. Many large hotels have found that it is in fact cheaper to reduce waste (soap dispensers instead of individual soap sachets), reuse waste (grey water for the gardens) and, where the economies of scale permit, recycle waste (plastic, paper and vegetable waste). The criticism has been made that such corporations are merely ‘jumping on the green bandwagon’ when the financial incentive is the primary motivation. This argument is countered by the fact that environmental practices are being employed regardless of the corporate motivation.

So are there possibilities for similar strategies to be incorporated into the event sector? More specifically, do event managers document environmental philosophies, policies and practices? And how successful are these actions in truly reducing the environmental impact of the event, regardless of the underlying motivation?

A highly successful business event that has been operating for twenty years was approached about its environmental policies and the specific environmental practices that are employed in organising and running the event. The event contributes a significant economic impact to the destination as well as the general industry. It also has several stakeholders including the event participants, exhibitors, suppliers, the event site business community and the broader destination.

Method
A qualitative approach was used for data collection and analysis. In-depth interviews with the event management team were used to collect the information pertaining to the environmental policy and practices. In conjunction, content analysis of policy documents was used.
Results & Conclusions
The event management team had documented an environmental policy and did employ some environmental practices. However, it was noted that these were recent additions to the event policy framework and had only been incorporated within the 12 months prior to the last event. Another issue facing the event managers was that many of the key services such as waste, exhibition fit-out and construction were outsourced to contractors. Consequently, even though the environmental policies of the contractors were scrutinised during the tendering process, the event managers had little effective control over the actual practices. While there had been some considerable achievements made towards developing a strong commitment toward incorporating positive environmental policies and practices by the event management team, it was found that further action should be taken.

Keywords:
Sustainable events; business events; environmental practices; environmental policies; green events
Industry sustainability is the preservation of advancements made through industry development as well as planning for a sustainable future. As a precursor to further research, planned for 2010, this paper examines the threats to industry sustainability brought about through either natural or man-made disasters, with a specific focus on the increasing threat of an avian influenza pandemic.

The Australian Government strategic response to an actual pandemic outbreak will be one of containment, achieved via the implementation of social distancing policies and procedures. The results of social distancing procedures will inevitably require the closure of schools and other government services, and the cancellation of any unessential public gatherings or events. The research looks at how such a disaster could impact the economic well-being of the Australian events sector and identifies the need for industry participants to develop a systematic approach to disaster risk management, otherwise known as Business Continuity Planning (BCP) or Business Continuity Management (BCM).

The review of current Australian government publications and literature relating to BCP and influenza pandemic preparedness supports this paper’s hypothesis that BCP is an essential part of an organisation’s risk management system, and is maintained and implemented in the face of an actual disaster. However, the findings from a telephone survey conducted as part of this research revealed that over 95% of a sample group of event sector companies that participated in the survey did not have a BCM system in place. Of the 5% that did have a BCM system, only 2% had considered an influenza pandemic scenario. The total number of the sample group was 48. If these research findings are indicative of the boarder events sector, it indicates a great lack of awareness among event industry participants regarding present threats to business continuity, or to the importance of developing and maintaining a BCM system. The research findings also indicate that a greater level of industry support may be required to alert the events sector to the importance of undertaking disaster preparedness planning.
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1. INTRODUCTION

Over the past decade the word ‘sustainability’ has been increasingly used in the context of events industry development. A need to create a balanced approach between human, social and economic progress and the physical environment has become more apparent as the world’s climate crisis worsens. However, the concept of sustainability can also apply to the process of upholding and maintaining the advancements made by industry during its growth and development, particularly in the wake of any natural or man-made disaster.

In recent years Australia has experienced a number of real and potential disasters such as the SARS scare in 2003, the world financial crisis, which started in 2008 and is still a growing concern, and more recently the Victorian bushfires in February 2009. All of these events have impacted, to a certain degree, on the social and economic well-being of the nation.

The unpredictability of disasters (their likelihood of occurrence and the consequences they bring) makes it difficult for communities or enterprises to plan for such events. However, society’s ability to survive previous disasters has been the result of mankind’s ability to adapt and learn from these encounters and develop preparedness systems to manage the associated risks that inevitably follow such incidents. The importance of developing and maintaining disaster preparedness systems has become increasingly evident for Australia in the aftermath of the recent Victorian bushfire disaster and the North Queensland floods in February 2009.

Although governments have the responsibility of preparing for and managing disaster consequences, organisations and enterprises also need to consider undertaking preparedness planning for the purpose of maintaining business continuity. Business Continuity Planning (BCP) is an important part of an organisation’s risk management system and takes into account the development of disaster policies and procedures. These procedures ensure the maintenance and restoration of the core elements of an organisation, its operations, logistics and communication channels, and consider the possible need to relocate operations and the threat of potential staff shortages. According to the Australian National Audit Office (2000), BCP also focuses on preserving and maintaining records and data vital to a business’s administration and operations and should incorporate short, medium and long-term disaster recovery objectives.

This paper examines the underlying management principles and structures relating to BCP, otherwise known as Business Continuity Management (BCM), and identifies the importance for public and private organisations and enterprises to apply a systematic approach to the management of disaster impacts/consequences. The research focuses on the BCM processes that relate to organisations and enterprises operating in the Australian events industry.¹

¹ The term, the ‘Australian events industry’ is used in this paper to describe the organisations and enterprises responsible for either: initiating an event, managing an event or part of the connected industries that provide support and infrastructure services used in the various stages of event production. The term has not been used as an official industry classification.
2. THE THREAT – DISASTERS AND IMPACTS

There are a number of disasters that can potentially impact on a society and its population and upset the social and economic symmetry of a nation. The Oxford dictionary defines a disaster as: “A sudden accident or a natural catastrophe that causes great damage or loss of life” and “An event or fact leading to ruin or failure”. When the consequences of these events reach a level of enormity, they have the potential to exceed a society’s ability to manage the initial consequences of such an incident.

Natural and man-made disasters have affected the planet for thousands of years. Over the past century, communities throughout the world have survived and rebuilt following intensely destructive disaster encounters. Natural disasters include:

- Extreme weather - storms, floods, drought, cyclones/ hurricanes
- Bush fires
- Earthquakes
- Volcanic eruption
- Tsunami
- Disease outbreak – public health disaster
  - Influenza, HIV/AIDS
  - Dengue fever, malaria,
  - Mass food/water contamination – E. coli, salmonella, cholera

Man-made disasters include:

- Financial disasters
  - Financial market collapse,
  - Economic recession/ depression
  - Trade embargoes/ restrictions
- Territorial/ border and social disputes between factions and/or nations –
  - war/civil war
  - terrorism/ piracy/ espionage/ theft
- Environmental disasters – chemical contamination, pollution, climate change, loss of or mass contamination of food and/or water supply
- Mismanagement and/or depletion of vital resources – water, power, communications
- Operational and systems failure

The majority of the disaster threats listed above share a commonality regarding adverse impacts, and they all have the potential to cause damage to organisational infrastructure. The impact of a disease outbreak, however, has little or no impact on organisational infrastructure but could potentially have a devastating effect on the workforce. If the people behind an organisation’s recovery plans are also affected by the disease, the BCM process has the potential to collapse.
Furthermore, when looking at the list of potential disaster scenarios it is apparent that these situations vary greatly with regards the likelihood of occurrence and subsequent consequences. Natural disasters such as floods, bushfires and earthquakes tend to be localised to specific regions. However, the affects of disasters such as the current world financial crisis or a disease outbreak are capable of freely crossing international boarders and potentially impacting on the social and financial well-being of the broader global community.

To demonstrate this point further, according to ABC News Radio reports in the wake of the February 2009 bushfires in Victoria, Australia, over 1800 homes and more than 400,000 hectares of land were devastated, and fires were responsible for more than 160 fatalities. In comparison, the Spanish influenza pandemic in the early part of the twentieth century was responsible for between 30 to 40 million fatalities worldwide and impacted on a large percentage of the civilised world. Discussing the Spanish influenza pandemic in Australia in his report to the then Minister for Public Health, Paton (1920) points out that the peak of the Spanish flu pandemic in Australia occurred in mid 1919. By November that year, the pandemic was essentially over in Australia, however, it was still responsible for 6244 deaths in NSW and more than 10,000 fatalities nationwide.

Excluding the present world financial crisis, if we undertake an audit of the potential disasters currently threatening the global community, high on the list of international concerns is the occurrence of another worldwide influenza pandemic.

The definitions of terms associated with an avian influenza pandemic are listed below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Influenza (the flu)</td>
<td>A highly contagious disease of the respiratory tract caused by the influenza virus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influenza Type A</td>
<td>A virus that occurs in humans and animals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influenza Type B</td>
<td>A virus that occurs only in humans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epidemic</td>
<td>A sudden increase in the incidence of a disease affecting a large number of people and spreading over a large area.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pandemic</td>
<td>Epidemic on a global scale. Only Type A influenza viruses have been known to cause pandemic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5N1 avian influenza (bird flu)</td>
<td>Type A virus affecting birds but passable to humans following close contact with sick or dead birds. It causes severe influenza-like symptoms and may result in death.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1.

In the late 1990s the World Health Organisation (WHO) became aware of the threat of a potential influenza pandemic with the discovery of the type A virus H5N1, more commonly known as avian influenza or bird flu. According to WHO (2009), in 1997 outbreaks of highly pathogenic H5N1 were reported in poultry at farms and live animal markets in Hong Kong. Altogether 18 cases were reported in the first known instance of human infection, 6 of which were fatal. Hong Kong authorities reacted with the widespread culling of all chickens in hope of containing the virus, but it re-emerged in Thailand and Vietnam in 2004. The chart below provides an estimate of human infections since 2003:
Horvath, McKinnon and Roberts (2006) point out that avian influenza has three of the four elements that cause a pandemic:

1. It is novel (there is little immunity in the population)
2. It can infect humans
3. It causes severe disease.

It has not yet gained the fourth and essential characteristic to cause a human pandemic,

4. The ability to efficiently transmit from human to human.

Horvath et al (2006) further warn, “even if avian influenza never gains the ability to cause a pandemic, it is likely that new respiratory influenza and non-influenza viruses will continue to emerge. The Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS) virus, from the corona virus family, was one such emergent virus that caught the world by surprise”.

3. AVIAN INFLUENZA – THE AUSTRALIAN RESPONSE

The Australian Government responded quickly to the possible threat of an avian influenza pandemic, and over the past five years has invested over $600 million into disaster preparedness for such an outbreak. This investment also included $156 million to the Asia-Pacific region to develop the capacity to respond. Indonesia is currently the country most affected by avian influenza, with outbreaks in poultry occurring in most provinces. The fact that Indonesia is one of Australia’s closest neighbours, and that the movement of people between the countries is frequent, puts Australia at an increased risk of encountering an avian influenza pandemic. According to Horvath et al (2006) this heightened level of concern has prompted the Federal Government to develop strategies for assisting neighbouring countries in managing influenza pandemic preparedness. These strategies are contained in the Australian Health Management Plan for Pandemic Influenza, and the National Plan for Human Influenza Pandemic.
The Federal Government’s publication *Influenza Pandemic: Business Continuity Guide for Australian Business* identifies six phases an influenza pandemic will go through, and these are detailed below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Global phase</th>
<th>Australian Phase</th>
<th>Description of phase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inter-pandemic</td>
<td>Aus 0 Current Phase in Australia</td>
<td>No circulating animal influenza subtypes in Australia that have caused human disease.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 Overseas 1</td>
<td>Animal infection overseas: the risk of human infection or disease is considered low.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Aus 1</td>
<td>Animal infection in Australia: the risk of human infection or disease is considered low.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 Overseas 2</td>
<td>Animal infection overseas: substantial risk of human disease.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Aus 2</td>
<td>Animal infection in Australia: substantial risk of human disease.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pandemic alert</td>
<td>3 Overseas 3 Current Phase overseas</td>
<td>Human infection overseas with new subtype(s) but no human to human spread or at most rare instances of spread to a close contact.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Aus 3</td>
<td>Human infection in Australia with no human to human spread or of spread to a close contact.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4 Overseas 4</td>
<td>Human infection overseas: small cluster(s) consistent with limited human to human transmission, spread highly localised, suggesting the virus is not well adapted to humans.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Aus 4</td>
<td>Human infection in Australia: small cluster(s) consistent with limited human to human transmission, spread highly localised, suggesting the virus is not well adapted to humans.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5 Overseas 5</td>
<td>Human infection overseas: larger cluster(s) but human to human transmission still localised, suggesting the virus is becoming increasingly better adapted to humans, but may not yet be fully adapted (substantial pandemic risk).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Aus 5</td>
<td>Human infection in Australia: larger cluster(s) but human to human transmission still localised, suggesting the virus is becoming increasingly better adapted to humans, but may not yet be fully adapted (substantial pandemic risk).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pandemic</td>
<td>6 Overseas 6</td>
<td>Pandemic overseas - not in Australia: increased and sustained transmission in general population.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Aus 6a</td>
<td>Pandemic in Australia: localised (one area of country).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Aus 6b</td>
<td>Pandemic in Australia: widespread.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Aus 6c</td>
<td>Pandemic in Australia: subsided.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Aus 6d</td>
<td>Pandemic in Australia: next wave.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3. Pandemic Phases Australia and Overseas**

Referring to Table 3, the current phase designated by the WHO is Phase 3 (Overseas); Australia is technically in Phase 0.

If Australia reaches Phase 3 the Australian Government’s public health response strategy will be one of containment in the hope of preventing any further spread of the
One of the major containment strategies prescribed by the government is “social distancing”, a strategy designed to minimise any unnecessary public gatherings and movement of people. As the event sector is financially dependent on the fact that members of a society can gather in numbers and travel freely, restrictions a social distancing policy will bring will certainly cause the cancellation of almost all public events and potentially restrict local, interstate and international travel. If this occurs, it will make events industry participants highly vulnerable to the initial economic impact of a pandemic and at risk of losing all demand for services.

Apart from the Australian Government’s current influenza disaster management plans (the *Australian Health Management Plan for Pandemic Influenza*, and the *National Plan for Human Influenza Pandemic*), the Ministry of Industry, Tourism and Resources released *Influenza Pandemic: The Business Continuity Guide for Australian Businesses* in 2006. The guidelines were designed to assist Australian businesses in minimising the economic impact a pandemic would have on industry and provide information on how to manage risks to business continuity.

### 4. DISASTER/ BUSINESS CONTINUITY MANAGEMENT (BCM)

The need for organisations to integrate Business Continuity Management (BCM) into their overall risk management system has become increasingly evident in recent years. Statistics contained in the US Government’s *Gulf Coast Back to Business Act 2007* indicate that “43% of businesses that close following a disaster never reopen” and that “An additional 29% of businesses close down permanently within 2 years of a natural disaster”.

The Business Continuity Institute\(^2\) defines Business Continuity Management as “an holistic management process that identifies potential impacts that threaten an organisation (providing) a framework for building resilience and the capability for an effective response that safeguards the interests of its key stakeholders, reputation, brand and value creating activities”.

The Australian and New Zealand Standard for Business Continuity Management (BCM) HB 221:2004, describes BCM as integrated planning and management processes that “incorporate practices that have more traditionally gone under such terms as continuity, contingency and disaster recovery planning into an organisation-wide activity. However, business continuity management goes beyond the traditional (and often isolated) process of just writing a continuity or recovery plan. Today’s view on business continuity management, according to Standards Australia, is about managing risk, provid(ing) for business success and (being a) powerful force for business sustainability”.

As with the outcome of all organisational risk management planning practices, the process of BCP should culminate in the development of a formal business continuity manual. Such a manual should be made available to key personnel for reference before, during and after a disaster; it will need to consider the disruption's scope (who

\(^2\) The Business Continuity Institute is an industry association for Business Continuity professionals established in 1994 – [http://www.thebci.org/certificationstandards.htm](http://www.thebci.org/certificationstandards.htm)
and what it affects) and duration (how bad, how long the implications last – hours, months etc). A business continuity manual will also need to suit an individual organisation’s core business, size, nature of operations and technological/communication needs etc.

As the core business of events industry participants varies greatly with regards to their structures and the services they offer, it is impossible to provide a one size fits all Business Continuity Plan. However, the Australian Standard, AS/NZS HB 293 – 2006 *Executive Guide to Business Continuity Management* recommends nine key steps be considered when undertaking the BCM process. These nine steps can apply to all industry sectors.

**Step 1. Commencement**
- Awareness
- Commitment
- Program Management

**Step 2. Risk and Vulnerability Analysis**
- Risk Assessment
- Scenario Development
- Vulnerability Assessment

**Step 3. Business Impact Assessment**
- Identify Critical Business Function (CBF)
- Determine Impact
- Identify Resources

**Step 4. Response Strategies**
- Emergency Response
- Continuity Phase
- Recovery Phase

**Step 5. Collating Resources and Interdependencies**
- Resource Reconciliation
- Dependency Mapping
- Capability Matching

**Step 6. Plan Documentation**
- Guiding Principles
- Content Development
- Plan Structure

**Step 7. Communications Strategy**
- Stakeholder Needs
- Perception
- Engagement
Step 8. Maintenance
- Understand
- Performance
- Assurance

Step 9. Activation and Deployment

The interrelationship between these steps requires ongoing communication between all stakeholders and a strict regime of monitoring and reviewing the process. This process is further demonstrated in the diagram below.


There is no shortage of information, resources or examples of Business Continuity Management Plans available on the Internet. The BCM process applies standard risk management principles as outlined in the Australian Standard for Risk Management AS/NZS - 4360 and should form part of an organisation’s health and safety risk management system, i.e. a contingency for emergency preparedness and response.
As mentioned previously, the impact from diseases can be regarded as purely human and tends to have almost no effect on a business’s organisational infrastructure; it can potentially be managed with technical and business solutions. However, if an avian influenza outbreak affects the people behind an organisation’s recovery plans, the impact could be crippling. Subsequently, when overlaying BCM onto a pandemic scenario, a greater focus on identifying key personnel and preparing for staff absences should be considered.

The Australian Government publication, *Influenza Pandemic: The Business Continuity Guidelines for Australian Businesses* identifies all of the same key elements as outlined in the Australian Standard for *Business Continuity Management* but places a greater emphasis on staff absences. The guideline recommends that six steps be considered when undertaking BCM covering a possible pandemic scenario, and are as follows:

- **Step 1:** Identify your business’s core people and skills
- **Step 2:** Establish a pandemic planning team
- **Step 3:** Plan for staff absences
- **Step 4:** Consider the effects of supply shortages on operations
- **Step 5:** Establish and maintain two-way communication
- **Step 6:** Consider human resource issues
- **Step 7:** Test your plan and know when to activate it

The fact that potential government restrictions could create a lack of demand for event industry services will require organisations to also consider laying off non-essential personnel as well as developing financial contingency plans for the management of business debt, typically ongoing business running costs, loan repayments, rent etc. For this reason, an events industry Business Continuity Plan will need to consider the short, medium and long-term financial needs of an organisation for maintaining operations and communications until government and consumer confidence is restored.

**5. EVENTS INDUSTRY SURVEY**

In March 2009 a telephone survey of events industry organisations was conducted as part of this research. Fifty businesses were randomly selected from the members’ list of the Meetings and Events Australia website. The organisations were contacted and asked to participate in the survey. The person speaking on behalf of the company had to have knowledge of the organisation’s policies and procedures relating to risk management. Of the fifty organisations contacted, 98% agreed to participate in the survey.

The entire sample group was asked the question. "Does your organisation have a documented Business Continuity Plan in place covering the likelihood of either man-made or natural disasters?"
If the survey participant answered yes to this question, they were asked a second question. “Does your organisation’s Business Continuity Plan include policies and procedures for a possible influenza pandemic?”

The results of a telephone survey revealed that 95% of the fifty events industry organisations surveyed did not have a formal Business Continuity Management Plan in place. Out of that 5% that did have a Business Continuity Management Plan, only 2% of these organisations included BCP for a potential influenza pandemic.

6. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Disasters have been affecting Australia for thousands of years. Since the start of the new millennium the country has experienced floods, drought and bushfires, but was fortunate to escape the full impact of the SARS outbreak and the 2004 tsunami that devastated a large number of neighbouring countries.

The findings from the review of current research literature and disaster preparedness publications highlight the need for organisations to be aware of potential disasters threatening the continuity to their core business and to develop a systematic approach to BCM.

The results of BCP should culminate in the development of a formal business continuity manual that forms part of an organisation’s risk management system. BCP also needs to take into account the different disaster scenarios that potentially threaten the industry, and incorporate specific disaster characteristics into the design of a business continuity manual, specifically an influenza pandemic.

This paper has focused predominantly on disaster preparedness for an avian influenza pandemic because of the potentially devastating consequences a social distancing policy would have on the events sector, and the increasing likelihood of a pandemic occurring. However, an organisation should also consider BCP for less widespread disasters such as fire, floods, loss/ theft of vital data etc. The impact an avian influenza pandemic will have on the country’s economy will be governed by the successes or failures of the Australian Government’s Disaster Management Planning. It will also be reliant on the ability of industry participants to survive the initial financial losses incurred through restrictions and comply with a new and more stringent risk management regime likely to be enforced by government agencies.

A widespread lack of industry preparedness will not only affect the economic sustainability of individual industry participants but might also hinder the recovery process of the broader Australian events industry. If the connected industries that service the event production process are affected and fail to reopen, the industry’s capability to provide services once a disaster has past will be greatly affected.

The research does not profess to be conclusive in its findings but has attempted to identify potential disasters presently threatening the Australia events sector, and highlights the importance of developing a systematic approach to the management of BCP. It should be noted however, the purpose of this paper is not to create an
environment of fear around the likelihood and consequences of disasters, but to provide tools and information to manage the risks associated with such events.

Although there is a great deal of information and resources relating to BCP freely available, the findings indicate the industry may not be aware of these resources, or that industry participants do not take identified threats seriously. Either way, the findings suggest a greater level of information on potential threats and disaster mitigation strategies needs to be made available to event industry participants. This could be achieved through utilising professional industry bodies and associations such as MEA, ISES, EEAA, and ACEM3.

The author is planning to undertake post graduate research into event industry BCP early in 2010 with the aim of clearly identifying event industry participants and assessing the economic impact of different disaster scenarios, particularly the threat of an influenza pandemic. It is believed that by undertaking industry and economic BCP modelling in line with the Government’s disaster/risk mitigation strategies, the industry would be in a better position to sustain a number of the adverse economic impacts following the occurrence of such a disaster.

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SUSTAINING EVENTS IN PROTECTED AREAS

Jack Carlsen, Roy Jones, Alan Pilgrim and Colin Ingram
Curtin University

Abstract

This working paper will draw upon data from secondary sources in Western Australia in order to profile events in Protected Areas (PAs) and the known or likely environmental impacts of these events.

A framework for monitoring the environmental management of events based on the Pressure-State-Response (PSR) model is proposed. Research by Jones et al (2008) revealed that event organisers were keen to avoid any increase in bureaucratic processes in relation to the approval process and environmental management of events, so a simple PSR model could be implemented through the development of a ‘user friendly’ environmental checklist. This could be developed as a template to provide all the detail required in applying for environmental approval, as well as a management tool for evaluating the environmental impacts of events.

An example of environmental management of a whitewater event that takes place partially within WA NPs is described and discussed. The Northam Avon Descent is a 134 km whitewater event for paddle and power craft down the Avon and Swan Rivers, with a substantial section (27 km) of the race taking place through the Avon Valley and Walyunga National Parks. An estimated 30,000 spectators view the race from various vantage points along the river, and a substantial flow of vehicular and pedestrian traffic occurs within the NPs during the event. The most challenging sections of whitewater, Championships, Syds and Bells Rapids, are within the NPs, and it is necessary for all 2,500 members of the support crews as well as a proportion of 2,500 volunteer staff to be in attendance in case of mishap. This places inordinate pressure on the park infrastructure and facilities, yet the race is well-managed in terms of transport and waste management and there is an Avon Descent Environmental Management Plan in place to manage impacts on the river, the river banks and the flood plain.

BACKGROUND

To date, there are no nationally consistent policies for managing events in protected areas (PAs), despite their potential to have a greater environmental impact than events staged in commercial venues. Furthermore, the number of events, seminars and functions in PAs appears to be significant, yet little is known about their impacts or the implications of these outdoor events in PAs, nor how to place them on a more sustainable footing.

In Western Australia, The Department of Environment and Conservation (DEC) is the State government agency responsible for the management of protected areas in Western
Australia under the Conservation and Land Management Act 1984 (CALM Act) and the Conservation and Land Management Regulations 2002 (CALM Regulations).

Under the CALM Regulations it is an offence to, without lawful authority, organise, promote or conduct any event involving cross country running, orienteering, rogaining, cross country navigation exercises, equestrian events, vessel races, car rallies or associated navigation exercise, mountain bike event or any event involving vehicles on or through DEC-managed land. There are also certain regulations regarding areas where dogs and horses are permitted, where abseiling activities can occur, and others concerning commercial activities.

DEC’s Policy Statement 18 – Recreation, Tourism and Visitor Services also provides guidelines on the management of educational or non-commercial leisure events and activities, and on competitive adventure and extreme sport activities. Some of the issues that the department considers when assessing applications to conduct events includes its consistency with the purpose of the protected areas and with the preservation of natural values, the risks and impacts of the event on other user groups, if it will cause any significant or unacceptable environmental damage, its impact on any other heritage and cultural values, and its consistency with the area’s management plan.

DEC is currently in the process of reviewing this policy due to the increasing number of applications to conduct events of a commercial nature. This working paper will draw upon data from secondary sources in Western Australia in order to profile events in PAs and describe the known or likely environmental impacts of these events. Based on information from the Department of Environment and Conservation, there has been over 600 applications for licenses or permits to hold commercial and non-commercial events, seminars and functions between 2004 and 2008, in areas from the Kimberley and Pilbara to the Goldfields, Southwest and Southern Regions. These events, seminars and functions include motor sports (car shows, rallying, motor biking, power boating); adventure sports (adventure racing, swimming, surfing, diving, orienteering, running, bushwalking, horse riding, canoeing, caving, abseiling, dog-sled racing) and social events (golf, educational, training and community association). A variety of organisations in the public and private sector stage these events, seminars and functions for commercial and non-commercial purposes. An example of environmental management of a whitewater event that takes place partially within PAs is described and discussed.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Systematic assessment of the environmental impacts of events in PAs such as this is lacking and there is no agreed framework for monitoring and managing impacts. Jones et al (2008) suggest that the PSR model has potential for application to events and the development of pressure and state indicators as well as appropriate management responses. In recent years Ecological Footprint Analysis has been used to measure the environmental impact of special events (although none of these examples have been
within NPs or PAs. For example, Collins et al (2005) used the methodology to examine the environmental impact of the FA Cup Final while Wong (2005), applied Ecological Footprint Analysis in an effort to determine the environmental impact of a annual music festival. While this can be a useful methodology in assessing impacts after an event, Jones et al (2008) suggest the use of a Pressure-State-Response (PSR) model to assist in the implementation and monitoring of appropriate environmental management strategies. ‘Pressure indicators’ would reflect the likely impacts of all activities associated with a special event, with response indicators reflecting the regulations, controls and standards administered by the host organization (most likely local government) in order to minimise the risk of adverse environmental outcomes. Furthermore, although the research by Jones et al (2008) revealed that event organisers were keen to avoid any increase in bureaucratic processes in relation to the approval process and environmental management of events, a simple PSR model could be implemented through the development of a ‘user friendly’ environmental checklist. This could be developed as a template to provide all the detail required in applying for environmental approval, as well as a management tool for evaluating environmental impacts.

EVENTS IN PROTECTED AREAS

Jones et al (2008) have documented the environmental impacts of selected events in Western Australia, including an event that was partially staged within PAs. Environmental impacts arose from traffic and transportation, energy use, food consumption, waste management, water use, water and air pollution, ecological impacts and noise. Event organisers and hosts identified the most important of these to be transport (traffic and parking), waste management (litter and toilet facilities) and noise. However, event organisers considered environmental impacts resulting from provision of power, air pollution, environmental risks and harm as less significant. In addition, event organisers (with the exception of the Avon Descent) did not favour development of an environmental checklist for their events, preferring to focus on the most expeditious and cost effective means of meeting any environmental management requirements for nature-based events in WA.

The Northam Avon Descent (NAD) is a 134 km whitewater event for paddle and power craft down the Avon and Swan rivers, with a substantial section (27 km) of the race taking place through the Avon Valley and Walyunga National Parks. An estimated 30,000 spectators view the race from various vantage points along the river, and a substantial flow of vehicular and pedestrian traffic occurs within the PAs during the event. The most challenging sections of whitewater, Championships, Syds and Bells Rapids, are within the PAs, and it necessary for all 2,500 members of the support crews as well as a proportion of the 2,500 volunteer staff to be in attendance in case of mishap. This places inordinate pressure on the park infrastructure and facilities, yet the race is well-managed in terms of transport and waste management and there is an Avon Descent Environmental Management Plan in place to manage impacts on the river, the river banks and the flood plain.
Environmental management includes a checklist used by the Northam Avon Descent Association in consultation with the Department of Conservation, which has an ongoing program to protect and restore riparian vegetation. Anecdotal evidence suggests that the event has considerable impact on the river foreshore which more than offsets the funding and efforts of environmental groups in their conservation and restoration programs. The local Shire Officers from Toodyay also exert considerable efforts to control any illegal four-wheel driving and camping that is associated with the event.

**DISCUSSION**

The Avon Descent is really the exception to what is happening elsewhere with events in PAs. It is a well organised and essentially commercial but not for profit and long running event that has evolved its expertise and knowledge over many years of running the event, including good efforts in environmental management. There are more of these commercial events produced as business opportunities and while it appears that most of the participants are generally environmentally conscious, the event organisers are inexperienced, lack resources, not environmentally aware, financially driven and lacking in appreciation of park management issues.

**REFERENCES**


THE IMPORTANCE OF HOLISTIC EVALUATION IN ENSURING EVENT SUSTAINABILITY

Leo Jago and Margaret Deery
Victoria University

Abstract

Over the last two decades, an increasing number of destinations have recognised the importance of events for supporting or developing their tourism industry. Events are seen as an important means of attracting visitors to a region to attend the event as well as a mechanism for raising the profile of a region to enhance long term visitation. As a consequence, the growth in the number of events on offer in many regions has experienced meteoric growth and there is now real concern in some regions about the sustainability of these events.

Event evaluations have been common place particularly for larger events since the early 1980s but most of these have adopted a purely economic focus (a summary of these methods is provided in Jago and Dwyer, 2006). Many of them have been undertaken simply to examine the size of the injection of new funds into the region and there has been concern that some of them have used techniques that tend to overstate their impact. As the growth in events has been so substantial in many regions, there has been pressure on government and sponsors to identify the events that are likely to have the largest possible economic impact on the region so that these are the events that receive most support. This very narrow focus of evaluation, however, does little to ensure the sustainability of the event sector.

Despite the fact that events have such potential to attract tourists to the host region, the overwhelming majority of events are patronised largely by local residents. For an event to be sustainable, therefore, it must maintain the support of the local community, indeed, one of the key attractors to events, particularly festivals, for tourists is to experience a local phenomenon with local residents; this is seen by many visitors to greatly enhance the experience. As a consequence of this, there has been a small but growing interest over the last decade in trying to assess the impact that events have on local communities, which is so important in trying to ensure that events remain viable (see for example, Lade and Jackson, 2004).

Although there is still no widely accepted approach to assessing the impact of events on the local community, the authors have used a subjective scale on a large number of host communities over the last ten years (Fredline, Jago and Deery, 2003; 2006; Fredline, Raybold, Jago and Deery, 2004). This paper reviews the key outcomes from these social impact analyses and examines the contribution that these studies have made to enhancing the sustainability of events. In-depth interviews were then conducted with some key stakeholders involved in staging events to explore their views of the role of community impact assessments in the sustainability of events.

These interviews confirmed the importance of community assessments but were unanimous in concern regarding the cost of undertaking this task. As so many events
run on very tight budgets, it is very difficult to find the funds for even basic marketing research to ensure that events stay in touch with attendee needs let alone the needs of the local community.

The paper concludes with recommendations as to how this issue can be addressed.

References


THE CONTRIBUTION OF AN EVENTS PROGRAMME TO SUSTAINABLE HERITAGE CONSERVATION: A STUDY OF THE NATIONAL TRUST IN ENGLAND

Dorothy Fox and Nicola Johnston
Bournemouth University

Abstract

Whilst for many nations progressing a sustainable development agenda is a priority, for others, conserving their existing socio-natural heritage in a sustainable way may be significant. In the United Kingdom, the National Trust, a charitable organisation, supports its extensive conservation role through a wide-ranging programme of events each year. This study explores the various ways in which these events have been developed to contribute to sustainable heritage conservation.

The method for this case study consisted of the collection and analysis of both primary and secondary data. The former obtained through in-depth interviews with key personnel within the National Trust, with secondary data from the National Trust and other sources used in support.

The findings show the Trust’s events play a vital role in educating the public in sustainability, in respect of both natural and cultural heritage. The interview participants revealed that the events are conceived in two main ways – first, a top-down approach whereby events relate to a national organisational campaign and secondly, events which develop from the bottom-up and reflect the uniqueness of each of the Trust’s properties.

This study therefore extends the prevailing approach to events and sustainable development by considering the very positive contribution of an events programme to heritage conservation, which has implications for other conservation bodies throughout the world.

Keywords:
Sustainable conservation; National Trust; socio-natural heritage; cultural heritage; events programme

INTRODUCTION

The ‘canary in the mine’

The emergence of initiatives under a banner of sustainable development can be traced through key movements, beginning for example, with the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization’s Man and the Biosphere Programme (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, 2009). Since then there has been increasing recognition of a broad characterisation of sustainable development with three core elements - economic, social and environmental. It is observed that ‘to more fully understand sustainability and what is to be sustained, the world we live in
must be conceived as a whole, as landscapes and ecosystems in which humans and nature co-evolve and are inextricably linked’ (Miller and Twining-Ward, 2005, p. 3-4).

Recognition, that policies could be based on economic prosperity, environmental quality and social equity, led to the development of the ‘triple bottom line’ (Elkington, 1994) in which ecological and social performances are considered in addition to financial accountability. In the private sector, a commitment to some form of triple bottom line reporting implies recognition of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR). Whilst there are many definitions of CSR, Hirschland (2006, p.5) suggests that they all ‘speak to some basic forms of jobs, growth, philanthropy, law abidance, environmental stewardship, rights protections, and other expectations’.

The United Kingdom (UK) government has been at the forefront of adopting sustainable development principles (Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs, 2005) and in the events industry, there have also been considerable developments including the launch in 2007 of BS 8901, a new British Standard for planning exhibitions and events on a sustainable basis (British Standards Institute, 2009).

For many nations progressing a sustainable development agenda is a priority in order to protect their natural environment, but for the UK, where there is little or no pristine nature, conserving the existing socio-natural heritage (Fox and Edwards, 2008) in a sustainable way is also significant. Furthermore, as the Global Development Research Center (2009) notes, conservation relates to historical and cultural assets as well as ecological.

In the UK, the National Trust has a key conservation role and is one of the foremost heritage conservation bodies in the world. Founded in 1895, it is a charitable organisation which is completely independent of government (The National Trust, 2007). Its activities are supported through a wide-ranging programme of events, many of which contribute to sustainable heritage conservation. The Trust’s extensive responsibilities for the environment and socio-economic values put them in a unique position to be at the forefront of developing sustainable heritage conservation practices. Rob Jarman, Head of Sustainability and Environmental Practices for the National Trust stated ‘We are essentially visionary, and recognise that we are the ‘canary in the mine’; we have to tell it true and tell it straight – to government and to everyone’ (Jarman, 2004).

This study therefore considers how the National Trust develops their events programme to support their role in sustainable heritage conservation.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

**Developing programmes of events**

MacLeod (2006) identifies three phases of special event development based on the concept of place. First, festivals as celebrations of social groups and communities,
with many associated with ancient ritual or a religious calendar. Rolfe (1992) notes however, that the largest proportion of arts festivals were founded from the mid-1970’s onwards, but that these too celebrate or reaffirm community or culture. The second phase reflects the promoting of an event, initially designed for the consumption of a host community, to visitors. Nonetheless ‘when festivals and other special events are consciously developed and promoted as tourist attractions, there is a risk that commercialisation will detract from celebration; that entertainment or spectacle will replace the inherent meanings of the celebrations’ (Getz, 1994, p. 313). The final phase shifts from the event visitor being an ““incidental outsider” … seeking an authentic experience with local place and identity’ (MacLeod, 2006 p. 232) to an attendee at ‘a range of placeless global festivals [which] have appeared in the last decade to meet the demands of the international festival visitor, address destination-marketing strategies, and satisfy income generation targets’ (ibid.). The event then changes from ‘celebration to spectacle, from production to consumption’ (Ravenscroft & Matteucci, 2003, p. 4).

Some events have been ‘rediscovered’ or rejuvenated whilst others are newly conceptualised in response to prevailing political, social and economic conditions (Picard and Robinson, 2006). In diasporic communities, festivals and other events can provide identity and perceptibility within the host community (Long et al., 2004). Events can address ‘issues of civic design, local pride and identity, heritage, conservation, urban renewal, employment generation, investment and economic development’ (Derrett, 2004, p. 33). Furthermore, they can be used to extend tourist seasons, lengthen the peak season or introduce a ‘new season’ into the life of a community (Getz, 1997).

Despite the academic attention to the rationale for organising events and festivals, much less attention has been given to the development of event programme strategies. An exception is that of Edinburgh, Scotland. Events are seen in Scotland as a part of the product portfolio for attracting identified target markets to the country (Stewart, 2006). Ali-Knight and Robertson (2004) describe how the City of Edinburgh Council developed an Events Strategy in tandem with the Edinburgh Festivals Strategy in 2001. Its key aims were to achieve a year-round programme of cultural festivals and events to complement the pre-eminent international festival programme in the world that is held each summer, achieving an equally high level of quality and diversity as well as the involvement of the city’s citizens.

**METHOD**

This study sought to identify how a programme of events is developed and can contribute to sustainable heritage conservation within the National Trust. ‘Case studies are the preferred method when (a) “how” or “why” questions are being posed, (b) the investigator has little control over events, and (c) the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon within a real life context’ (Yin, 2009, p.2). A case study is therefore an appropriate methodology for this research and in this instance consisted of the collection and analysis of both primary and secondary data. Secondary data were collected from two principal resources, National Trust media, (both paper and web-based sources) and research undertaken on behalf of the Trust by the Market
Research Group (‘mrg’) a commercial research agency at Bournemouth University, England. Based on the second author’s experience of leading this research, a purposeful sample was made of personnel in the organisation from whom primary data could be usefully obtained. This was undertaken through face-to-face and telephone interviews with the Head of Sustainability, the Social Marketing Campaigns Manager, a Regional Marketing and Supporter Development Manager and Visitor Services Managers at several properties. Some interviews were recorded with the interviewee’s permission and the participant’s own words are quoted below (in italics). All the data were then themed as an outcome of categorisation and analytic reflection (Saldaña, 2009). For the purposes of this paper, details of just four properties are given, as being interesting and representative examples of National Trust properties.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The National Trust and sustainability

The National Trust is a charitable organisation, founded in 1895 for ‘the preservation of places of historic interest or natural beauty’ (The National Trust, 2007). There are currently 3.5 million members and 50 million visitors every year to National Trust properties, which include over 300 historic houses, gardens and open-air properties. It holds over 612,000 acres (248,000 hectares) of countryside and 700 miles of coastline. The Trust’s purpose is to conserve the socio-natural and cultural heritage ‘for ever, for everyone’ (National Trust, 2008). In line with this mandate, access to properties is encouraged through attraction and event visiting. In 2007-08 events directly contributed £1.5 million (National Trust, 2009).

The National Trust appointed their first Head of Sustainability and Environmental Practices, Rob Jarman, in 2002. In a telephone interview he described his role as a brief:

‘to develop policies and practices which help the Trust to reduce its environmental footprint’.

As he noted:

‘we have other people working on the social and economic agendas’.

The Trust is now adopting the approach of Corporate Social Responsibility but as Jarman revealed when interviewed, it is proving:

‘…quite interesting for the Trust to stick to the principles of triple bottom line approaches...because ironically the Trust talks an awful lot about being here for the long-term, for ever and so on, but in fact, most of its business decisions are short term.’

He continued that until recently the Trust had taken short-term economic decisions, as adopting a triple bottom line is as hard for the National Trust as any other major
business, because it has to answer to members, trustees, the Charity Commissioners amongst others:

‘when it comes to making investment decisions... pay-back is just as valid as it is to a commercial enterprise and one of our sustainability principles is that the Trust has to survive as a viable organisation’.

He acknowledged:

‘we haven’t been particularly good at taking long-term financial decisions.’

When asked is that changing, he replied:

‘Yes absolutely, yes, that’s one of the successes in recent years is to get that shift, for example, when reservicing our major properties we will now install renewables that have pay-backs in 11 to 20 years...until 6 to7 years ago we were taking pay-back decisions which were 3 -5 years.’

He offered as an example how previously oil boilers had been installed, whereas today they use wood-pellet systems and solar panels on roofs.

Jarman identified two key issues influencing changes in their practice. The first is a difficulty in obtaining the necessary Life Cycle Analysis information for products and services:

‘... we’re using the best information to hand, but often to try and get Life Cycle Analysis information – it doesn’t exist because industry hasn’t done the work, so to be truly sustainable there is still a need for better product labelling, descriptions and so on.’

However, as the ‘canary in the mine’ he argued that the Trust have a duty to use their properties experimentally, to seek understanding of adapting to climate change and other aspects of change:

‘The argument we had to win internally is what are Trust properties for, either for preservation in which case they mustn’t change or they are for learning how we adapt to change.’

A further difficulty for the organisation is to balance the needs of the members and those of the properties. Jarman, when asked if this was a problem, said:

‘Constantly... there is no consistency as to what...members want the Trust to be and expect from it and many of them are what we might call ‘club’ supporters, they’re not particularly members of the cause, they’ve joined because they get a good deal and access to enjoyable places to go... We listen to our members, but they are not shareholders, in the sense that we don’t make decisions which are made by members, we make decisions which are made by Trustees on the basis of a lot of weighing up of the pros and cons.’
He continued though:

‘our hope is through experiencing Trust properties they pick up the environmental and conservation and other issues and start to think more about them and what they themselves should be doing about it’.

McGregor suggests that at the operational level managers of heritage visitor attractions ‘have found it difficult to relate the broad concept of sustainability to their own activities’ (McGregor, 1999, p. 192). Jarman, confirmed this:

‘The main issue we’re trying to resolve is the travel and transport issue – we’re very worried about the carbon footprint of Trust visitors and we’ve tried over the years many ways of investing in and helping with public transport etcetera, we give all the guidance we can to visitors in our guide book about how to get there without using the car but inevitably with cheap fuel and convenience it’s what members do…When we organise events we will do what we can in terms of advising people on how to get there.’

In relation to events, he admitted that the Trust has not considered adopting the new British Standard for planning exhibitions and events on a sustainable basis (BS 8901). He concluded his interview by saying:

‘You’ve made me think around what event sustainability should be about and perhaps this is a gap which we are not doing enough about’.

**Developing a programme of events**

The secondary data, including the organisation’s web pages, show the extent and diversity of the range of events held at National Trust properties throughout the year and which offer a variety of experiences for members and non-members. The interview participants revealed that the events are conceived in two main ways – first, a top-down approach whereby events relate to a national campaign and secondly, events which develop from the bottom-up and reflect the uniqueness of each of the properties.

The Trust has communication messages that currently drive all contact and engagement with members and supporters and are integral to the National Trust strategy for three years. These messages are Green Living; Local Food; Nature & Wildlife and Cultural Heritage. Lucy Bendon, Supporter Campaigns Manager explained how these issues were tested on different National Trust visitors, identified by a marketing segmentation exercise commissioned by the Trust from a consultancy firm in 2006/2007. Questions known as ‘Golden Questions’ form part of the annual National Trust Visitor Survey managed by the ‘mrg’ and are used to establish into which segment visitors fall. There are seven segments; ‘Live life to the full’, ‘Out and About’, ‘Young experience seekers’, ‘Curious Minds’, ‘Home & Family’, ‘Kids First families’ and ‘Explorer families’.
‘Explorer families’, for example, are a particularly important segment to the Trust; not only because they are one of the largest, but also because of their propensity to develop into other segments as they age and their strong loyalty and commitment to the Trust. Focus group research in February 2008 tested the ‘Green Living’ message. ‘Explorer families’ were the most receptive to green issues, however the research concluded that visitors did not want to be ‘preached’ to by the Trust on environmental issues. They saw visits to Trust properties as quality time with their family, rather than an opportunity for learning about saving the planet. They expected the Trust to lead by example in running events in a sustainable way.

The segmentation exercise is a valuable tool for the properties to be able to market events for specific audiences and Bendon described the three themes that have been developed out of it and the communication messages. In 2009, the Trust is promoting events throughout the country created around the themes of ‘Wild Child’ – discovering the wild child within, ‘Food Glorious Food’ – a celebration of local and seasonal food and ‘Treasure Forever’ - uncovering the captivating and unusual stories of objects in the National Trust’s care.

Food Glorious Food, for example, is the largest of the three themes and is to be a major campaign from May through to October 2009. Countrywide, 150 properties are taking part, with each property supported by their region and nationally, to hold events linked to this theme. Each property is diverse and has a different capacity for holding events, therefore themes are not imposed directly but properties are encouraged to create their own events in the most appropriate way and to use the national themes to enhance local promotions or advertising of their events.

Properties have been given suggestions for events linking each of the issues to particular visitor segments. So for example, under the issue of Food Glorious Food, a suggested ‘Explorer family’ activity is an event titled ‘Budding Gardeners’. Families are encouraged into a walled vegetable garden to plant a seed and then take it home to grow. Further support through the internal intranet provides property staff with guidance, logos and materials, such as banners and posters available through the central office.

In contrast to this ‘top-down’ approach, managers can also organise their own events programme that is individual to their property, i.e. it comes from the ‘bottom-up’. In the following sections, the approach to event design undertaken at four Trust properties is discussed.

**Kingston Lacy, Dorset**

Kingston Lacy is an elegant country mansion, set in attractive formal gardens, extensive parkland and 12 working farms, spread over 3,200 hectares (8,000 acres). Ralph Bankes bequeathed Kingston Lacy in the Trust’s largest ever bequest in 1981 (National Trust, 2009).

The Visitor Services Manager (VSM) there, described how the property holds numerous events every year. The property prints 60,000, 20 page leaflets a year,
which provide details of the events and are distributed within a 20 mile radius of the Estate, from where the majority of their visitors come. In 2009, there are about 40 events for able-bodied visitors and 50-60 for visitors with disabilities. He explained:

‘we draw the difference because there are a lot of areas of the estate, that people who have mobility difficulties, sight problems, who have carers... are unable to access in the normal run of things.’

He added that tractor and trailer rides are organised and run by volunteers, on a trailer especially designed and built so that wheelchairs can roll on to it and carers can sit beside the occupants and neither has to miss the events of the estate through the season.

Reflecting the bottom-up approach, he described how many events are focused towards aspects of the house and estate that they want to highlight. For example, the garden is one of the few Edwardian gardens owned by the Trust, so they tend to focus on the late Victorian and Edwardian periods. A popular event, taking place each August, is the Edwardian Sports Day, when parents and children visit and take part in traditional races, such as three-legged and wheelbarrow races, the VSM described how:

‘we give them bright shiny half-crowns for winning.’

Other events include one he described as:

‘Upstairs, downstairs, meet the servants.’

This focuses mainly on the laundry because the property has one of only two magnificently preserved Edwardian laundries.

He added:

‘What makes us look at an event which is not going to be hugely profitable such as the Edwardian Sports Day is that it is promoting an aspect of the house which we want people to appreciate. It’s part of finding other ways to interpret what we do as the National Trust...events where we promote the house do not in our view have a profit necessity built-in, but we would like them to break-even.’

However, economic considerations are still important. An outdoor event, entitled ‘Enchanted nights’ had to be withdrawn because not only was it weather dependent but also gaining media attention meant the difference between making a £6,000 profit or just breaking even - a risk they could not afford to take.

Other local considerations in planning the programme include the interests and specialist knowledge of staff and volunteers. So for example, they might consider an event around an interest in photography. The VSM, part seriously, but part jokingly said:
‘if you look at all the talents, we will try to use them because we exploit ruthlessly wherever we can’.

He added that people volunteer because of their:

‘joy of the place and the love of communicating that joy’

Some events are collaborations with local partners, for example, a tree-planting event was held in association with the company who undertakes their recycling after an approach by them.

The VSM identified that that there can be problems in combining the organisation’s ‘top-down’ programme with their own. He described how details of the three themes were not launched to mid-January 2009, by which time their programme was decided. The property then added more events to match the Trust’s schedule on a national basis, but which were too late to include in their events leaflet. However, fortunately, he acknowledged, the programmes occasionally coincide, for example, one of the Farmers Markets at Kingston Lacy happens to take place during the launch week of ‘Food Glorious Food’.

Of the seven identified marketing segments, the VSM described the three that form the core of Kingston Lacy’s visitors. Primarily, they are ‘Curious Minds’, ‘Explorer families’ and ‘Out and About’.

‘All have different ways of interpreting the assets that the Trust has, what we strive to do is to present the property so that it is accessible or meaningful for … all of those people’

He constantly thinks how the programme of events supports the Trust’s conservation role, but notes heritage sustainability can have differences:

‘…in the house, people seem to think it’s England in aspic, we’re preserving things, but the last thing you can do in the countryside is preserve it, you have to work with it’.

In terms of the sustainability of the events he stated:

‘We know as far as possible, everything we do is sourced locally… we recycle, we tend to look at, as far as possible, reusable events, which is maybe why we repeat them, so that things we have used can be reused the following year and we look at the way other people will see these events, so we’re aware that it is an increasing concern for people that we don’t use plastic cups, for example, we recycle paper cups.’

He concluded:
We engage everyone that comes here into the way the Trust operates; its values, the qualities it espouses and the relevance... to their lives. If they had an enjoyable time and they learnt something that they found relevant to them, or they found interesting it will bring them back again... We keep always on the side of charming, enchanting, amazing and entertaining, which I think our goal is.

Dunham Massey, Cheshire

Dunham Massey was acquired by the Trust in 1976 from Lord Stamford, the tenth Earl of Stamford who died that year. It is a mansion with important collections and a fascinating ‘below stairs’ area, set in a large country estate and deer park, with a rich and varied garden (National Trust, 2009).

Sarah Talbot the Visitor Services Manager there said that ‘The Food Glorious Food’ campaign has been particularly challenging because it does not have a vegetable garden or orchards accessible to the public, from which to promote local food. She stated that the team have nonetheless been very enthusiastic in adopting the campaign. For example, they are organising a Planting Weekend that will specifically target ‘Explorer families’. The Trust supplies pumpkin seeds, soil and materials for visitors to form seed pots, sow the seeds and then take them home to grow them. There will then be another event during October when visitors are invited back to show off their home-grown pumpkins and enter them into a Biggest Pumpkin competition whilst enjoying other Halloween activities.

Talbot described how the property runs a variety of events through the year including ‘How do they’… events looking at how the conservation team maintain Dunham. A notable addition to the ‘bottom-up’ events programme was a series of events through which the Trust sought to ascertain local residents’ views, as to the future of the property. When Lord Stamford left Dunham Massey to the National Trust in 1976, he had always intended for a section of the land to be sold in order to create an endowment to safeguard, in perpetuity, the rest of the Estate. The land, known as Stamford Brook, is in the Broadheath area of Altrincham, and forms under 2.5% of the total area of the estate. Following the public consultation the National Trust and the developers have sought to create:

A sustainable and imaginative development of new homes in a new landscape, which integrates with the surrounding environment, and aims to be a safe, healthy and inspiring place in which to live, work and to have as a neighbour. A place and community that will evolve, mature and rejuvenate, and serve as an exemplar of sustainable development over many decades (National Trust, 2009).

The properties at Stamford Brook are of traditional brick and block cavity construction under a tiled roof. The development seeks to use existing techniques and traditional building methods to improve energy efficiency and reduce carbon dioxide emissions. The river and wildlife corridors will remain as National Trust land as part of the Dunham Massey estate. Finally, the Estate also receives ground rent from the
Stamford Brook development and the sale of the land allowed for a substantial capital sum to be invested. This has been ring-fenced and cannot be spent, but Dunham Massey can use the interest, so allowing it to be one of the few National Trust properties in a secure financial position.

Environmental sustainability is as important as economic sustainability and Talbot also discussed their concerns about the sustainability of holding events because 89% of their visitors arrive by car. They are therefore working with neighbouring properties to promote cycle paths and encourage multiple visits with discounted entry at each property if arriving by bicycle.

**Attingham Park, Shropshire**

Attingham Park is an elegant 18th-century mansion with Regency interiors, set in an extensive Humphry Repton landscape with deer park. The property was acquired in 1947 by the Trust from the Berwick family.

Attingham is also running a varied event itinerary throughout the year developed from the national themes but as Catherine Turnbull, its VSM, described when interviewed, one of its largest events in 2009, has developed from the ‘bottom-up’ and is an outdoor exhibition titled, “Give me Shelter”. This explores the changing relationship between man and the world’s land, wildlife and natural resources through sculptures located in the grounds of the property. The exhibition itself highlights and examines the contradictory relationship with the natural world: ‘we exploit and ruin it, yet we romanticise it and rely upon it to provide us with shelter from cataclysmic disasters linked to global warming and increasing pressures on resources’ (National Trust, 2009).

Turnbull is quoted on the Trust web-page as saying:

> We are thrilled to be showcasing such a dramatic and fascinating exhibition here at Attingham with each unique installation being thought provoking. Many of the large pieces are inspired by the Attingham landscape, including ancient oak woodland, walled garden, icehouse, Mile Walk and River Tern. We hope that our visitors will take the opportunity to enjoy this contemporary art throughout the changing seasons of the year long exhibition. (National Trust, 2009).

In organising the event, issues to be considered included the visual impact of the sculptures, their accessibility and whether temporary walkways were needed. However, it is hoped that visitors will be encouraged over a longer season, for example, when the sculptures are part of the frosted winter landscape and that new visitors to both the property and the National Trust in general will be attracted as a result of the references to the sculpture trail in publications that would not normally promote Attingham Park.
Saddlescombe Farm, Sussex

Saddlescombe Farm, located near Devil’s Dyke in Sussex, is an ancient down land farm. Acquired in 1995, it has escaped the changes of modern farming, retaining many of its original buildings from the past four centuries (National Trust, 2009). The farm includes a 17th Century barn, a tiny poacher’s gaol, a manor house, walled garden and orchard. It is this outstanding vernacular architecture that makes Saddlescombe interesting and unique. However, from a conservation perspective, there is also the incongruity of a 1960’s milking parlour. For diverse reasons, the farm can no longer operate commercially as a dairy. One reason, for example, is because cow slurry and waste could seep into the natural underground reservoir that supplies much of the drinking water of Brighton, which lies nine miles away.

At present, the property is not ready to be opened to the public on a regular basis and so the nationally promoted events are not held there. Instead, there are just two occasions a year when visitors can experience the uniqueness of Saddlescombe. In 2007, an exhibition was mounted at these open days, explaining what actions could be taken to develop the farm, in order to allow the public opportunity to comment on its future. Whereas in the past the Trust has executed its plans and expected visitors to appreciate their implementation, now the Trust is undertaking consultation with visitors. In interviews carried out during the open days, a list of possibilities was presented to visitors and they were asked, “Out of this list of things that could be done at Saddlescombe, which would you like to see incorporated into the plan for the farm?” “Converting existing buildings for use as a learning or educational centre” was the most popular option, followed by “keeping only traditional breeds on the farm”.

The National Trust has had to consider a multiplicity of social, economic, geographical, archaeological and ethical factors, (Fox et al., 2008) and decide through its consultation with the public and the local community how to conserve the farm for the long term. It has needed to consider what elements of the farm should be conserved and how it should be developed as a visitor attraction. This will produce a management plan that will enable visitors to experience Saddlescombe Farm not only more frequently but also in a sustainable way.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This case study has extended the knowledge of events and sustainable development by considering the positive contribution of an events programme to heritage conservation, which has implications for other conservation bodies throughout the world. Events cannot only make a considerable financial contribution to conservation but more importantly, support sustainability by informal education of visitors through participation. It has also extended academic knowledge of how programmes of events are developed, an area that has previously been mainly overlooked.

The study has established that the National Trust, a charitable organisation, aims to operate sustainably on a basis of the ‘triple bottom line’ and organises many events in support of the sustainability ‘journey’ and in its role as ‘canary in the mine’. It has shown how each property develops its own distinctive selection of events that
contribute to the organisation’s programmes as a whole. Events at Trust properties this year, have developed from first, a top-down approach whereby events relate to the national campaign and secondly, from the bottom-up where each property designs a line-up to reflect its own uniqueness.

The top-down approach is exemplified by events such as the Planting Weekend at Dunham Massey that will specifically target ‘Explorer families’ and involve the sowing of pumpkin seeds for Halloween. Here, environmental sustainability is emphasised through visitors making their own flowerpots, rather than using common plastic pots. In contrast, the bottom-up approach produces a wider range of events. Some support a social agenda through public consultation on sustainable development (again at Dunham Massey), whilst others are concerned with sustainable heritage conservation (for example at Saddlescombe Farm). Most events, however, are like those at Kingston Lacy which encourage visitors to engage with the values within which the National Trust operates - namely to conserve the cultural and socio-natural heritage, ‘for ever, for everyone’ (National Trust, 2008).

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to acknowledge the support of the National Trust and its employees who willingly shared their time and knowledge.

REFERENCES


NORMATIVE AND INNOVATIVE SUSTAINABLE RESOURCE MANAGEMENT AT BIRDING FESTIVALS

Laura J. Lawton and David B. Weaver
Griffith University

Abstract

Birding festivals are an increasingly popular form of nature-based tourism in which attendees interact in mainly outdoor settings with one or more target bird species, usually over a period of several days. Given the apparent ecotourism characteristics of such events, it may be anticipated that birding festivals exhibit a high level of innovation with respect to sustainability-related practices. If so, they may serve as a role model for other segments of the tourism, event and hospitality industries in terms of assisting the broader sector to fulfil the imperative of environmental sustainability. This paper is the first to examine in detail the sustainable ancillary resource management (SARM) practices of birding festivals, that is, practices such as recycling and energy conservation that are not directly related to the wildlife resources that are the focus of such events. Specifically, its purpose is to identify and differentiate birding festivals according to their SARM activity as well as the degree to which these are innovative or normative, and to investigate factors that account for these overall patterns and differences. The study is informed by the innovation and sustainability literature, and extends the birding festival literature by focusing on the entire population of such events in the USA and by soliciting the opinions of organisers rather than attendees.

A questionnaire sent out in late 2006 was returned by organisers representing 80% of the identified 135 festivals. A small number of normative SARM practices (signage re-use, recycling of containers) were reported by a majority of organisers while a large number of innovative (incremental rather than radical) were each reported by one or two organisers. Cluster analysis yielded roughly equal groups of ‘non-innovators’, ‘normative recyclers’, ‘innovative energy conservers’, ‘innovative recyclers’ and ‘comprehensive innovators’, indicating an overall bell curve distribution of innovation adoption. Comparison with research on the same sample completed by the first author (Lawton, in press) revealed that SARM innovators also tended to be ecotourism innovators (e.g. participating in recruitment of birders or fundraising to protect habitat). Innovation was also highly correlated with attendee numbers but not festival longevity or identification of festival with ‘ecotourism’. No clear hierarchical or spatial diffusion effects were evident, with few organisers citing other festivals that they tried to emulate, and none citing SARM as the aspect being emulated. A follow-up survey to members of the four clusters demonstrating innovation (response rate 45% of the sample) suggested positive relationships with cost and perceived attendee satisfaction and demand, but especially a sense of responsibility. Innovation, in contrast, was not related to revenue generation.

Innovative SARM practices at birding festivals are not as prevalent as expected considering the nature of such events and the identified high level of responsibility. To facilitate the diffusion of such practices among events, the establishment of a
A dedicated organisation representing a critical mass of such events is recommended, along with the implementation of a sustainability-oriented certification protocol that includes SARM standards. Through such mechanisms, birding festivals will be able to fulfil their potential as SARM role models to the broader tourism and hospitality industries.

**Keywords:**

*Birding festivals, sustainable tourism, resource management, ecotourism, event management*
A TRIPLE BOTTOM LINE APPROACH TO EVENT MANAGEMENT

Jem Hansen
Manager Events and Projects
Impact Environmental Consulting Pty Ltd

Abstract

This paper will outline the approach developed by Impact Environmental for the management of events with a triple bottom line focus. Impact Environmental is in the unique position of understanding green events from both sides, having extensive event management experience as well as the technical environmental knowledge required to deliver events with improved outcomes by balancing social, environmental and financial components.

Impact Environmental Conferences is an arm of the business specialising in the management of events focusing on environmental issues. Since 1996, Impact Environmental Conferences has run over 30 events on topics including waste management, regional sustainability, learning for sustainability, renewable energy, litter control, environmental education, buying green and sustainable procurement. The parent company, Impact Environmental Consulting, is an environmental consultancy that specialises in environmental education, training, and consulting, specialising in the fields of waste management, energy efficiency and water conservation.

Several case studies will be drawn upon to highlight how to overcome obstacles in triple bottom line event management, and to illustrate the outcomes which can be achieved. For example case studies will outline methods for engaging members of the conference organising committee to support innovative approaches, and ways to work with venues to successfully introduce practices never before undertaken. Many of the approaches are simple, and the outcomes entirely positive, meaning that all event organisers can take away tools to improve the triple bottom line outcomes of their events.
COMPARING EVENT PRACTITIONER’S PERCEPTIONS ON SUSTAINABLE EVENTS - CENTERING ON THE CASES IN FAR EAST ASIA

Hee Jung Kim and Sang Yong Um
Kyonggi University

Abstract

Ever since the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED, 1987) declared “Our Common Future”, the application paradigm of concepts about sustainable development has become a major issue in the diverse fields of the academic world and its related staff in charge. As a result of reflecting this trend, a lot of learned circles, local groups, the government, and organisations, etc. have been making attempts at the conversion by trying to apply their theoretical intention about sustainable development to reality. Accordingly, it is safe to say that the event industry is faced with the situation where it has to make an attempt to apply the concept of sustainable development to the industry. The purpose of this research is to examine and analyse the perceptions of a sustainable event of the staff in charge of an event in Korea and Japan – the two representative nations in Asia.

The research result indicates that a sustainable event realises environmental, social and economic sustainability, and also suggests that it is necessary to solidify the education on sustainable development.

Keywords:
Sustainable development, Sustainability, Event practitioner’s perception, Sustainable event.

INTRODUCTION

WCED Report defines “sustainable development” as the one that meets the needs of the present generations without damaging the ability of the future generations to meet their own needs (WCED, 1987). However, since the publication of the Brundtland Commission’s Report which announced the windup contents of WCED Report, there has arisen a phenomenon in which more than 70 different definitions of ‘sustainable development’ have been proposed (Steer and Wade Gery, 1993), as a variety of fields attempted to readjust the definition of sustainable development to correspond to their own field due to the definitional ambiguity of sustainable development. The people in a variety of fields use the concept as diverse meanings, and also have a very different concept, approach and tendency (Heinen, 1994). Consequently, the commission’s approach to sustainable development has come under extensive criticism since 1990 (Oldfield and Shaw, 2002).

Nevertheless, despite the ambiguity of the definition of sustainable development referred to previously, there has come into existence a universal paradigm that sustainable development plays a role in harmonising the environmental, social, and
economic goals of society (Shields and Solar, 2000); hence, in recent times, this paradigm has been accepted as the one worthy to be considered despite wide-ranging interpretation and strong criticism. Accordingly, a lot of research in the academic world has come to focus on the research on ‘sustainability’ for the purpose of converting and applying sustainable development to the actual conditions of the research field in which they are involved. Taking the opinions of the scholars who did research on sustainability, they are commonly dealing with environmental, social and economic aspects.

The “Sustainability” generally implies the harmony, balance or equilibrium between resources system on which human needs and human beings ultimately have to depend (Williams, 2001). In other words, sustainability rests on the three integrated elements: the ecological, socio-cultural, and economic (Redcliffe and Woodgate, 1997). There is a growing consensus about the ecological, social, and economic conditions needed to speed up the transition to sustainability (Klepeis and Laris, 2006).

Most of the recent research on sustainability has made approaches to three realms in terms of ecological, socio-cultural and economic levels. (Choi and Sirakaya, 2005; Cottrell et al., 2007; Muhanna, 2007; Robert and Tribe, 2008; Savage, et al., 1988; Shaalan, 2005). The purpose of this research is to clarify the perception of sustainability and its applicability on the part of an event industry. For this, the research looked into the preceding empirical research and studied the literature. In addition, this research examined the concept and reality of sustainability in the tourist industry - a link industry to an event industry - to establish a basis of empirical study. On the basis of this research process, the perception items of sustainability applicable to an event industry have been selected.

To intend to grasp the perception of a sustainable event is a new approach, so this research specifically selected the subject of empirical study as the staff in charge of an event among the interested parties with the judgment that the staff in charge could have an actual perception of it.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

**Sustainability**

As a result of reviewing research papers on ‘sustainability’ up to now, it was found that there are roughly four research realms. The first one is a conceptual research on sustainability whose aim is to properly apply its concept to an industry (Banerjee, 2003; Farrell and Twining-Ward, 2005; Gezici, 2006; Halle, 2002; Harris, 2004; Hilson and Basu, 2003; Klepeis and Laris; Ko, 2005; Saarinen, 2006; Sharpley, 2000). The second is the research on a sustainability indicator needed to explain the future development in each industry, to measure and ascertain the state of sustainability (Custance, 2002; Hilson and Basu, 2003; Parris and Kates, 2003; Hunter and Shaw, 2007; Sausmarez, 2007; Schianetz and Kavanagh, 2008; Twining-Ward and Butler, 2002). In relation to this, Parris and Kates (2003) concluded that there are no indicator sets that are universally accepted, backed by compelling theory, rigorous data collection and analysis, and influential in policy. This conclusion points out that
effective application of a sustainability indicator to each industry is only possible on the basis of research for practical indicators that can be applied to each industry. The third one is the research on the composition of cooperative, mutually assistant governance that can politically realise sustainability (Costantini and Monni, 2005; Devuyst and Hens, 2000; Erkus-Ozturk and Eraydin, 2009; Gupta, 2002; Lennan and Ngoma, 2004; Roy and Tisdell, 1998; Williams, 2006). This aims at drawing a broad discussion between the interested parties to prepare a policy or criterion for the application of sustainability to each industry, and also aims for the composition of governance that can make it possible to foster and apply a practical policy foundation on the basis of that discussion. The fourth one is the research on education for the perception and application of sustainable development (Chick, 2000; Dale and Newman, 2005; Kasimov et al., 2005; Lewis, 2005; Segovia, 2002). ‘Agenda 21’, which announced an international implementation plan for sustainable development, makes a comment, “Education is critical for promoting sustainable development and improving the capacity of the people to address sustainable development issues” (UNCED 1992). As an example of reflecting the present state of education on sustainable development, Azapagic. et al (2005)says, “There is evidence that some progress in sustainability education has been made in the last decade but more remains to be done.”

Conclusively, we can understand that the general approach to sustainability has been made mostly on economic, environmental and social points of view. Therefore, it might be desirable for academic researches to accept this approach.

**Sustainable Tourism**

Among the research on the sustainability and reality of other industries, the field of tourism having a close relation with an event industry as a link industry to it, has been doing research on the concept and application of sustainable tourism to concretely apply sustainability to the tourist industry (Briassoulis, 2000; Hall, 2002; Hoyer, 2000; Hunter, 1997; Northcote and Macbeth, 2006; Tepelus and Cordoba, 2003; Tosun, 2001; Zhenhua, 2003).

As an example of researches and definitions on sustainable tourism, Clarke said, “Nowadays sustainability can be linked to almost all kinds and scales of tourism activities and environments” (Clarke, 1997). In addition, Butler said, “There are a multitude of definitions for sustainability and sustainable developments” (Butler, 1999). There also existed a lot of diverse definitions of sustainable tourism, among which as a representative definition, the World Tourism Organisation defines sustainable development of tourism as follow:

Sustainable tourism development meets the needs of present tourist and host regions while protecting and enhancing opportunities for the future. It is envisaged as leading to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity and life support systems.
The recent research on literature reveals several proposals on essential elements of sustainable tourism, among which Ress said, “Sustainable community tourism needs to prevent the deterioration of the social, cultural, and ecological systems of a host community (cited in Choi and Sirakaya, 2005); Schianetz and Kavanagh (2008), among the researches on sustainable tourism, reviewed a wide range of tools to assess the comprehensive sustainability of all tourist destinations including socio-cultural, economic and environmental issues. Vera Rebollo and Lyars Baidal (2003) developed a sustainability indicator system that can be applied to Torrevieja in Spain - a tourist attraction in the Mediterranean. Mbaiwa (2005) made an approach to the issues and viewpoints in relation to sustainable tourism development in developing countries with special reference data on Okavango Delta, Botswana.

As reviewed in the research on sustainable tourism development until now, to apply the concept of sustainable tourism development to be matched with the actual circumstances of a tourist industry with the awareness of the importance of sustainability in environmental, social and economic sectors is also perceived as an important task of the researchers and staff in charge.

**Sustainable Events**

The research realm of the present work on event management seems to be roughly divided into three: 1) the economic impact of various events and festivals, 2) sponsorship of events, and 3) event market segmentation (Lee, Lee, and Kim, 2008). There exist only a few research works on sustainability among the researches on event management. O’Sullivan and Jackson (2002) proposed the contribution of festival tourism to a sustainable local economy. Quinn (2006) examined the contribution of a festival to art development and sustainable development of a community by giving an example of two Irish art festivities. Getz and Andersson (2008) conceptually attempted the sustainability of a festivity from the viewpoint of an organisation’s maintenance of a festivity in relation to the concrete contents on how the organisation of an event can be a permanent one through the inquiry into 14 live music festivals in Sweden.

However, there rarely exists a definition of a sustainable event in any research. Therefore, this study is aimed at doing research on the perception of a sustainable event, positive penetration of the sustainable sector of a sustainable event, reality of education and confirmation of the necessity of education for a sustainable event, etc. through the comparative point of view of the two groups of the staff in charge of an event in Korea and Japan. In addition, the research hopes that the result of this research will be a foundation for application of sustainability to an event industry.

**METHODOLOGY**

**Questionnaire Development**

This research, for the development of survey questionnaires, based the items of major survey sectors on the perception of a sustainable event on the proposals suggested in empirical researches and literature study (Choi and Sirakaya, 2005; Cottrell et al.,
2007; Muhanna, 2007; Robert and Tribe, 2008; Savage, et al., 2004; Shaalan, 2005). It is imperative to measure the three sectors of sustainability - the economy, society and environment. Choi and Sirakaya (2005) developed the seven-factor Sustainable Tourism Attitudes Scales (SUSTAS) -

1) Environmental sustainability [including 9 items]
2) Perceived social costs [including 8 items]
3) Perceived economic benefits [including 7 items]
4) Community Participation [including 4 items]
5) Long-term planning [including 4 items]
6) Visitor satisfaction [including 3 items]
7) Community-centered economy [including 3 items].

It is now to be validated using various data sets for its construct and predictive validities. Cottrell et al (2007) examined the prism of sustainability on resident perceptions of sustainable agritourism among four subvillages in Chongdugou, China. Dimensions:

1) Ecological: 3 items
2) Sociocultural: 3 items
3) Economic: 5 items
4) Institutional: 4 items.

It hypothesised the main effects and interaction effects for the four dimensions of sustainability and overall satisfaction with tourism. This research, for its empirical study, selected the items as follows:

1) environmental sustainability including 2 items
2) economic sustainability including 3 items

based on the research by Choi and Sirakaya (2005) and Cottrell et al (2007),

In addition, this research selected the items at a socio-cultural level, such as participation of a local community including 2 items and a long-term plan including 2 items as well as participants’ satisfaction including 2 items from Choi and Sirakaya (2005). This research selected the three levels among the items applied in the research by Choi and Sirakaya-participation of a local community, a long term plan, and participants’ satisfaction because they are judged to be very suitable to be applied to a sustainable event in terms of the decision-making process in an event. However, this research didn’t select the items belonging to a socio-cultural level under the judgment that these items are not suitable to apply to this research for the staff in charge of an event at a position of local residents. Resultantly, this research selected 11 applicable items of a sustainable event to the perception survey on a sustainable event by targeting the staff in charge of an event. In relation to the 7 major event areas, such as a festival, conference, exhibition, sports, sales promotion, public and private event, this research asked questions by composing the items to make a survey on the applicability perception on the application of sustainability by individual event area. Lastly, this research asked questions by composing the items to make a survey on the
perception of the educational experience in sustainable development and its necessity. This research had the respondents answer the level of perception of each question item in 5-point Likert scale. Additionally, this research asked questions of demographical information, such as age, gender, school year, and position in a questionnaire in order to conduct a survey on the demographic ratio of the respondents.

**Data Collection**

The purpose of this research is to take a look at the perception of event practitioners on a sustainable event and to compare the perception of the two groups of the staff in charge of an event from Korea and Japan. For this questionnaire survey, the staff in charge of an event for 22 event agencies in Korea and 17 event agencies in Japan responded to this questionnaire survey through emailing and on-site questionnaire survey. This survey was conducted in the winter of 2008. As a result of the survey, 125 valid responses were collected in Korea and 82 in Japan. After throwing away unfaithful responses, this research selected 70 valid responses from the Korean and Japanese staff in charge of an event respectively to compare by matching up to the equal number of samples from both sides. Accordingly, this research used 140 valid responses in total from the two different groups for data analysis.

**Data Analysis**

The data analysis of this survey is composed of three steps. In the first step, this research used descriptive statistics to figure out the demographic characteristic of the respondents, the mean of 11 variables of a sustainable event, the mean of the 7 major event areas, and the mean of the two sustainable educational variables. This research used the composite mean to compare all variables between the two groups and also used reliability analysis and factor analysis of 11 sustainable event variables. The reliability analysis is for grasping the feasibility of the 11 sustainable events, while the factor analysis is for ascertaining if the items of a sustainable event are grouped in a similar item in character. Lastly, this research used Independent-Samples t-test to observe the major difference in educational variables between the two groups in relation to 11 sustainable event variables, 7 major event areas, and two sustainable development education areas.

**RESULTS**

**Descriptive Profile of Respondents**

Table 1 shows the demographic result of the respondents. Male respondents comprise the ratio of 84% of the 70 Korean respondents. As for age, those in their thirties were greatest in number accounting for 42.9%; as for educational background, the ratio of the college graduate respondents was highest covering 65.7%. In the case of Japan, the male ratio of the respondents was 68.6%, also higher than that of female respondents similar to Korea, and the age distribution of the respondents appears even. As for educational background, those having a school career as a college graduate
cover the highest ratio of 82.9%. As for a job position, both Korea and Japan cover about a 70% ratio of managers/directors of all respondents. The demographic result of the respondents to this survey shows that the ratio of the male staff involved in an event industry is high both in Korea and Japan, and as for a job position, it may be safe to interpret that the reliability in the responses to this survey is backed up in that the ratio of the employees involved in an event industry for a long period is high.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Profile of Survey Respondents</th>
<th>Koreans</th>
<th>Japanese</th>
<th>Cumulative(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>59 (84.3)</td>
<td>48 (68.6)</td>
<td>107 (76.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>11 (15.7)</td>
<td>22 (31.4)</td>
<td>33 (23.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>70 (100)</td>
<td>70 (100)</td>
<td>140 (100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20~29</td>
<td>13 (18.6)</td>
<td>14 (20.0)</td>
<td>27 (19.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30~39</td>
<td>30 (42.9)</td>
<td>16 (22.9)</td>
<td>46 (32.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40~49</td>
<td>25 (35.7)</td>
<td>27 (38.6)</td>
<td>52 (37.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+50</td>
<td>2 (2.9)</td>
<td>13 (18.6)</td>
<td>15 (10.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>70 (100)</td>
<td>70 (100)</td>
<td>140 (100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>School year</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school</td>
<td>00 (00)</td>
<td>8 (11.4)</td>
<td>8 (5.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College</td>
<td>7 (10.0)</td>
<td>3 (4.3)</td>
<td>10 (7.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University</td>
<td>46 (65.7)</td>
<td>58 (82.9)</td>
<td>104 (74.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate school</td>
<td>17 (24.3)</td>
<td>1 (1.4)</td>
<td>18 (12.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>70 (100)</td>
<td>70 (100)</td>
<td>140 (100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Position</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff</td>
<td>11 (15.7)</td>
<td>4 (5.7)</td>
<td>15 (10.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior Staff</td>
<td>11 (15.7)</td>
<td>17 (24.3)</td>
<td>28 (20.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager</td>
<td>24 (34.3)</td>
<td>25 (35.7)</td>
<td>49 (35.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directors</td>
<td>24 (34.3)</td>
<td>24 (34.3)</td>
<td>48 (34.43)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>70 (100)</td>
<td>70 (100)</td>
<td>140 (100)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Factor and reliability analysis

As a result of factor analysis of SE items, it was grouped into 4 factors and this research defined the name of each factor. Each factor reflects economic, environmental and social levels (See Table 2). Factor 1 [5 items] shows a level of an event playing a role as an economic contributor. Factor 2 [2 items] shows an environmental level concerning the effect of an event on the environment. Factor 3 [2 items] means a significance of a smooth discussion through all interested parties’ participation in the planning process of an event and factor 4 [2 items] means that it is important to have a long-term insight into event planning for a sustainable event in terms of the staff in charge of an event. Accordingly, factors 3 and 4 are divided into a different group, and we can say that the both two factors show the level of social sustainability of an event.
Table 2
Exploratory Factor and reliability analyses of 11 sustainable event items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor name &amp; Item content loading</th>
<th>Economic</th>
<th>Environment</th>
<th>Social</th>
<th>Planning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Event benefits other industries in communities</td>
<td>.668</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Event diversifies the local economy</td>
<td>.741</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Event creates new markets for local products</td>
<td>.512</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Event must monitor participant’s satisfaction</td>
<td>.821</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is the responsibility of Event business to meet participant needs</td>
<td>.841</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Event must be developed in harmony with the natural and cultural environment</td>
<td></td>
<td>.617</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think Event practitioners should strengthen efforts for environmental conversation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.893</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Event decisions must be made by all in communities regardless of a person’s background</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.850</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full participation in event decision making, by stakeholders in the community, is a must for successful Event</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.874</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe that successful management of Event requires advanced planning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.906</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe we need to take a long-term view when planning event</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.668</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cronbach’s alpha 0.824
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy 0.782
Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity Approx. Chi-Square 560.049
Df 55.000  Sig. 0.000
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable</th>
<th>Korean (N=70)</th>
<th>Japanese (N=70)</th>
<th>Overall (N=140)</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Economic</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Event benefits other industries in communities</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>2.769</td>
<td>.101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Event diversifies the local economy</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>1.820</td>
<td>.310</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Event creates new markets for local products</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>1.184</td>
<td>.464</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Event must monitor participant’s satisfaction</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>5.870</td>
<td>.002*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is the responsibility of Event business to meet participant needs</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>9.647</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Composite Means</strong></td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>5.414</td>
<td>.027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Environment</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Event must be developed in harmony with the natural and cultural environment</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>1.063</td>
<td>.010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think Event practitioners should strengthen efforts for environmental conversation</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>0.851</td>
<td>.464</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Composite Means</strong></td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>0.141</td>
<td>.950</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Social</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Event decisions must be made by all in communities regardless of a person’s background</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>0.094</td>
<td>.950</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full participation in event decision making, by stakeholders in the community, is a must for successful Event</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>4.033</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Composite Means</strong></td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>2.219</td>
<td>.110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Planning</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe that successful management of Event requires advanced planning</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>4.055</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe we need to take a long-term view when planning event</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>1.356</td>
<td>.645</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Composite Means</strong></td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>3.067</td>
<td>.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Applicability to Major event areas(M=0.00)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Festival</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>3.461</td>
<td>.942</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meeting</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>3.885</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exhibition</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>2.838</td>
<td>.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>0.390</td>
<td>.488</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>1.543</td>
<td>.923</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sales promotion</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>3.457</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>4.092</td>
<td>.390</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Composite Means</strong></td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>0.832</td>
<td>.434</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Education experience of sustainable development (N/%)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>11 (15.7)</td>
<td>22 (31.4)</td>
<td>33 (23.6)</td>
<td>2.213</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>59 (84.3)</td>
<td>48 (68.6)</td>
<td>107 (76.4)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Composite Means</strong></td>
<td>70 (100%)</td>
<td>70 (100%)</td>
<td>140 (100%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Education necessity of sustainable development</strong></td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>1.214</td>
<td>.020</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: 5-point Likert-type scales were used and given the following corresponding values: Very Disagree (1) – Neutral (3) – Very Agree (5) *significant at the .01 level.
Two group Comparison

This research conducted Independent Samples- t-test to discover a major statistical difference in the perception of a sustainable event [hereinafter, SE], major event areas, [hereinafter, MEA] and sustainable development education [hereinafter, SDE] between Koreans and Japanese. As shown in (Table 3), there appears a major difference of the group means. In comparison of the perception of 4SE, the Korean practitioners were found to perceive SE in order of the factors in planning (4.50), economy (4.24), environment (4.12) and society (3.63) factors. As for the difference in each factor between the two groups, the Korean practitioners were found to perceive the economic factor more preciously than the Japanese counterpart; as for the social factor, the Japanese practitioners were found to perceive more preciously than the Korean counterpart.

As for the environment factor, the perception of both groups Korea (4.12), Japan (4.11) was found to be similarly high. As for the planning factor, both groups Korea (4.50), Japan (4.23) were found to perceive it most preciously among the four SE factors.

As for 7MEA perception comparison, the Korean practitioners responded that they could make the best use of the concept of sustainable development in the festival area, while the Japanese counterpart answered that they could make the best use of the concept of sustainable development in the meetings area. As for the perception of applicability of sustainable development concept in relation to 7 MEA, there appears a difference by each area, but both the Korean practitioners (3.73) and Japanese counterpart (3.82) were found to perceive the applicability of 7 MEA at a level of more than 2.5 points.

As for 2SDE perception comparison, it was found that the Japanese practitioners (31.4%) have much more opportunities to get education on the concept of sustainable development than the Korean counterpart (15.7%), and as for the necessity of its education, the Korean practitioners (4.13) and Japanese counterpart (3.99) perceived it with high weight.

Resultantly, in the difference analysis of these two groups in relation to 4SE, 7MEA, and 2SDE, there appeared a statistically significant difference among the three categories, though not so big a difference.

DISCUSSION

This research is comparing the perception of the Korean and Japanese practitioners on sustainable event, applicability to a major event areas and sustainable development education, etc. First, the two groups perceived social continuity the highest. Particularly, the Korean and Japanese practitioners also perceived the planning factor with the highest weight. This researcher interprets the reason for perceiving the planning factor as the most important is attributable to the characteristic that the
survey subject was no other than a person in charge of planning and managing an event. This research also points out that the Korean event practitioners perceive enhancing the satisfaction of the participants in an event as the most important in realising a sustainable event, while the Japanese practitioners perceive setting up more progressive plans ahead of other rivals with a long-term view in planning an event and a smooth communication collecting the opinions of the interested parties as the most important in the realisation of a sustainable event. In addition, this research suggests that the Korean and Japanese practitioners both perceive environmental continuity as playing a vital role in the realisation of a sustainable event.

Second, this research suggests the applicability of a sustainability concept is high in an event industry on the basis of the fact that the survey targets (Korean and Japanese event practitioners) perceive the applicability to all areas such as festivals, conferences, exhibitions, and sports as high in the result of the application of sustainability by major event area. Particularly, this research suggests that there still remains a difference in the application of sustainability between the two countries by quoting the fact that the Korean practitioners perceive the applicability of the sustainability concept as the highest to festivals, while the Japanese counterpart perceive the highest applicability of the concept to conferences.

Third, this research suggests that the staff in charge of event planning from both countries are feeling the necessity of education on sustainable development due to their inadequate educational experience in sustainable development by quoting the survey result of educational experience and its necessity of sustainable development.

This research argues that sustainable events means realising environmental, social and economic sustainability, and for that purpose, this research shows the necessity of intensifying education on sustainable development.

CONCLUSION

A lot of academic circles and organisations have intended to apply sustainability to their industries. This research set up a comparative viewpoint of the Korean and Japanese practitioners on sustainable events as an issue for argument. This research is inquiring into the differences and similarities of the two groups’ perception of sustainable events. The research results will be a basis of the application of sustainability to an event industry and a definition of a sustainable event.

This research achieved its goal, but it has a limit to research work and contains proposals for the follow-up research work. First, in spite of the fact that the effect of cultural sustainability on sustainable event is very important, the items concerning cultural sustainability weren’t selected in the research on tourism and events due to the deficiency in empirical research on sustainability. Accordingly, it is necessary for future research work to make an effort to research cultural sustainability of a sustainable event as a broad-ranging research by securing cultural items. Second, this research studied the perception of a sustainable event targeting the staff in charge of an event only. In short, this research didn’t include other major stakeholders, academic circles, participants, host community, and others. Therefore, it is
recommendable that future research should consider a qualitative approach to compare the perception of major stakeholder groups’ perception of sustainable events. Lastly, this research result has a limit to its application to the event industry in other countries because its sample sources were only from Korea and Japan in Asia. This suggests that future researchers should make efforts to propose a valid definition of a sustainable event through the comparison of a variety of perception of international realms by studying the international phenomena of a sustainable event more broadly.

REFERENCES


Abstract

Threat and risk have both economic and environmental implications on tourism event settings. The threat of, natural or manufactured activity disrupting transport, communications or the economic infrastructure of any civilisation are high priorities in any cultural context. The delivery of analytical processes, assessment and management protocols related to threat and risk rely on a range of activities encompassed by intelligence and counter intelligence networks. These networks are supported by rigorous training and educational frameworks related to event staging and culminate; although one may argue that they are preceded in part by, developed procedures to aid the recovery from disaster and the continuation of the businesses involved should a catastrophe occur.

In the case of event tourism the same parameters and cause and effect aspects are at work but specifically focused on the event context at a tourism destination. In this paper modifications to an existing model (Geller: 1996) and existing best practice and supportive strategies (Younes, 2008) are combined with recent research to create a methodology based upon the three stages of an event: pre, staging and post. Thus a strategic model which identifies issues and allows flexibility has been created to support those in the tourism event industry.
SPONSORSHIP FUNCTION - EVENT LIFEBLOOD

Guy Masterman
Northumbria University

Abstract

This paper focuses on the importance of sponsorship as an integrated communications tool and discusses a successful approach for both sponsors and rights owners.

There are two critical elements for successful sponsorship construction. Sponsorship ‘fit’ is the mutual appropriateness of entering into a sponsorship, but is more than simply a matching of target audiences. It concerns how the set of rights need to be designed in order to meet both rights owners and sponsors objectives so that the resulting relationship is credibly perceived by target audiences. This can be more successfully achieved when the partnership is integrated and when a brand is seen to contribute to the success of the sponsored entity and vice-versa (Masterman, 2007). One way of constructing this is to ensure that the sponsor's products and services provide a ‘function’ within the sponsorship. This concept is discussed and research data used to demonstrate how brands can be important functional components within sponsorships. Findings from research conducted at the 2008 Tennis Masters Cup, Shanghai are used to explore the extent to which the involvement of sponsors Mercedes and Rolex in particular, as transport and timing providers, is seen as a recognisable provision for the event to function.

Research shows that the greater the congruency between sponsor and rights owner the more positive the perception of the sponsorship (Meenaghan and Shipley, 1999; Milne and McDonald, 1999). Therefore as sponsorship becomes increasingly important for events, and at the same time is increasingly viewed with some scepticism by sponsors, it is important for sponsorship measurement to focus on evaluation of the sponsorship as a whole rather than the usual brand and image awareness. This paper argues that it is the function that a sponsor performs for the event that makes for this better ‘fit’ and the required congruency.

Keywords:
Event sponsorship; Sponsorship ROI, sponsorship fit, sponsorship function
This paper reviews the key literature that is currently available regarding the Meetings, Incentives, Conventions and Exhibitions (MICE) sector, its composition, and current trends and issues that are occurring within the sector and the tourism industry more generally within the Auckland region. The MICE sector is a vital component of the tourism industry within the Auckland region. The sector can assist the region in achieving the objectives of both the Auckland Regional Economic Development Strategy and the New Zealand Tourism Strategy 2015.

However at this time very little is known about the structure of the sector, visitorship for MICE purposes or the issues and trends of the Auckland region. Similarly, there has been no formal strategic planning undertaken for the sector. Without informed forward planning it is unlikely that the sector will meet its full potential.

The paper reviews the current literature regarding MICE and strategic planning. From this literature a framework has been developed for collecting the data required to conduct a comprehensive situational analysis of the Auckland MICE sector. This framework and the process by which it is currently being utilised within the Auckland region are outlined.

Key words:

MICE, Strategic Planning, Auckland

INTRODUCTION

The Meetings, Incentives, Conventions and Exhibitions (MICE) sector is a vital part of the tourism industry within the Auckland region, New Zealand. MICE visitors are acknowledged as highly beneficial for destinations. They are commonly acknowledged as being high yield visitors, with minimal negative environmental and socio-cultural impact. They also can assist in overcoming issues related to seasonality within destinations. Success in the MICE sector will assist the region in achieving the objectives of both the Auckland Regional Economic Development (RED) Strategy and the New Zealand Tourism Strategy (NZTS) 2015.

However, at this time very little is known about the structure of the Auckland MICE sector, the visitors for MICE purposes or the issues and trends present. No formal strategic planning for the sector has been undertaken. Without planning it is unlikely that the sector will be developed in a sustainable manner.
The MICE sector is known by several other names including the Meetings segment, MCE, Conventions Industry and the Business Events sector. The name adopted has implications for what types of events are included within the study (Rogers, 2003). What the sector is known as, depends, in part, on geographical location. Within Europe it is generally known as the meetings industry, while in Australia it is the business events sector and in North America and Asia it is usually referred to as the MICE sector (Dwyer, Deery, Jago, Spurr, & Fredline, 2007). There are, however, exceptions to this, with Morla and Ladkin (2007) using Convention industry for their study of stakeholder perceptions and growth potential in Galacia and Santiago De Compostela, Spain, and Wei and Go (1999) using the name MCE industry during their exploration of issues and strategies within Beijing. MICE has been selected as the most appropriate name for this study as it is inclusive of all activities and has widespread understanding within the academic community.

This paper provides an overview of the process that has led to the development of a framework for conducting a situational analysis for a regional MICE sector. The framework outlined is currently being implemented within the Auckland region as part of a larger project. The ultimate goal of the project is to develop a strategic plan for the MICE sector for the Auckland region that will assist with achieving the objectives of both the Auckland Regional Economic Development (RED) strategy and the NZTS 2015. The process by which this strategic plan is being developed is included in this paper.

This paper begins by highlighting how important the MICE sector is to the Auckland region, and how it has been identified in 2 important strategy documents as an aspect of the tourism industry to be developed within the region. The next section of the paper discusses the importance of strategic planning for the sector and identifies the framework which is to form the basis of a framework for conducting this strategic planning. The model being utilised identifies key areas of information that are required before any strategic planning can commence. Accordingly, the next section discusses the composition of the sector along with key issues and trends arising from the model that are relevant for the MICE sector. An abbreviated version of the resulting framework is presented before a summary of the next stages of the overall research process.

**SIGNIFICANCE AND DESIRABILITY OF MICE**

The MICE sector is an important part of the large and diverse tourism industry. While there is limited information available on the exact proportion of tourism expenditure attributable to the MICE sector in New Zealand, the information available indicates that it is a significant contribution. During the 12 month period ending 31 March 2007, 83,386 international visitors (4% of all international visitors) were recorded as having attended a convention or conference during their visit to New Zealand (Tourism Research Council 2007b).

Within the Auckland region 62,356 international visitors were recorded (Tourism Research Council, 2007b) as attending a convention or conference during their stay, while 256,928 domestic visitors (Tourism Research Council, 2007a) attended a
convention or conference during their visit to the region. This equates to approximately 4.5% of all visitors attending a conference or convention during their visit to the Auckland region.

Despite the relatively small proportion of MICE visitors to the region, MICE visitors are still regarded as important for the region. This is in part due to the MICE sector being widely acknowledged as a high yield sector of the tourism industry (Dwyer, 2002; Lau, Milne, & Johnston, 2005; Weber & Ladkin, 2004). MICE travellers generally have greater spending power than other travellers, spending around twice as much per day as other types of travellers (Rogers, 2003). During 2003 international MICE visitors to Australia spent on average $483 per day, over 5 times the amount of other visitors, making their total expenditure an average of nearly $1000 more per trip than other visitors (Deery, Jago, Fredline, & Dwyer, 2005). At this stage information regarding the average spend of MICE travellers as opposed to other groups of travellers is not readily available for New Zealand, or more specifically the Auckland region.

MICE visitors are also desirable due to their ability to assist in overcoming issues related to seasonality of demand (Rogers, 2003). Within the Auckland region the peak season for visitor arrivals is over the summer months. International MICE visitation to New Zealand peaks during the Spring and Autumn shoulder seasons (Tourism Auckland, 2007). It is also considered as a lower impact tourism type, primarily because convention tourists often travel together, hence minimising congestion and pollution. They are also easy to access in order to provide education about how best to maximise enjoyment of their stay while causing minimal disruption to the host community and environment (Rogers, 2003).

**New Zealand Tourism Strategy 2015**

The New Zealand Tourism Strategy 2015 provides a coordinated national approach to tourism planning with regional and sector specific strategies supporting the overall national strategy (Lenon, Smith, Cockeral, & Trew, 2006). It has a strong emphasis on the relationships that tourism has with both host communities and other industries. There is also a focus on the environments that tourism operates within and ensuring environmental sustainability (Ministry of Tourism, Tourism Industry Association, & Tourism New Zealand, 2007). The importance of the Auckland region and the MICE markets are both acknowledged in the strategy.

**Auckland Regional Economic Development Plan**

The Auckland region has in place a regional economic development strategy, which includes several key objectives relevant to tourism. The strategy is currently being implemented through the Metro Project, coordinated by Auckland Plus, a division of the Auckland Regional Council (Auckland Regional Council, 2006a). Objective 3 of this strategy is to transform Auckland into a world class visitor destination. In order to achieve this objective a regional major events strategy and a regional visitor strategy have been developed, both of which refer to MICE as an important component of these strategies (Auckland Plus, 2007, 2008).
STRATEGIC PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT FOR TOURISM

The benefits of strategic planning for long term sustainability are well documented (e.g. Gunn & Var, 2002; Hall, 2000b; Inskeep, 1991; Laws, 1995; Oreja Rodriguez, Parra-Lopez, & Yanes-Estvez, 2008; Simpson, 2001) and are not unique to the tourism industry. These benefits include enhanced cooperation and coordination across the industry, which leads to the development of a unique satisfying product that can adapt and maintain its appeal for the long term (Hall, 1995). Clearly this is a desirable outcome for the MICE sector in Auckland. The question then becomes, what is involved in developing and implementing a strategic plan for the sector?

Strategic Planning Frameworks

Strategic planning and management’s origins are from the ‘Design School’ model of strategy popularised by authors from Harvard business policy areas during the 1960’s (Mintzberg, 1994). The ‘design school’ model (see Figure 1), sometimes known as the SWOT model, involves using strategy to achieve a fit between the internal strengths and weaknesses of the corporation and the opportunities and threats posed by the external environment and thereby achieve a desirable future position (Mintzberg, Lampel, Quinn, & Ghoshal, 2003). This model was the dominant view of strategy making by corporations until at least the mid 1970’s and its influence can still be seen in the strategic planning processes used today (Mintzberg et al., 2003).

Numerous models and frameworks have been proposed and used to plan for tourism at national, regional and local levels (Gunn & Var, 2002; Hall, 1995, 2000b; Inskeep, 1991; Simpson, 2001). The influence of the design school model can be seen in a...
great number of these, particularly in regard to the steps involved in each process. Generally each model starts with a situational analysis, followed by strategy development and selection, followed by implementation. That said, there are also significant differences in these models in regard to the purpose and scope for which they are intended.

Tourism South Australia developed a model for planning at a regional level (shown below in Figure 2). This model attracted significant praise from Hall (1995) for being the most integrative model developed by an Australian Government authority. This model was perhaps the first to deliberately integrate tourism demand issues and tourism supply issues into a single plan.

Within a New Zealand context, the Tourism Planners Toolkit was developed to assist local governments to plan for and manage tourism (Tourism Recreation Research and Education Centre, 2004). This toolkit utilises a model of strategic planning, (shown in Figure 3) that is similar in the steps taken to the design school model. The first phase in this process is to undertake a comprehensive situational analysis. In the situational analysis the acronym VICE, which stands for visitors, industry, community and environment, is used to identify aspects to be considered. This is undertaken in order to identify key issues, constraints, impediments, dynamics and performances in the current situation. Plans can then be developed to address these issues and move towards desired outcomes. Once plans are developed the final stages of the process involve implementation, monitoring and control. It is also important to note that planning is not seen as a static process. The current situation and performance of current strategies should be continuously monitored and new strategies developed and implemented as required (Tourism Recreation Research and Education Centre, 2004).
The model of strategic planning used within the Tourism Planners Toolkit was selected as a basis for developing a framework for this current project due to:

- The framework is an outcome of a seven year FoRST funded research project undertaken by Lincoln University, Local Government New Zealand and the Ministry of Tourism (Zahra, 2006). It is seen within New Zealand as a functional approach to strategic planning.
- The generic nature of the framework. It was designed to be flexible enough for application in local areas throughout New Zealand, so it is easily adaptable to the specific circumstances of the MICE sector within the Auckland region.

COMPOSITION OF THE SECTOR

As can be seen from the earlier section of this paper, MICE are certainly considered important in the Auckland region; however there is very limited information available regarding the structure of the sector, trends and issues that are occurring. The model in Tourism Planners Toolkit, like the other models presented, calls for a situational analysis to be the first step in the planning process. By considering the MICE sector using a basic supply and demand model it is possible to identify the components that make up the sector. This is the first step in conducting the audit task identified in the model (see figure 3), and thereby building an understanding of the sector.
Making up the sector from the demand side are the consumers of the MICE product, such as event organisers and the attendees at events. On the supply side the venues that cater to MICE events are the largest group, however there are also a multitude of event suppliers also involved in the sector. Professional event managers and destination management companies/inbound tour operators are also considered as elements of the supply side in that they play important roles in event organisation and associated activities that help to attract delegates and visitors.

Numerous studies have explored particular aspects of the sector with a view to improving service provision, enabling decision making and better marketing of MICE destination, facilities and services. This literature can be divided into 3 broad categories: selection and purchase processes, satisfaction, and relationships between elements of the sector.

PURCHASE PROCESSES AND SATISFACTION IN THE MICE SECTOR

The literature regarding selection and purchase processes is extensive and covers both meeting planners and delegates. In order to examine the motivation to attend MICE events, it is first important to draw the distinction between delegates for corporate meetings and delegates at association events. Attendance at corporate events is usually not voluntary, and bookings for travel arrangements including accommodation tend to be made by and paid for by the company (Toh, Peterson, & Foster, 2007). Attendance at association events is on the other hand voluntary, and given the large selection of events attendees have to choose from the selection process is often complex and lengthy (Severt, Wang, Chen, & Breiter, 2006).

Oppermann and Chon (1997), Severt et.al. (2006) and Zhang et.al. (2007) provide a comprehensive summary of the factors that influence an individual’s decision to attend an association conference or convention, placing the factors into 4 categories of: (1) personal/business factors, (2) association/conference factors, (3) location factors and (4) intervening opportunities.

There have been several studies devoted to determining the factors that influence event planners’ site selection. While the exact criteria differ between each study, generally the criteria can be categorised as being related to venue facilities, destination factors, accessibility, ancillary services such as dining and leisure opportunities, and cost (Chen, 2006; Hankinson, 2005; Oppermann, 1996; Ryan, Crotts, & Litvin, 2007; Toh et al., 2007). It is important to note that these studies have been conducted in overseas locations, including North America and Asian countries. Understanding the selection process and criteria used by meeting planners, exhibitors and delegates is an important component of the situational analysis as it assists in identification of strengths and weaknesses of the sector.

Crouch & Louviere’s (2004) study of the determinants of convention site selection is of particular importance for this current study as it looks specifically at the site selection processes for Australian associations. Not only is Australia closer in geographic proximity and business environment to New Zealand than North America and most Asian countries, but it is also an important source of MICE visitors for the
Auckland region, with Australians making up over half the MICE visitors to New Zealand during 2007 (Tourism Research Council, 2008). Crouch & Louviere’s study took an innovative approach to determining the destination attributes most important to Australian association event planners. By creating 128 hypothetical domestic destinations and using a process of choice modelling and comparison they were able to determine the importance of 20 convention destination attributes. Their findings indicate that in order for a convention destination to be successful in attracting Australian association events they must not only offer good venues and associated services, but also a range of promotional factors.

Two specific findings also arose from this study that are of great significance for this current study. Their findings indicated that proximity of delegates to the destination is a very important factor in the selection decision. Where average flight times for delegates exceeds 2½ hours, appeal of the destination decreases dramatically (Crouch & Louviere, 2004). While there are direct flights from the 3 major eastern Australian cities to Auckland, all flight times exceed 2½ hours. International destinations were not considered in their study, so this criterion cannot be assumed to hold true in the case of Auckland. However, it is an important factor to explore in the current study, and raises the issue as to whether differences exist within the market when (a) considering domestic and international venues and (b) to what extent is Auckland considered truly ‘international’ for an Australian market.

The literature regarding satisfaction of delegates and meeting planners covers the destination as a whole for both venues and hotels. Despite the range of differences in preferences for individual meetings, several studies have shown that in selecting a convention hotel, meeting planners tend to assess convention hotels based on some common key attributes. The four most commonly cited factors are: location of the hotel; quality of the meeting facilities; quality of service; and quality of guest rooms (Clark & McCleary, 1995; Dube & Renaghan, 2000; Hinkin & Tracey, 2003b; Rutherford & Umbreit, 1993; Strick, Montgomery, & Gant, 1993).

Business travellers’ preferences and satisfaction have been explored from a range of different angles, including: differences between business guests and holiday guests (e.g. Yavas & Babakus, 2003), differences between male and female travellers (e.g. Sammons, Moreo, Benson, & DeMicco, 1999), and differences between the perceptions of management and guests (e.g. Chan, 2004). The majority of studies have focussed solely on hotels, however some such as Dolnicar (2002) and Griffin, Shea and Weaver (1996), explored differences between different classes of hotels. Radder and Wang (2006) looked outside of the hotel sector and looked specifically at guest houses in South Africa. Despite these differences, the vast majority of studies include location, value for money, service encounters, cleanliness, and guest room comfort amongst the most important criteria that drive not only selection of accommodation but also resulting satisfaction. Like the selection processes, it is important to understand what is important to consumers and how well the Auckland region is performing in delivering what MICE consumers want. This assists in identifying issues, strengths and weaknesses, which can later be addressed.
RELATIONSHIPS IN THE MICE SECTOR

The literature regarding the relationships between different components of the supply side of the sector is not as extensive as the two prior categories. However, there have been some important discoveries made. Ogden and McCorriston (2007) examined the role of supplier relationships in successful event management from the perspective of UK venue managers. They concluded that long term ties with suppliers are beneficial for both the venue and supplier, and that positive relationships with suppliers can result in positive outcomes for events.

Dube and Renaghan (2000) examined best practice in marketing hotels to travel agents and meeting planners. They saw marketing to these groups as important due to the increased likelihood of gaining repeat business. In a survey of 123 American meeting planners, they found the most important hotel attributes that develop loyalty were the quality of service related to meeting and communication with the meeting planner.

At this time very little is known about the relationships between the various stakeholders that make up the supply side of the sector. Conducting a stock take of all stakeholders and their relationships (or in other words conducting a network analysis), will assist in determining how to implement and monitor strategies.

TRENDS AND ISSUES FOR THE MICE SECTOR

Environmental Issues

Environmental issues, particularly global warming, have in recent times been the subject of considerable media attention. The result of this attention has been a perceived pressure on business to be proactive regarding environmental issues and to manage their businesses in an environmentally friendly manner. This is a significant issue for the MICE sector due to the involvement of businesses in the sector as both suppliers and customers. It has resulted in responses to meet the demand for environmentally friendly MICE products, but also for MICE businesses to manage their business in an environmentally friendly manner (Locke, 2007).

The most obvious examples of MICE businesses utilising pro-environment strategies and tactics can be seen in the design and construction of event facilities. The design of modern convention centres now utilises many pro-environmental features such as the use of solar panels, natural airflows and natural lighting (Lawson, 2000). Since 2003 a number of American convention centres have received U.S. Green Building Council’s Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design (LEED) certification (Curley, 2008). The first convention centre to be certified was the David L. Lawrence Convention Center in Pittsburgh. At the time of its certification it was called ‘the largest green building in the world’.

The soon to be opened Melbourne Convention Centre, which adjoins the existing Melbourne Exhibition Centre, will form not only the largest Convention and...
Exhibition Centre in Australasia, but is also the first convention Centre in the world to receive a 6 Star Green Star environmental rating. It incorporates a range of environmental initiatives that cover everything from energy and water consumption, the building material used, to the quality of the indoor environment (Melbourne Convention and Exhibition Centre, 2009).

In addition an ever increasing number of tourism and hospitality businesses, including those involved in the MICE sector, are choosing to participate in schemes such as Carbonzero and Green Globe, that demonstrate their commitment to environmental harm minimisation (Earthcheck Pty Ltd, n.d.; Landcare Research, 2007).

Technology Trends

It is no secret that significant technological advancements have been made in the last few decades. The advancements that have been made, particularly in the areas of information and communication technology, have had a significant impact on the MICE sector in all parts of the world. Virtual meetings, webcasts, podcasts, teleconferencing, video conferences, distance learning, blogs and interactive multimedia are becoming increasingly common tools in the corporate world (Braley, 2008; Gecker, 2008; Hinkin & Tracey, 2003a).

Within the UK, Weber and Ladkin (2004) utilised a Delphi study to assess the trends affecting the sector. They found that increasingly delegates and event planners expect to see a high standard of technology in venues and expect to be able to conduct registration and payment for events online. They also found that enhanced communication between event planners, venues and suppliers has meant that lead times for events are decreasing. A similar trend was also found in the USA during the 2008 Meetings Market Survey conducted by Meetings and Conventions (Braley, 2008).

Numerous articles can be found in trade publications such as Meetings and Conventions magazine and Successful Meetings magazine highlighting the ways in which technology can be utilised to improve outcomes for events. One such example is the use of technology to assist in speaker - audience interaction. In September 2008, Experient (an event management company) announced a partnership with Zuku, (a web and mobile communications company). This partnership will allow meeting attendees to send comments and questions to speakers as well as participate in surveys and polls via mobile phones (Alderton, 2008).

One trend that is perhaps of most importance to the MICE sector is the move towards telephone, video and web conferencing. Ford and Peeper (2007) amongst others, are of the belief that these types of technologies will change the way in which people meet. In contrast is the view that these alternate means of conducting meetings will supplement, rather than replace, face to face meetings. Weber and Ladkin (2004) found that this was expected to be the case by a Delphi panel representing the Australian MICE sector. Within the United States, the 2008 Meetings Market Survey found that while there has been an increase in the use of technology particularly in the corporate sector, 24% of corporate meeting planners and 9% of association event
planners said that video and web events had replaced some face-to-face meetings (Braley, 2008).

**Competition and Convention Centre Development**

It is widely acknowledged within the literature that competition to host MICE events has increased dramatically in the past two decades and it seems likely that this trend will continue (Chen, 2006; Morla & Ladkin, 2007; Ryan et al., 2007; Weber & Ladkin, 2003; Weber & Ladkin, 2004). This increase in competition can be seen at two levels within the sector.

Firstly, there has been a significant increase in the number of destinations looking to attract MICE events. Weber and Ladkin (2004) observed that new destinations are challenging more mature destinations. In the Asia region, the growth in the number of purpose built convention centres has been exponential in the past two decades, with countries such as Korea, China and India moving from not being major players to having some of the largest and most modern facilities in the world (Lee & Lee, 2006; Nelson, R.R., 2006; Weber & Ladkin, 2004; Yoo, 2004). Within the US 53 new convention centres were built in the five year period 2000 - 2005 (Clark, 2006). Furthermore, many countries, including Japan, Malaysia, Singapore and Australia, have in place formal government developed plans to increase the number of events hosted (Australian Government Department of Energy Resources and Tourism, 2008; Dwyer, Mistilis, Forsyth, & Rao, 2001).

New Zealand is not exempt from this trend, with both the Sky City Convention Centre and the Christchurch Convention Centre having been constructed in the past two decades (Louis, 2004). Allan Trotter, CEO of CINZ supports the former Auckland City Mayor, Dick Hubbard, in his call for a further purpose-built convention centre to be constructed in Auckland (CINZ, 2005). Auckland City Council is expected to deliver a proposal to central government within the next 12 months regarding the construction of a ‘National Convention Centre’ (Ministry of Tourism, Tourism Industry Association, & Tourism New Zealand, 2008).

There is a significant amount of literature regarding convention centre development. This literature for the most part, examines the pros and cons of developing a new or expanding an existing convention centre (e.g. Clark, 2006; Fenich, 1992, 2002; Morgan & Condliffe, 2006). This literature concludes that developing new or expanding existing convention centres is a significant financial investment, and to be successful in delivering the benefits of MICE tourism requires significantly more than just a convention centre. In the case of the Auckland region this appears to be known and the Auckland Regional Development Plan, Auckland Visitor Strategy and Major Events Strategy all highlight the importance of developing supporting infrastructure in the region (Auckland Plus, 2007, 2008; Auckland Regional Council, 2006b).

Evidence of New Zealand’s interest in attracting international conventions can be found in the Conference Assistance Programme funded by New Zealand Major Events and administered by Conventions and Incentives New Zealand (CINZ) (New Zealand Major Events, 2006). In addition, CINZ also actively markets New Zealand
as a convention and incentive destination both onshore through the annual Meetings tradeshow and offshore at tradeshows such as AIME held in Melbourne and IMEX in Frankfurt (CINZ, 2008).

On a second level, the number of individual venues offering MICE facilities and services has increased dramatically within individual destinations. Weber and Ladkin (2004) found in their Delphi study that the proliferation of new venues was seen as a major concern by those in the UK MICE sector. Also within the UK, HBI Meeting Management, who conduct an annual survey of the MICE sector, has found that the use of unusual venues (as defined in Table 1.1) is increasing. During 2007, 17.7% of HBI client corporate meeting planners utilised unusual venues (HBI Meetings Management, 2008).

Within the Auckland region, there are several unusual venues offering some MICE services and facilities including Auckland Museum, Kelly Tarlton’s Underwater World and Ellerslie Race Track (Tourism Auckland, 2008). What is not known is the extent to which these types of venues are being utilised and how increased competition is being viewed by existing venues within the region.

With all of these trends it is important to understand the extent to which they are occurring and the way in which they are impacting on the sector in the Auckland region. This will in the long term equip stakeholders to be able to develop strategies to capitalise on these trends and avoid negative consequences for their organisations.

**NBES AUSTRALIA**

The National Business Event Study (NBES) conducted in Australia over the period 1 July 2002 to 30 June 2003 was essentially a situational analysis for the sector within Australia (Deery et al., 2005). The NBES study is significant for informing this current study, both as an example of best practice for the way in which the study was carried out and as a source of information on the potential difficulties that could be encountered.

The objectives of the NBES were to provide information regarding the contribution of the sector to the Australian economy and enhance knowledge regarding delegate decision making. This information was seen as valuable for informing decision making processes for the sector and providing benchmarks for assessment of performance in the future (Deery et al., 2005). The study was essentially an update and extension of the 1999 “Meetings Make Their Mark” report undertaken by the then Bureau of Tourism Research, with the 1999 study believed to be the first study of its kind and magnitude ever undertaken (Moore, 2005).

At the time when the study was undertaken, the process of developing the 2003 Tourism White Paper: A Medium to Long Term Strategy for Tourism had just commenced. The May 2002 release of a Tourism Discussion Paper to canvass industry and community views of the issues associated with tourism growth in Australia was the first stage in this process (Australian Government, 2003).
Interestingly, while the NBES was not a part of the formal consultation process for the development of the White Paper, the White Paper does specify the Business Event or MICE sector as an area which should be given considerable attention in regard to further development (Australian Government, 2003). This has essentially been facilitated through the creation of Tourism Events Australia, which unlike New Zealand Major Events, was tasked with the dual roles of assisting to attract major events to the country, and promotion of the country as a business event destination (Tourism Australia, 2005). It has more recently shifted focus to become Business Events Australia and solely focus on promotion of the country as a Business Event destination (Tourism Australia, 2009). The NBES is now utilised by Tourism Events Australia as a key source of information regarding the size and contribution of the sector (Tourism Australia, n.d.).

The focus of that study was on measuring the size and contribution of the sector nationally, so that the method utilised ensured that information was collected from each component of the sector, in each location within Australia. There were 6 key components or populations looked at within the study. Data were collected from the capital city and regional areas of each State and Territory (Deery et al., 2005).

Due to the large amount of data gathered and the diverse and geographically dispersed nature of the target populations, several techniques were used to distribute and collect the questionnaires including email invitations to complete web-based questionnaires, mail and fax (Deery et al., 2005). Each of the survey distribution methods used in this project was a self-completed questionnaire. While self-completion of questionnaires offers advantages, especially in terms of cost and ability to distribute to large populations and/or samples, there are also several disadvantages of using a self-completion method (Jennings, 2001). Of most relevance for the Auckland project is the limited opportunity to build rapport between researchers and respondents, slow speed of data collection and low response rates (Jennings, 2001).

These potential drawbacks of the self completion method were recognised within the NBES research design. The process was managed centrally by the Centre for Tourism and Hospitality Research at Victoria University (VU) on behalf of the Sustainable Tourism Cooperative Research Centre (STCRC). However the actual data collection was done at STCRC Research nodes which were established for this project in various regions around the country. Each research node included a STCRC researcher, an industry representative and Convention Bureau representative (Deery et al., 2005). Regionally based data collection was designed to minimise these potential problems by encouraging engagement with respondents and facilitating a follow up process to assist in reducing the time taken and increasing the response rates.

The follow up process proved to be of great value to the study and substantial efforts were expended in attempts to raise the response rate, particularly from event venues. However despite these efforts, response rates in some areas were still considered poor (Deery et al., 2005). This issue was thus acknowledged and given careful consideration in the design of the framework for conducting situational analysis in the Auckland region.
THE FRAMEWORK FOR CONDUCTING A SITUATIONAL ANALYSIS

As has been shown in the above sections, there are a large number of issues, trends, processes, relationships and components of the MICE sector that need to be explored in order to have a comprehensive understanding of the sector as it currently stands. The following tables present a summary of what information is required from each component within the sector and how this data is to be collected. These tables represent an abbreviated version of the framework that was developed during this research process.

Table 1 - Framework for Conducting a Situational Analysis - Demand

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AUDIT</th>
<th>Numbers and Trends</th>
<th>Satisfaction</th>
<th>Method of Data Collection</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Delegates</td>
<td>- Composition of travel parties</td>
<td>- Previous visits</td>
<td>Self complete Questionnaire distributed and collected at event</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Travel modes and accommodation</td>
<td>- Factors influencing decision to attend</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Other activities undertaken</td>
<td>- Satisfaction ratings</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Expenditure</td>
<td>- Repeat visit intentions</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Demographic details</td>
<td>- Recommendation intentions</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Place of residence</td>
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<tr>
<td>Exhibitors</td>
<td>- Composition of travel parties</td>
<td>- Previous visits</td>
<td>Self complete Questionnaire distributed and collected at event</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Travel modes and accommodation</td>
<td>- Factors influencing decision to attend</td>
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<td>- Other activities undertaken</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Expenditure</td>
<td>- Repeat visit intentions</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Demographic details</td>
<td>- Recommendation intentions</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Organisation represented and place of business</td>
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<tr>
<td>Event Organisers/Host</td>
<td>- Type of event and nature of host organisation</td>
<td>- Factors influencing destination selection</td>
<td>Self complete Questionnaire distributed and collected at event</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Event attendance</td>
<td>- Satisfaction ratings</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- How and where advertised</td>
<td>- Intentions to host in Auckland again</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Event planning including timing</td>
<td>- Recommendation intentions</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Event expenditure</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Event income</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Demographic details of event organiser</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incentive Events</td>
<td>- Number and type of events</td>
<td>- Satisfaction of delegates (from above)</td>
<td>Self complete questionnaire distributed via email to ITO/DMC after initial telephone contact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Spend on event</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Event planning including timing</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Geographic origin of delegates</td>
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### Table 2 - Framework for Conducting a Situational Analysis - Supply

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AUDIT</th>
<th>Industry – Supply</th>
<th>Inventory and Trends</th>
<th>Performance</th>
<th>Method of Data Collection</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Venues | • Number of venues and capacities  
• Accommodation provision  
• Reliance on MICE business  
• Systems and processes – HRM, consumer feedback, promotion, quality accreditation, environmental initiatives, trends identified by venues. | • Uptake of accommodation  
• Satisfaction of consumers (from above)  
• Occupancy rates | Structured face-to-face interview |
| Suppliers including: Accommodation  
Transport and Tours  
A/V and other equipment  
Activities  
Catering  
Security Services  
Memorabilia | • Types of suppliers and numbers  
• Reliance on MICE business  
• Systems and processes – HRM, consumer feedback, promotion, quality accreditation, environmental initiatives, trends identified by suppliers. | • Satisfaction of consumers (from above) | Structured face-to-face or telephone interview |
| Inbound Tour Operators/ Destination Management Companies (incentive travel) | • Number of suppliers and events hosted in region | • Satisfaction of incentive delegates (from above)  
• Proportion of proposals accepted | Self complete questionnaire distributed via email after initial telephone contact |

### NEXT STEPS & CONCLUSION

**Data Collection**

The next phase of the current project is to implement the above framework in order to generate sufficient information to give a comprehensive picture of the current status of both the supply and demand sides of the industry. This is being achieved by using a combination of self complete questionnaires and structured interviews for each of the following target populations:

- Attendees/delegates
- Exhibitors
- Event venues
- Event managers
- Event/incentive travel suppliers
- Event/incentive travel organisers/sponsors

Sample frames for Event Venues, Event Managers and Event/incentive travel suppliers have been generated by combining information readily available via sources such as the Internet, with information from the Tourism Auckland businesses database.

Sample frames for Attendees/delegates and Organiser/Sponsors will be generated by conducting an event inventory for future events to be held over a 12 month time
period commencing April 2009. This will require assistance from event venues and Business Tourism Auckland.

Due to small sizes for all target populations except attendees/delegates, structured sampling will only be used in relation to the attendees/delegates population. The sampling methodology to be employed is a purposive sampling with target populations being drawn from a range of types, dates and sizes of events held during the data collection phase of the project. Convenience sampling will then be used at each event in order to draw the sample units.

While use of a non probability sampling method will affect the representativeness and generalisability of the data, true probability sampling is not viable in this project. The inability to generate a complete sample frame along with constraints on the researcher in terms of time and available funds make purposive combined with convenience sampling the most viable approach.

The data generated in this phase of the project will result in a comprehensive report detailing all findings to this point.

The Situational Analysis

The situational analysis will involve the identification of strengths and weaknesses of the sector and determining and prioritising key issues, constraints, threats and opportunities. One of the most commonly identified obstacles to successful implementation of strategic planning and management is obtaining and maintaining stakeholder support and commitment to the process (Hall, 2000b; Mintzberg, 1994). Without stakeholder support and commitment, implementation of plans becomes significantly more difficult and in some cases not possible at all. Many authors (Gunn & Var, 2002; e.g. Hall, 2000b; Jamal & Getz, 2000; Simpson, 2001) agree that taking a consultative or participatory approach to planning is the best way to avoid this pitfall. Collaborative approaches, where stakeholders are involved in the development and implementation of plans, increases stakeholders sense of ‘ownership’ of the plan (Hall, 2000a, 2000b).

It is thus important to ensure stakeholder participation from the beginning of the planning process. To achieve this, the Delphi technique will be used. The Delphi technique is a tool for collecting opinions from and achieving a consensus of opinions from a group of respondents, using multiple rounds of questionnaires and feedback between rounds (Tersine & Riggs, 1976). In this project the objectives of the Delphi process will be to order the information collected using SWOT criteria and to identify priorities to be addressed by a strategic plan. The items for each questionnaire round will be drawn from the data collected using the framework outlined in this paper.

While there are a number of other techniques for managing this process, the Delphi technique has two major advantages. Firstly, Delphi is useful in collecting information from a larger number of participants as it does away with the constraint of numbers that can be involved in a meaningful face-to-face discussion. It also minimises the time and costs constraints that may prevent participants from meeting
in one place at one time (Mitchell, 1991). Maximising the number of stakeholders involved. Minimising the time and cost to participate are seen crucial to the success of this research project.

The second major advantage of the Delphi technique can be found in the quality of information that can be generated from this approach. The anonymity of the approach overcomes problems of influences of peer group pressure and institutional loyalties. Additionally the process allows participants time to think through ideas before responding and to reconsider their position after receiving feedback (Garrod & Fyall, 2005). Depth and quality of information gathered will determine the extent to which this project is successful in meeting set objectives.

The MICE sector is acknowledged as an important part of the tourism industry in the Auckland region. It has been incorporated as a key area for development in both the Auckland Regional Development Plan and the New Zealand Tourism Strategy 2015. However, despite this acknowledgement, to date little attention has been paid to sector. If the MICE sector is to fulfil its potential as a means for achieving the objectives laid out for it in the Auckland Regional Development Plan and the New Zealand Tourism Strategy 2015, this lack of attention needs remedying.

This current project seeks to address this shortfall of attention and knowledge. It has been identified that only through proper strategic planning is the sector likely to be developed in a sustainable manner. The framework presented in this paper is the first step. With the support of Tourism Auckland, Conventions and Incentives New Zealand and the University of Waikato data is currently being collected to provide a comprehensive picture of the current situation. This situational analysis, along with the model that will be developed, will facilitate effective strategic planning for the sector as a whole and by individual organisations within the sector.

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LIVE CONCEPTS FOR LIVE COMMUNICATION: EXPLORING MARKETING IMPLICATIONS OF SOCIAL CREATIVITY AMONGST EVENT PROFESSIONALS

Jon Hopwood, Ruth Rentschler and Jennifer Radbourne
Deakin University

Abstract

The creative process underlying live communications is an important part of marketing but is little researched in the event management context. Despite the increase in virtual and online communications the demand for live marketing communications remains significant. The live event as a communications device has grown in popularity with organisations seeking to build deeper relationships with stakeholders through live events. Such events are created by using key marketing messages as ‘props’ or ‘stages’, to produce memorable and emotionally positive moments for audiences.

The creative process behind developing a live event is in itself a live event, involving groups of event professionals working in a social context to conceptualise ideas for their client, stakeholder or audience. This research fills the gap for marketers by seeking to understand the creative process intrinsic in live marketing communications.

This paper investigates the social creativity used to develop live event concepts. The phenomenon of social creativity identified from the existing literature is explored in the context of its application to event professionals. The research builds on existing social creativity theory to explore the key antecedents of social creativity and how they can influence event concept development.

Keywords:
Event Management, Social Creativity, Marketing Communications

INTRODUCTION

Businesses need to communicate effectively with each other, their staff and their customers to survive and flourish and are under greater pressure to do so in light of recent global economic developments. One medium of communication is the live event. The creative process underlying live, face to face communications is an important part of marketing but is little researched in the event management context. This paper explores the process intrinsic to developing creative concepts for live events.

Despite technological advances, coupled with decreasing costs (Moore, 1965, Mollick, 2006) and increased usage of virtual and online communications (Coffman & Odlyzko,
2001) the demand for live, face to face marketing communications remains significant (Pine & Gilmore, 1999; Petkus, 2002). The live event as a marketing communications device has grown in popularity with organisations across a variety of disciplines increasingly seeking to build deeper relationships with audiences through live communications, or events (Payne & Holt, 1999; Gronroos, 2004). Such live events are created by using key marketing messages as props or stages, to produce memorable and emotionally positive moments for audiences (Pine and Gilmore, 1999; Schmitt 1999; Holbrook, 2000).

Live events are developed through a creative process. The creative process behind developing a live event is in itself a live event. These live events are in turn a social phenomenon experienced by and delivered through groups of people, i.e. the desired creative output defines to some level the creative approach taken. Event professionals operate in a socially creative environment to develop concepts for live events. Although creative individuals are often considered to be working alone and in isolation, the social interaction and collaboration between individuals is an essential component of creativity. Social creativity theory suggests that in our modern and connected business environments, the Renaissance Scholar, harnessing the (limited) power of the unaided, individual mind is no longer fully relevant (Fischer, 2005).

This paper investigates the question: what influences the social creative processes underlying live events as a marketing communications tool? This fills the gap for marketers by seeking to understand social creativity as intrinsic in the live event component of marketing communications.

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. First, the literature relating to the convergent themes of event management, creativity and in particular the work of George (2007) and Watson (2007) on social creativity is discussed. Second, observations from initial exploratory research amongst event professionals are detailed and summarised. Third, a conceptual model of social creativity amongst event professionals is presented from the literature and the exploratory research. Finally, conclusions are drawn with implications for theory and practice, including indications for the direction of future research.

EVENTS INDUSTRY TRENDS AND RESEARCH NEEDS

Events as a form of live business and marketing communications are in an evolutionary phase. Over the last decade marketing communications through live events has emerged as a device for emotionally engaging customers (Peppers et al, 1999). The increased cost and fragmentation of traditional media, such as TV advertising have led marketing managers to consider alternative strategies for reaching their audiences (Webster, 2005). Alternative strategies include online media, live brand experiences and other methodologies for engaging stakeholders more interactively. Audiences have become more discerning and knowledgeable, increasing their expectations of being educated and informed about products and services in a more interactive manner (Capraro et al, 2003).
This has led to organisations shifting focus from traditional to alternative forms of marketing communications in order to develop more meaningful relationships with their audiences (Rentschler et al, 2001; Fillis, 2002). As more organisations invest in live events as a popular communications medium, the spotlight falls on the events profession and its ability to deliver to this new agenda. Furthermore, there is an increasing responsibility on the part of event professionals and their clients to consider the real cost of events: financial (in light of global economic conditions), environmental (as climate change issues escalate) and social (as employees seek greater work/life balance). Future key priorities in developing the events sector research agenda in Australia and beyond include the roles of professionalism and organisational development in the wider events community to meet such global challenges. (Getz, Harris et al, 2000)

Human resource and organisational issues in the events profession are key emerging trends over the next 15 years (Goldblatt, 2000). The role and scope of event management positions will evolve as Generation Y and increasing numbers of women continue to enter the workforce stimulating an identified shift from traditional, hierarchical organisational structures towards more collaborative frameworks (Goldblatt, 2000). In other words, as new global challenges prevail, event professionals will need to nurture new skills and knowledge as well as develop a more collaborative, collective and ‘social’ approach to the various stages of the event management process, one part of which is the creative process in conceptualising events. The socially creative process forms the main theme of this paper.

DEFINING EVENT PROFESSIONALS

In order to define what is meant by an events professional in the context of social creativity, consideration is given not only to what constitutes an event professional but also which stage of the event management process we are investigating.

For example a meeting or event is described as, ‘a planned communication encounter between two or more persons for a common purpose’. (Hildreth, 1990, p.1). The Convention Liaison Council and the Joint Industry Council’s (1993) definition: 'A general term indicating the coming together of a number of people in one place, to confer or carry out a particular activity. This can be on an ad hoc basis or according to a set pattern’. (Rogers, 1998, p.17). Further to these socially oriented definitions we also need to understand more about the protagonists in this environment. Live marketing communications is a broad discipline, featuring a variety of skill-sets and ‘players’. For the purposes of this paper it is important to clearly define what is meant by an ‘Event Professional’ in order to clearly identify which elements of social creativity are applicable in this context. Although there has been much work in the literature in defining events and event types, less has been written on specific definitions of event professionals, (Van der Wagen, L. & Carlos, B., 2005).

For the purposes of this paper, event professionals are defined as specialists who are commissioned by clients or organisations to conceptualise, design, project manage,
deliver and evaluate live marketing communications. Such event professionals can be individuals such as freelance specialists, they can be employees of specialist event management companies or they can be members of the ‘in-house’ event teams of larger organisations who have an ongoing need for live marketing communications. What unites all such event professionals is the phenomenon of social interaction when scoping the creative concept for a live event. This may take the form of a meeting, creative brainstorm or workshop but the face to face interaction of the various individuals is fundamental to understanding the socially creative process taking place at this stage in the development of the live event.

DEFINING SOCIAL CREATIVITY IN THE CONTEXT OF LIVE EVENTS

In order to understand social creativity in the context of live marketing communications more clearly the literature on creativity in organisations written over the last decade and more has been explored through a wide range of articles and texts from multiple disciplines. The disciplines involved include marketing, human resources management, management, organisational communication, psychology, sociology, philosophy and economics. (Amabile, 1996; John-Steiner, 1997; Simonton, 1997; Sternberg, 1997; Sawyer et al, 2003).

From the literature it is evident that there are three main reasons why creativity is important in the context of marketing organisations. The three main reasons are as follows:

i. The creation of value and advantage
ii. The creation of competitive differentiation
iii. Supporting knowledge to satisfy customers and employees

It is worth explaining each of these reasons here briefly because arguably they have influenced the manner in which marketing led organisations operate both internally and externally and help us to more clearly define social creativity in the context of live marketing communications.

First, creativity is essential for organisations as a means of generating relevant and long term value for their various publics (Amabile, 1988; George & Zhou, 2001, 2002; George, 2007) and is increasingly seen as essential for generating sustainable, competitive advantage. (Nijstad & Paulus, 2003; Davila, Epstein & Shelton, 2006). The power of ideas is increasingly leading to thought leadership, setting winning organisations apart from their closest competitors. In a contemporary context, Google and Apple are mainstream and universal examples of organisations which have developed a clear and sustainable competitive advantage through creativity and innovation.
Second, ideas and workplace innovation are seen as key differentiators in mature economies when competing and emergent markets are taking leadership in more traditional disciplines such as manufacturing expertise, effective use of labor and cost efficiencies (Amabile, 1996; Lubart, 2001; Zhou & Shalley, 2003; Miura & Hida, 2004). ‘Creative Nations’ and ‘Knowledge or Experience Economies’ are now competing for leadership in innovation, rather than manufacturing.

Finally, maturing markets and organisations are recognising the need for creative exchange to enhance and develop the collective wealth generated by their employees. This social capital is generated through the transfer and sharing of knowledge which can benefit both the individual and the organisation (Lesser, E. 2000). Furthermore, employees themselves in such markets are seeking ‘higher’ motivations for work other than the traditional financial needs (Mintzberg, 1973) and those engaged in the process of creativity feel energised and stimulated (Nayak & Ketteringham, 1986; McDermott & O’Connor, 2002).

Much of the literature on creativity defines this organisational value in terms of ‘outputs’ such as new products, services, procedures or processes (Woodman et al, 1993) and something which people have collectively agreed is novel and useful to the organisation (Amabile, 1988, 1996), especially when contextualised to social creativity.

It is worth reiterating that creativity is both wide-ranging and complex, drawing on knowledge from a variety of disciplines containing a myriad of applications, both theoretical and practical. While creativity is complex, the literature falls into three key, broad areas. The three areas are societal creativity, individual creativity and social creativity. Each of these is explained in turn concluding with social creativity which is the main subject of this paper.

i) Societal Creativity: Ideas to benefit us all

Novelty and especially creativity in the pursuit of the generation of useful ideas has become important for maintaining our quality of life. Einstein or Darwin’s initially abstract work has proved to have huge practical significance (Wallace and Gruber, 1989). Individuals and societies are inextricably linked with each contributing to the other’s development and well-being. Our imaginations work hard to establish links between events and the answers to multi-faceted questions (Smith, 1776). Big C creativity (Gardner, 1993) deals with ‘grander’ ideals in terms of how idea generation can have a profound impact on society such as a medical research breakthrough or discovery (Gruber and Wallace, 1999). There is also the notion that creativity is occurring on a much smaller but widespread scale as people try to solve day-to-day problems and challenges such as a quicker route to work or how to save household water (little c creativity). Creativity in society can also be seen as the process of renewal and replacement: the creative destruction (Schumpeter, 1934) which occurs as radical innovation transforms the old into something new, e.g. the ice box becomes the refrigerator, the cassette walkman the I-pod. Finally, there is evidence to suggest that an
emergent ‘creative class’ can positively impact business and communities through workplace innovation, consumption of arts and other cultural activities (Howkins, 2001; Florida, 2002, 2005).

**ii) Individual Creativity: The Stoic and Lone Thinker**

The predominant focus of the creativity literature is on individual effort as the key driver of creativity. Traditional roots of the study of creativity ‘have focused overwhelmingly on the individual as the main, and often only, contributor to creativity’ (Ford & Gioia 1995 p.21). There is further the romantic notion of the ‘lone genius’, (Flam, 1965; Lukes, 1973; Tonelli, 1973; Kearney, 1988), whose creativity is born of their refusal to accept the status quo. The individualistic creator is ‘pitted against the conforming masses’ (Taylor, 1992). The Western approach to individualism romanticises this perception of the solitary creative process. Rodin’s sculpture ‘The Thinker’ represents a lone and stoic view of creative inquiry in humankind (John-Steiner, 2003). There has been less research conducted on social and group creativity.

**iii) Social Creativity: Collaboration, Co-creation and Communication**

This relatively new and less-explored area of the literature suggests a social view of creativity in organisations where the interaction of a group under the right conditions will stimulate greater levels of creativity than isolated individuals. Examples include the environmental influences on creative individuals such as social interaction (Madjar, 2005; Perry-Smith, 2006), social networks (Perry-Smith & Shalley, 2003), organisational factors (Amabile, 1988, 1996) and the effect on individuals operating in environments with a multitude of social interactions (Ford, 1996). Adopting a social perspective in teams as well as with individuals may produce creative outcomes (Kasl, Marsick, & Dechant, 1997; Barlow, 2000;), and larger systems, like organisations, may have environments that engender creative behavior or are creative themselves (Robinson & Stern, 1997). It is clear that there are a series of complex variables at the individual, group and organisational levels with regard to social creativity as it does not sit within any particular process or is delivered by any specific individual. It does not occur at a particular point in time or at a specific place.

This paper offers one perspective on the myriad approaches to defining and understanding creativity, specifically social creativity in event organisations. The proposed research approach is to take up the calls from George (2007) and Watson (2007) who have reviewed the social creativity literature extensively. This literature, combined with exploratory research amongst event professionals has enabled the development of a conceptual model of the key influences on social creativity amongst such event professionals.

First, Watson’s approach is discussed, followed by George. Watson has identified each ‘protagonist’ of social creativity and proposes what kind of creative output is produced
through which medium. This is drawn predominantly from the literature on person, process, product and place (Simonton, 1988; Taylor, 1988; Drazin et al, 1999). Initially the person or protagonist who is involved in the creative process is identified. These protagonists are identified by Watson as individuals (such as freelance event professionals), social units (such as groups of event professionals) and organisations (such as event management specialist companies or in-house event teams). The mode of creativity (i.e. process) is then identified in terms of how the protagonist goes about generating creativity as well as the environment in which this creativity takes place such as in a team or a group. Finally the products, or suggested outcomes of the creative process are shown in terms of both individual and social outputs. Due to the multiple meanings of social creativity Watson provides a useful guide through the complexities of the subject area. The key variables identified and explained in terms of creativity execution correspond with the three key areas of creativity detailed in the literature: Societies, Individuals and Social Groups (in this context, event professionals).

While Watson in her paper details a variety of collaborative patterns and the level to which they influence social creativity, she does not identify specific contextual influences. In order to explore this further and to gain an additional perspective, George (2007) has been considered due to her detailed exploration of the contextual influences on social creativity and can help us understand more clearly the context in which event professionals are operating. George has identified from the literature 4 key contextual factors as both a potential catalyst for but also a distraction from creativity:

**i. Signals of Safety**
This refers to the notion that creativity always brings with it ideas which are both useful and not useful (George and Zhou, 2007). There is therefore some element of risk and the level of perceived safety of ideas generation is a determinant of the level of creative contribution.

**ii. Creative Prompts**
Such prompts can be utilised to foster a culture of creative behaviors in organisations. For example, the creativity requirement of a job role, i.e. how the individual or group sees their role as delivering creativity or pressure to deliver a creative solution against a deadline, which can also be seen as a creativity inhibitor.

**iii. Supervision and Leadership**
This plays a key role in influencing creativity in that it provides an appropriate work context in which the spectrum of creativity can prosper or stifle. (Shalley et al., 2004) This influence can be attributed to both style of leadership, especially in terms of fostering a sense of trust and justice and also performance measurement and feedback on the part of supervisors or managers (Janssen, 2005).
iv. The Social Network

The network of an individual can impact profoundly on the nature, type and frequency of their creativity, with individual creativity based on the influence of others. (Perry-Smith, 2006). Networks which are highly localised and tightly connected can facilitate creativity to a degree but if the connectedness becomes too high it may be difficult to break out from the collective mindset. (Uzzi & Spiro 2005).

It must also be stated that the group members themselves play a role in influencing context based on personal communication style and their operation with the team culture. Watson and George provide a stimulating insight and summary of social creativity issues from the literature. However, further investigation in the field is required to place social creativity theory in the context of event professionals.

RESEARCH APPROACH

In order to help inform a conceptual framework for future research, preliminary event related data was gathered to support the findings in the literature and to contextualise the research to live events. The combination of relevant literature and exploratory research is an effective method for developing conceptual frameworks (Gilmore & Rentschler, 2002).

Exploratory interviews conducted in a non-directive manner were held via telephone with six event professionals based in Melbourne, Australia. The six event professionals are identified under three categories:

- CEO’s or senior managers of organisations with in-house event teams (2 interviewees, one from a large financial institution and one from a festival).

- General Managers or owner operators of corporate event management agencies (2 interviewees, one from a multinational events agency and one from a small Melbourne based boutique agency).

- Freelance event professionals (two interviewees, one operating in the corporate events area working with large multinationals, one specialising in the charity sector).

The six interviewees were selected based on their general representation of the industry in line with the definitions outlined in the literature. Furthermore, the practical considerations such as access, availability and willingness to participate in the research were factors in driving the selection. The researcher developed a broad discussion guide driven from the key issues identified in the general literature on creativity in organisations but in particular the work of George (2007) and Watson (2007) on social creativity. The following themes were discussed:
1. The meaning and definition of creativity to the interviewee
2. The creative process as practiced by them/their organisation
3. Key influences on this creative process

The data were recorded with the permission of all participants and then transcribed by the researcher. Key themes were then drawn out from the transcripts and commonalities identified.

**FINDINGS**

Table one summarises the findings of the exploratory research. The left hand column identifies the theme discussed and the subsequent columns identify the nature of the event professional interviewed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>In House</th>
<th>Event Agency</th>
<th>Freelance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Meaning Of Creativity</strong></td>
<td>• Solving important issues</td>
<td>• Lifeblood of our business</td>
<td>• Originality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Finding new ideas</td>
<td>• Keep things fresh</td>
<td>• Spin on existing idea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Improving ways of doing things with current framework</td>
<td>• Appeal to clients</td>
<td>• Keep things fresh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Deliverable (in context)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Current Creative Practice</strong></td>
<td>• In-house creative director</td>
<td>• Client brief as catalyst</td>
<td>• Initial ideas alone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Facilitated team brainstorming</td>
<td>• Re-write as internal creative brief</td>
<td>• Tabled with agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• From an initial plan/calendar.</td>
<td>• Dedicated room for creative meetings</td>
<td>• Work through ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Would consider a collaborative approach</td>
<td>• Most departments represented</td>
<td>• Identify top three before sent to client.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Influences On Creativity</strong></td>
<td>• Key stakeholders (government, city, sponsors)</td>
<td>• Clients</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Resource levels</td>
<td>• The brief</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Time pressures</td>
<td>• Time pressures</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Budget</td>
<td>• Budget</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Team dynamic</td>
<td>• Team Dynamic</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Operational issues</td>
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</table>

The field research draws some similarities from the literature in terms of the contextual and process related influences on social creativity such as levels of risk when developing
creative ideas, the culture of creative behaviors in organisations and the role of supervision and leadership (George, 2007). There are some commonalities across all three types of event professional which lead to common influencing factors with regard to creativity, equally there are challenges faced by event professionals in their creative process. The following quotations summarise from the interviews some of the requirements and subsequent issues. The quotes focus predominantly of the key influences on social creativity while figure one (above) summarises the view based on the key themes identified:

There is a suggestion that event professionals face a continuous challenge in terms of creating and generating new value for their clients and stakeholders: ‘The ideas need to be a breath of fresh air to the client and their audience.’ and ‘sometimes we will make recommendations to our clients so we have a freer hand.’ This is a component of creativity in marketing organisations as identified from the literature earlier in the paper (Madjar, 2005; Perry-Smith, 2006). The team dynamic and history also play a significant role. Despite previous history being valued: ‘The team and how well we know one another will also impact on our creative process (we’ve had some big changes recently)’. Event professionals are required to operate in new and spontaneous groups which may have an impact on creative output: ‘we are often thrown into a group to come up with ideas and need to hit the ground running.’ Finally the environment and ‘space’ in which the group is operating can affect creative output: ‘having the right kind of ‘thinking’ time as a team to deal with ideas when there are so many operational issues.’ Other non-creative issues become a distraction. The interview results suggest that there is a collective and collaborative component to the creative process as hypothesised but in practice there are challenges faced in managing this process.

CONCEPTUAL MODEL

The extensive review of the literature on creativity has been applied to the context of event professionals through exploratory telephone interviews, in particular the literature on person, process, product and place (Simonton, 1988; Taylor, 1988; Drazin et al, 1999) and the notion of social creativity identified by George (2007) and Watson (2007). The combination of the results of these two activities has led to the development of the conceptual model identified in figure one. The model is explained as follows:

Each concentric circle moves through the various influences on social creativity. Initially, there are group ‘hygiene factors’ such as demographics in terms of gender, age, ethnicity and education. Second, there are cognitive factors including previously developed individual skills and expertise. Third, there are experiential factors such as the individual and collective connections and feelings of openness and freedom required to interact socially. Structural factors including organisation, time pressure, physical space and nature of the task are followed finally by the overarching environmental factors like the social, business and client context in which the group is interacting.
The conceptual model provides a pathway through the social influences as identified from the literature and from a small sample of event professionals. The broader issues such as the client/stakeholder requirement suggest a ‘frame’ or direction in which the collaboration is set. This frame acts as the catalyst for the creative conceptualisation of the event and can take the form of anything from a client brief or phone call through to an opportunistic event ‘idea’. The sense of connectedness and other ‘softer’ influences such as prior experience and knowledge make up a great part of the remaining influences. To summarise the conceptual model, in an ‘ideal world’, the framework suggests that such social creativity in an events context will flourish when:

- Collaborative groups of experienced event professionals;
- Who get on well socially;
- Who are operating in the right, familiar environment;
- Have been able to set ‘quality time’ aside;
- To focus on the creative process;
- As defined by a stakeholder requirement (live event idea).

The practical reality as identified from the exploratory research is that there are significant challenges faced in enabling event professionals to operate in the ideal conditions identified above. However, it is also evident that if event professionals were able to create such conditions it would support the collaborative and social creative process required in delivering more effectively the increasingly demanding requirements of clients and other stakeholders.
CONCLUSION

In conclusion this paper provides insight into how social creativity theory can be applied to live marketing communications. It answers the question ‘what influences the social creative processes underlying live events as a marketing communications tool?’ A conceptual framework has been developed to identify those key influences in the context of event professionals. However, although an extensive review of the literature has allowed the model to be developed from a robust theoretical base, there are limitations to the exploratory research.

Limitations

Six telephone interviews have been able to provide a broad insight into the events context but a more in-depth investigation is required in order to draw more definitive conclusions. It should be noted that the exploratory nature of the research and the limited sample size do not allow the formation of generalisations on the level of importance of each element but the conceptual model does form a framework for future debate and subsequent investigation.

Implications for Research and Practice

The conclusions of this paper have implications for event marketing researchers and practitioners. First, the implications for researchers are that whilst there have been many studies on the nature of creativity and in the last decade a burgeoning literature on the characteristics of group, or social creativity, most of the work on group creativity has been based on desk research (George, 2007, Watson, 2007). There have been no studies to the authors’ knowledge which focus specifically on the group creative process in the context of event professionals. Specifically there is no study on the influences behind the creative process of developing live events for marketing communications. There is generally a slender body of knowledge around understanding event professionals’ creative processes and creativity.

Second, the implications for practitioners include developing a greater understanding of the creative process as it applies to the context of live events as an emergent component of marketing communications. Further research will enable event professionals to be more strategic in the development and utilisation of the live event concept as a creative marketing communications tool to meet new global challenges. Understanding the key influencers on this creative practice will enable practitioners to put strategies in place to manage their approach to creativity more effectively and add greater strategic and creative value. The creative process is an essential aspect of event management contributing not only in terms of the effectiveness of the event itself and the motivation of the individuals involved but also to the final live experience of the audience. Finally, the paper proposes the development of a conceptual model for social creativity amongst
event professionals which can be investigated empirically in a wider event organisational context, enhancing understanding of how to harness group creativity for the conceptualisation of live marketing communications. This framework could, with further research, be developed to support strategies for event practitioners to further utilise a collaborative creative process by understanding that process and its influences more clearly.

The research agenda for the events sector calls for more investigation into the ways in which event professionals can manage their processes more effectively as well as enhance collaboration (Harris et al, 2000). Recommended research in the field of social creativity suggests engaging with practitioners to understand more about the influencing factors of such creativity (Watson and George, 2007). Therefore more detailed exploratory research in the field and in close consultation with practitioners is recommended to develop a credible and detailed understanding of the social aspects of creativity amongst events professionals.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EVENT AND FACILITIES MANAGEMENT: A CASE STUDY OF THE MELBOURNE CRICKET GROUND

Linda Too and Craig Langston
Bond University

Abstract

Event management and facilities management are generally regarded as two separate disciplines. However, for a number of specialised facilities this separation has become blurred. Using the Melbourne Cricket Ground as a case study, this paper identifies how much of the routine facilities planning, including maintenance, cleaning, security, refurbishment and capital improvement, is treated as events and integrated with sporting fixtures as part of the annual event calendar. It is proposed that a similar situation is occurring with other specialised facilities, such as hotels and resorts, entertainment centres and tourist venues. Given event management and facilities management share a number of core areas of competency, such as those relating to procurement and sourcing, planning and scheduling, customer service delivery and sustainability, there is an opportunity to collaborate on the teaching of each discipline with a view to further optimising the performance of these types of specialised facilities. The paper concludes with some recommendations for educators, including the possible integration of generic business skills with discipline-specific content using a practical problem-based approach.

Key words:

Event management, facilities management, educational implications

INTRODUCTION

Rapid advancements in technology and communication have dramatically diminished geographic barriers. Through satellite telecasts and live web media, the world is now able to ‘participate’ in the staging of mega events designed to captivate and entertain a global audience. These events require the harnessing of significant resources, the availability of specialist facilities, and the application of professional expertise. Event management as a discipline has developed to meet the needs of an increasingly affluent society and its desire to seek enjoyment from a range of sporting, cultural, entertainment and lifestyle opportunities on a scale never before experienced.

Facilities management is often referred to as ‘the business of space’ (e.g. Then & McGregor, 1999). It concerns the stewardship of built infrastructure and its strategic alignment with corporate goals and objectives, but has wider implications to all forms of physical assets that are designed to accommodate or empower human activity.
Issues of investment choice, risk management, service technology, spatial design, comfort, productivity, sustainability and asset maintenance are typically involved.

The aim of this paper is to examine the symbiotic relationship between event and facilities management. Through the use of the Melbourne Cricket Ground as a case study, overlaps in core areas of professional competency and practice are identified. The paper discusses the implications for educators in these fields, and proposes opportunities to integrate curricula that may assist to produce graduates who are able to more effectively manage the interface between events and the context within which they are set.

LITERATURE REVIEW

An Emerging Discipline

According to Getz (2005), event management encompasses the planning and production of all types of events including meetings and conventions, exhibitions, festivals and other cultural celebrations, sport competitions, entertainment spectacles, private functions, and other community activities. Similarly, Silvers et al. (2006) concur that event management is essentially a process that consists of a series of actions to produce an event outcome. These managerial activities include researching, planning, organising, implementing, controlling and evaluating performance, and are applied to optimise human, financial and time resources for the achievement of event objectives.

Along a similar vein, facilities management involves activities such as coordinating, planning, organising and controlling built infrastructure and their systems, plant and equipment to enhance an organisation’s competitiveness. At the base level, events and facilities management are both underpinned by generic business management skills. In the early twentieth century, French industrialist Henri Fayol first argued that all managers undertake five common management functions: planning, organising, commanding, coordinating and controlling. Consequently, it is no surprise that the activities of both event management and facilities management share these five attributes.

Both event and facilities management are emerging disciplines, and their core body of knowledge is still very much a contentious issue requiring further research and debate. During this formative stage, such disciplines often borrow tools, concepts and techniques from more established disciplines. Event studies borrow knowledge from anthropology, history, sociology, psychology, leisure studies, sport and business management, art administration, geography, planning, design, and economics (Getz, 2005). Likewise, the wide scope of the facilities management discipline necessarily means it requires a broad knowledge base, drawing on a blend of technical expertise, business administration, financial management and entrepreneurialism (Price, 2003). Emerging disciplines thus tend to attract people from a diverse range of backgrounds who apply their knowledge and skills to newly defined problems or challenges. Event managers are recruited from backgrounds such as tourism, hospitality, arts, culture,
sports and recreation, while facilities managers may have backgrounds in architecture, design, engineering, business management, property and construction.

The benefit of any emerging discipline is its malleability. Given that both event management and facilities management are at a seminal phase of development, it is opportune to engage in active debate to help create professional groupings of unique identity and value. The common business skill base provides a useful foundation on which to build these definitive knowledge blocks. While event management and facilities management are discrete disciplines, areas of common ground between them may give rise to innovative ways in which they are practised in industry, and clever ways in which future graduates may be educated.

The Link between Events and Facilities

Pertz (1995) perhaps is a forerunner in exposing the link between events and facilities. He describes strategic planning processes for built facilities as comprising programme planning, time-based planning, event-based planning, and no planning at all. Event-based planning indicates that planning is driven by a particular event or milestone, such as bringing a new facility online, organising an office relocation, renovating existing infrastructure, and responding to internal or external policy change. He concludes that event-based planning requires a comprehensive view and organisation-wide participation.

Event management is similar to project management in many ways. One could argue that an event is no more than a specific type of project, and hence could be managed in exactly the same way. Yet the evidence is that these disciplines are developing themselves along different lines. Both have a defined body of knowledge. In the case of project management, PMBOK is one of several attempts to define and articulate the discipline. The event management discipline, although not as advanced, has developed EMBOK for a similar purpose. A cursory examination of the framework of PMBOK and EMBOK show quite radical differences.

The synergy between event management and facilities management is less obvious. Yet all events require some sort of supporting infrastructure. Event managers need to understand the nature of this infrastructure, how to acquire it, use it effectively, and dispose of or dismantle it at the end of their event, where necessary. Project management has no similar dependence on facilities, and can occur irrespective of facilities, or indeed be concerned with the creation of facilities in the first instance.

Traditionally, event management has always been linked with other management fields; notably sports, recreation, hospitality and tourism management. They are closely related to event management because these areas are generators of events. There is a continual need to coordinate, produce and market events in these fields, although the people fulfilling this role are not necessarily identified nor see themselves as ‘event managers’. Events, like projects, have a defined start and finish, but unlike facilities do not have ongoing operational connotations.
Facilities management is often associated with workplaces (e.g. Becker, 1990; Tay & Ooi, 2001; Smith, 2003). Consequently, the study of facilities management is commonly sub-classified into the different types of workplace environments, such as commercial, industrial, retail, and more recently, healthcare. But the discipline is broader than that, and can apply equally to specialist infrastructure (e.g. orbiting space stations, water treatment plants, mining operations), leisure facilities, master-planned communities and even individual assets (e.g. cruise ships, rolling stock, military hardware). Much less explored is the management of event-based facilities. However, if one looks at the definition of facilities management closely, the link with events becomes logical and apparent. Take for example the definition adopted by the Facility Management Association of Australia 1: *Facility management is the practice of integrating the management of people and the business process of an organisation with the physical infrastructure (place) to enhance corporate performance.*

In other words, facilities management is about managing the *place* taking into consideration the needs of the *people* occupying it and the *process* that takes place within it. Events often require facilities (place) to accommodate the activities (process) and the participants (people). Consequently, event-based facilities management has relevance to any infrastructure where its primary purpose is to host the staging of events. Both events and facilities are anthropocentric and have the interests of people at heart.

Many event management researchers have alluded to the relationship between event and facilities management (e.g. Shone & Parry, 2004; Silvers et al., 2006). However, the connection made has been indirect and often under the banner of event venue or site and logistic operations. Among the first to expound on the connection between event and facilities management are Sawyer (1999) and Getz (2000). The former argues that event management is intimately related to facility management: they go hand in hand and cannot be separated easily. An organisation’s event/facilities manager must become involved in many tasks, including but not limited to leadership, communication technologies, controlling facility and event access, crowd control, security and emergency procedures, facility maintenance, operational policies, and human resources. On a similar note, Getz (2000) identifies the link to facility management as important because facilities are directly underpinning event revenue. He suggests that a career in event management can take many directions and therefore over-specialisation is not desirable. The key then is for the event manager to remain flexible and adaptable because increasingly the boundaries between event and facilities management are becoming blurred. Getz recommends that the knowledge domain for event management should be developed based on three conceptual building blocks: (1) fundamental business management skills; (2) understanding the nature of events; and (3) specialisation areas focusing on event facilities management and organisational context (i.e. core competencies).

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The empirical findings by Robinson et al. (2008) support the recommendation for building up the core competencies of event management graduates. In a survey of 145 final-year students at an Australian university, they found that the events industry does not yet understand the value of core skill sets in event management. This is because a considerable part of graduate education focuses on generic business skills at the expense of specialised knowledge areas (such as facilities management) that address many of the operational issues that arise during the staging of events.

**Core Competencies for Event and Facilities Management**

Goldblatt (2000) advances the idea of a growing event sector. There are four key drivers for this expansion including ageing populations, advances in technology, rising levels of disposable income, and lack of time. First, baby-boomers represent a significant demographic group and Goldblatt (2000) suggests that as they age, many want to celebrate their personal milestones in style with organised events to chronicle their special day. The second driver for growth relates to rapid advancement in technology that fosters the creation of experiential events. Next, the unprecedented economic growth of the post-war years has created a level of wealth never previously enjoyed. Thus, it is expected that the leisure and recreation sector will grow (despite occasional economic downturns such as the current crisis). Finally, in today’s time-poor society, the demand for shorter but more frequent holidays will increase. Goldblatt (2000) predicts that over the next 25 years, the events profession will be shaped by trends in environmental, technological and human resource management. Table 1 delineates some of these trends and suggests the type of response required.

**Table 1: Future trends and the impact on event facilities management**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trend</th>
<th>Trigger Event</th>
<th>Event Facilities Management Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Environmental</td>
<td>Energy costs escalate and depletion of natural resources</td>
<td>Use of alternative energy/power sources. The move towards sustainable facility design and construction to accommodate events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Resource</td>
<td>Generation X and Y desire shorter work week/job sharing</td>
<td>Impact on the procurement and sourcing of event personnel/services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental</td>
<td>Tighter environmental regulations</td>
<td>Rise of green events and use of green facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental</td>
<td>Global warming increases</td>
<td>Severe weather shifts impact the planning and scheduling of new time bands for outdoor and indoor events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technological</td>
<td>Complete systems integration allowing 24/7 events and greater guest participation</td>
<td>Event project management skills required together with better customer service delivery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Resource</td>
<td>Increased number of deaths of baby-boomers</td>
<td>New types of facility such as ‘Life Celebration Centres’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The preceding discussion does not imply that event and facilities management in practice must merge. They are both substantial professional fields in their own right. However they share common ground. The extent of this overlay is explored in the remainder of this paper, with a view to highlight opportunities for cooperation between the disciplines, both in practice and in an educational setting. The concept of event-based facilities management is a paradigm that is advanced for conceptualising
how facilities that are designed to support events can be effectively coordinated and managed.

RESEARCH METHOD

Case studies are a popular research method deployed to better understand our world through an in-depth analysis of a single group, incident or community. They are empirical inquiries that explore a phenomenon within its real-life context, and are capable of generating and testing hypotheses (Yin, 2002). As event-based facilities management is a new concept, use of the case study methodology is very suitable. This methodology is therefore employed to test the relationship between event and facilities management in practice. This takes the form of desk research, site visit and structured interview. The selected case study is the Melbourne Cricket Ground, located just to the south of the central business district of Melbourne. An interview with the General Manager (Facilities), Mr Peter Wearne, was conducted onsite on 2 February 2009. It follows up earlier informal research and site visits in 2007-2008.

CASE STUDY: MELBOURNE CRICKET GROUND

Background

The Melbourne Cricket Ground (MCG) is a national icon. Its current value is conservatively estimated at $1.5 billion, yet its contribution to the people of Melbourne and beyond is indeterminable. Its history spans 155 years and it is now one of the largest stadia in the world, with a capacity of 100,018 and a building area of about 250,000 m². Home to the Melbourne Cricket Club (MCC), the ground has hosted events from evangelistic crusades and papal visits, through football and cricket games, to music concerts for some of the world’s biggest acts. Furthermore, the MCG was the venue for the 1956 Olympic Games and more recently the 2006 Commonwealth Games2.

The MCG houses the MCC cricket museum, the AFL and Sporting Halls of Fame, and the new National Sports Museum. It has an extensive range of corporate and hospitality areas that overlook the 173 x 148 metre turf playing field, and its encircling grandstands provide excellent visibility for spectators. Figure 1 shows the view from outside the ground near the main entrance. Figure 2 shows the view of the Great Southern Stand and the playing arena.

The MCG is a prominent case study concerning the integration of event and facilities management in practice. The MCG calendar is divided into event days and non-event days, but even the latter includes corporate functions, tours and public engagement as well as preparation works for future events. According to Peter Wearne, General Manager (Facilities), not a single day goes by when the venue is not operational. This level of activity creates some interesting challenges for the management team.

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Figure 1: Exterior view of MCG

Figure 2: Interior view of MCG
Key Challenges

At the most basic of levels, it is obvious that the scheduling of major events drives much of what goes on both within and outside the walls of the stadium. Maintenance and capital works must not be allowed to interfere with the hosting of events that often are planned years in advance and cannot be shifted or cancelled. Staffing grows and shrinks according to numbers of people in the venue, and external input in areas such as security, emergency management, staging and media broadcasting varies accordingly. So the event calendar is at the heart of all operations for MCG management and has ramifications for public authorities responsible for transport, public safety and tourism promotion.

The sporting history of the MCG brings with it a responsibility to both preserve and display memories for the benefit of future generations. The venue is therefore a living museum and attracts over 300,000 visitors a year who are interested in this aspect alone. MCG tours, museum entry and special interest group events overlay corporate functions, sports administration, training and field preparation that contribute to daily operational function. About 80 days per year are classified as event days when major public events occur.

Sustainability has become a key operational goal. Issues of water catchment and harvesting, turf management, waste recycling following event days, and power demand are significant. The MCG is a major resource consumer, but in recent years has become a successful recycler (about 80% of refuse is recycled) and water saver (about 1 million litres per annum over past performance). Power generation via solar technology may be necessary in future years to offset the large demands for lighting (including field illumination), technology (media, scoreboards, security, displays), HVAC (heating, ventilation, air conditioning), hot water, and food preparation. The MCG is currently investigating its carbon footprint and ways in which it can be reduced (Drummond, 2007).

Management Structure

There are eight general managers responsible for different aspects of the MCG’s operations, and all report to the MCC’s Chief Executive Office. Areas of responsibility comprise event operations, facilities, museums, membership and customer service, commercial operations/marketing, human resources (including occupational health and safety), finance, and information technology. The Chief Executive Officer reports to the MCC Committee (membership) and ultimately to the MCG Trust (government).

Other key management responsibilities are turf development, hospitality and business planning. The MCC owns other properties around Melbourne that reflect investment strategies on behalf of its members, and the facilities staff also manage these assets. The team of general managers meet weekly and work closely together. Events are the unifying focus across all portfolios and involve contributions from all parts of the organisation in terms of resourcing, promotion, staging, security, public liaison, indemnity, media broadcasting and hospitality.
In particular, the General Manager (Event Operations) and General Manager (Facilities) have daily contact. Their communication comprises email, phone and face-to-face discussions. EBMS software is used to manage the event calendar and to determine timing for facility-related activities including but not limited to event set-up and recovery. The combined role is too big for one person to oversee, but otherwise events and facilities management are understood as highly integrated, even inseparable. This is evidenced by the secondment of some staff from facilities to events on event days and the use of an event calendar to manage facilities work.

The events and facilities teams both depend heavily on outsourced contracts to fulfil their obligations. Event days require large numbers of people on site. Non-event days are used for event preparation and as an opportunity to undertake routine maintenance works. Capital improvement is an ongoing activity and must be coordinated so as not to unduly interrupt critical events. Construction of the main grandstands had to occur while sporting events and other activities were scheduled on the field. Facilities management therefore includes the planning of construction projects, as well as turf maintenance and development. For example, during the cricket season the facilities staff has responsibility for provision of drop-in wickets that are prepared offsite.

The facilities team comprises 46 staff: 14 are arena staff, 16 are permanent security and 16 can be classified as typical facilities management personnel. The latter manage contract tendering and administration, service level agreements, onsite contractors, maintenance and repairs, venue presentation (including cleaning), and environmental performance targets. Specific responsibilities include standby assistance on event days, pre-event checks, engaging external contractors for event set-up, and coordinating access to power, water and other facilities for specialist event teams. Outsourced contractors also have staff onsite full-time. The General Manager (Facilities) is responsible for the coordination of about 600 different people supplying services during the course of a typical year. ARCHIBUS software is used to help with asset management functions.

Performance

The MCG relies on effective communication among its permanent staff. Key performance indicators are based on the successful hosting of events, the health and safety of the public within and around the ground, the maximisation of asset value to stakeholders, and the economic, social and environmental responsibilities expected of any significant public asset. As each of these has cross dependencies, integration of on-field and off-field activities is vital. The MCG has become much more than just a sporting ground, but a business with a large workforce and a strong and enduring commitment to the patrons who underwrite it.

The MCG engages in benchmarking its performance against other stadia, both nationally and internationally. Through this process it gains confidence in its achievements and seeks out continual improvements. Ultimately these benefit members and other stakeholders and enhance the experience of those participating in events, whether they represent players, performers or spectators.
New staff that can enhance integration through their personal skills and talents are of interest to recruiters. For example, the skills needed to plan and schedule events are also valued in the management of capital works and maintenance contracts. The outsourcing of event staging is essentially similar to the outsourcing of security and cleaning contracts. The ability to respond to the needs of patrons applies equally to event and facilities staff. Knowledge in financial management, sustainability, risk and contingency planning, occupational health and safety, and business administration are common to many areas of the MCG’s operation. Event management and facilities management reflect a particular example of the synergy that is required in order to meet the expectations of an increasingly complex service sector.

**DISCUSSION: IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATION**

Discussion will focus on the educational implications of merging event and facilities management study using the new *Event and Facilities Management* major within Bond University’s existing *Bachelor of Property and Sustainable Development* as an example, as well as the collaborative links that have been established with allied courses in tourism management and international hotel and resort management. Parallels can be drawn with other courses and training by both public and private sector providers located in Australia or abroad.

The MCG case study has highlighted common ground between traditional event management and facilities management activities. The key areas of overlap discovered from the case study comprise:

- **Project management** (including scope, time, cost, quality, human resource, procurement, risk, communication and environmental management skills)
- **Planning and scheduling** (including understanding of activity calendars, resource implications, critical path analysis and performance monitoring)
- **Procurement and sourcing** (including abilities to manage outsourcing, service delivery agreements, contract tendering and administration, and e-business)
- **Customer service** (including enabling service standards, total quality management, benchmarking against best practice, continuous process improvement, and change management)

The key areas of overlap between event and facilities management comprise generic business skills that potentially apply to a range of business disciplines. In one form or another, they would be expected to be found in any standalone event management or facilities management course. They open the opportunity to synergise the study of events and facilities if treated as shared core and can be easily tailored to an event-based facilities context through practice case examples, site visits and assessment tasks. These four areas also help to further develop the construct of a clear nexus between facilities (place), activities (process) and participants (people).

At Bond University on the Gold Coast, the Mirvac School of Sustainable Development has repackaged its former *Asset and Facilities Management* major within the existing *Bachelor of Property and Sustainable Development* degree to cater for more challenging professional roles. Traditionally asset and facilities management
has been seen as a largely custodial discipline, applied to conventional residential, commercial and industrial properties where the main objective was income maximisation (sometimes via cost minimisation).

The MCG case study has highlighted that assets and facilities can have much broader implications. Infrastructure should be designed and operated to empower people to perform at their best, and therefore should concern issues of wellbeing, productivity, health and safety, and personal achievement. Many facilities are purposefully designed with people-centred experiences at their heart, such as sporting venues, hotels and resorts, theme and recreational parks, exhibition and convention centres, museums, theatres, eco-friendly developments and general tourist attractions. These facilities are likely to see and exploit the connection between infrastructure and the events that occur within them.

The Gold Coast is a centre for tourism and events and has a wide range of facilities designed for this purpose. It is therefore logical for Bond University to have an interest in the education of graduates who will find work in this important field. Learning from case studies such as the MCG, a new major in Event and Facilities Management was developed and introduced at Bond in January 2009. The course builds on core subjects of communication, ethics, information management and entrepreneurship with specific foundations in property and sustainable development during the first year. The second year focuses on the integrated study of event management and facilities management culminating in capstone subjects and work integrated learning in practice. The course is taught over two years full-time (or part-time equivalent) comprising a total of six semesters, with three intakes per calendar year.

The second year involves subjects that link to the Bachelor of Tourism Management (in the case of event management) and the Bachelor of International Hotel and Resort Management (in the case of facilities management), offered by another School within the Faculty of Business, Technology and Sustainable Development. Therefore graduates gain insight into both property and hospitality/tourism fields. The second year of the course has been organised as follows:

- **Project management:** comprising SPMT11-103 Event Management (10 credits) and SSUD12-207 Event Planning & Scheduling (10 credits)
- **Supply chain management:** comprising SSUD12-205 Event Procurement & Sourcing (10 credits) and SSUD12-209 Event Personnel & Customer Service Delivery (10 credits)
- **Financial management:** comprising SSUD12-203 Property Investment Analysis (10 credits) and SSUD12-202 Property Finance & Taxation (10 credits)
- **Asset management:** comprising SSUD12-204 Property Life Cycle Costing (10 credits) and SSUD12-304 Asset & Facilities Management (10 credits)
- **Capstone studies:** SSUD13-216 Corporate Real Estate (10 credits) and SSUD13-300 Capstone Project (10 credits)
- **Work experience:** SSUD13-702 Work Integrated Learning (20 credits), or two electives where experience is already attained
This new program represents the first known instance of the integrated teaching of event and facilities management. It provides a vehicle for other disciplines to engage with events and facilities without requiring a detailed background of construction and service technologies. It combines generic business skills with discipline-specific knowledge areas, linked to practice through frequent use of case studies, a problem-based teaching philosophy, and opportunities for work experience. The emphasis at Bond is on strategic management and contemporary social and environmental responsibilities. Sustainability studies are embedded across a range of subjects in both years, and risk is dealt with according to topic (e.g., investment risks, schedule risks, contractual risks, environmental risks, health and safety risks).

The course has recently achieved international accreditation from the RICS, a professional body with over 120,000 members globally.

CONCLUSION

While the educational implications for the relationship between event and facilities management have been illustrated via example of a recent course initiative at Bond University, similar lessons apply to all providers of event management or facilities management courses. They also raise new opportunities for continuing professional development and training in both disciplines. Collaboration and an ongoing dialogue during the further development and growth of each professional field is expected to deliver mutual advantage and insight into more participant-engaging and industry-relevant teaching paradigms that will meet the needs of a broader range of business service sectors.

The link between event and facilities management is a necessary advance for the strategic management of infrastructure where the focus is on functional objectives rather than investment. The case study described herein has shown the importance of this link in practice. This perspective has led to the recasting of a traditional asset and facilities management course into one that explicitly deals with the functional objectives of built assets in a context of environmental sustainability. It is hoped that this account will inform other educators and course administrators about the benefit of cross-disciplined study when a significant case for synergy can be made.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors would like to thank Mr Peter Wearne and the Melbourne Cricket Club for their cooperation in the publication of this paper.

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Abstract

World Youth Day 2008 (WYD08) held during July was the fourth mega-event to be held in Sydney in the past decade. All mega-events such as WYD08 attract considerable media attention in the lead up to, during and post the event. In the lead up to WYD08, media reports, particularly those in the Australian written press, were predominately negative. These reports gave the impression that there was little, if any, support for holding the event amongst the residents of Sydney. Data was collected through a combination of document analysis and host community interviews, in the lead up to, during and immediately following the event. The document analysis included two local Sydney newspapers and one national newspaper.

In this case, it appears that printed media reports were not an accurate reflection of community support. Given that media is believed to be not only influenced by public opinion, but also capable of influencing public opinion, why was there such disparity between media reports and other sources of evidence regarding support for this event? If so, what are the implications of this for other mega events? This research concludes that the media are not representative of host community support for mega-events.

Key words:

Mega-event, media reporting, media bias, host community perceptions, residents’ support

INTRODUCTION

Intense competition for valuable tourism income has lead to destinations seeking ways not only to attract tourists, but also to differentiate themselves. This has led to events being an integral part of many destinations' tourism strategies (Getz, 1997) and the City of Sydney is no exception (Events NSW). “Mega-events, by way of their size or significance, are those which yield extraordinarily high levels of tourism, media coverage, prestige, or economic impact for the host community or destination” (Getz, 1997, p. 6). Mega events are recognised for the benefits they bring to a destination, in terms of exposure and profile raising of the destination (Jeong & Faulkner, 1996), and long term tourism and economic benefits (Hall, 1992).

In recent years there has been a focus on the impact that tourism, including event tourism, has on local residents. Research has explored the impacts that events have on
local residents, with some studies going on to examine residents’ support for the staging of events (e.g. Deccio & Baloglu, 2002; Fredline & Faulkner, 2001; Gursoy & Kendall, 2006). These studies have used survey methodologies to assess the degree to which the local community is supportive of hosting an event. There is a substantial body of literature regarding the link between public opinion and the media. Media is seen as having dual roles in regard to public opinion (Hoffman, Glynn, Huge, Sietman, & Thomson, 2007; Mitrook, 2003). In some instances the media can be a reflection of public opinion (Moala, 2005), while in other cases it can serve to influence public opinion (Vliegenthart, Schuck, Boomgaard, & De Vreese, 2008). Regardless of the function media is serving, there is clearly a link between public opinion, support and media reporting. Somewhat surprisingly, there is very little research in the tourism and events literature examining the link between community support for tourism and the media. This paper addresses this gap by examining if what is reflected in the media is a fair approximation of community response to the event.

The event being examined is World Youth Day held in Sydney during July 2008, aimed at people aged 16 to 35 years. World Youth Day has been celebrated annually since 1984. Despite this being the 10th occasion on which World Youth Day has been celebrated outside of Rome, with most of these events post 1990 involving between 1,000,000 to 4,000,000 participants (Sydney Chamber of Commerce, 2008), there has been very little research conducted on the event, and none published in English language sources from a Tourism or Event Management perspective.

This paper will review the current literature on community support for events, media reporting of events and the relationship between the media and public opinion. The next section will discuss the qualitative research methods of text analysis and interviews that were used. The findings section shows that the community was generally supportive of the event; however this was not reflected in the media.

COMMUNITY SUPPORT FOR MEGA EVENTS

Obtaining and maintaining host community support for mega-events is increasingly being acknowledged as an important part of the mega-event planning process, and for the success of the event (Gursoy & Kendall, 2006; Hall, 1992; Kim & Petrick, 2005). Host community or local support is simply the degree to which residents of the host community support the event. The more local residents support the event, the less they are likely to display behaviours that make the event planning and staging process more complex and difficult. Disgruntled local residents can stage protests, vote against officials and in some cases even take legal action, all of which hamper the planning process both in terms of time and costs (Fredline, 2004; Gursoy & Kendall, 2006; Hall, 1992). A supportive local community is more likely to be involved with, and in some cases even take ownership of the event. This enhances the event by providing local flavour and even turning the event into an urban festival, which in turn improves the experience of the event for both visitors and residents alike (Fredline, 2004; Hall, 1992; Hiller, 1995).

Community support for tourism can be explained using social exchange theory, whereby individual community members assess the perceived benefits and the
perceived costs, and if they believe the benefits outweigh the costs they are likely to support tourism development. While mega-events result in a concentration of impacts compared to other types of tourism development, support for an event can be explained the same way (Deccio & Baloglu, 2002; Fredline & Faulkner, 2001; Gursoy & Kendall, 2006; Lim & Lee, 2006).

Mega event impacts can be divided into 3 broad categories: economic (Burton, 2003; Kasimati, 2003); socio-cultural (Hall & Hodges, 1996; Ritchie, 2000); and environmental (Hede, 2007a); and perceived as either costs or benefits (Getz, 2007). Falkheimer (2007), found that costs and benefits to the community formed the basis of ‘letters to the editor’ sections in the written press. Fredline & Faulker (2001) used social representation theory to examine resident reactions to two major motorsport events held in the Gold Coast and Melbourne, Australia. Communities gain images, preconceptions and values through direct experience, social interaction and the media. “Where direct experience is low there is a tendency to rely more heavily on the other two sources” (Fredline & Faulker, 2001, p. 121). This then influences how individuals perceive the costs and benefits that accrue as a result of the event being hosted in a community. They found that most residents surveyed were supportive of the continuation of the event. They also found that high levels of contact with the event led to more extreme positions regarding the event, while those with low levels of contact tended to be more ambivalent. It could be argued from the findings of this study that direct experience has a stronger effect on opinion, than social interaction and media reporting. However this study was silent on the impacts of the media.

Several authors have examined local residents’ perception of the impacts of specific mega-events and concluded that these perceptions can and do change over time (e.g. Jeong & Faulkner, 1996; Kim & Petrick, 2005; Lim & Lee, 2006; Twynam & Johnston, 2004). Kim and Petrick (2005) examined the residents of Seoul’s perceptions of the impacts of the 2002 FIFA World Cup using a during and after survey of the host population. They found that residents’ perceptions of some of the positive benefits were not as strong three months after the event as during the event. Twynam and Johnston (2004) found similar changes to perceptions when examining the host community in Thunder Bay, Canada, and their reaction to the hosting of the 1995 Nordic World Skiing Championship. They found that residents generally perceived impacts prior to the event to be greater than what actually accrued. They also found that community support for hosting the event prior to the actual event was strongly influenced by the perceptions of organisation and readiness of the bodies involved in planning for and hosting the event.

The studies discussed above have used a quantitative survey methodology to determine the degree to which the community is supportive of hosting the event. This paper adopts a qualitative methodology to evaluate if media reporting of the event can be used to determine community support for the event.

**MEDIA REPORTING OF MEGA-EVENTS**

Mega-events by their nature attract significant amounts of media attention, both during the planning phase and the actual event itself. As a result mega-events are widely acknowledged within the literature as an opportunity for a destination to showcase itself
to the world via the media coverage of the event (Bowdin, Allen, O'Toole, Harris, & McDonnel, 2006; Burton, 2003; Chalip, 2004; Hall, 1992, 2001; Hede, 2007b; Johnsen, Bieger, Elsasser, & Muller, 2004; Kang & Perdue, 1994; Kim, Gursoy, & Lee, 2006; Lee, Lee, & Lee, 2005; Morgan, Pritchard, & Pride, 2002; Reid, 2006; Toohey & Veal, 2007; Whitson & Macintosh, 1993). This is one of the main attractions for a destination to host a mega-event, and in some cases, such as the Olympics, results in an intense bidding war for the right to host the event. Numerous authors have examined the specific impact that mega-events have had on the perception of the destination e.g. Custadio and Gouveia (2007) and their examination of the UEFA EURO 2004 held in Portugal; Rivenburgh, Louw, Loo & Mersham’s (2004) study of the impact of the Sydney Olympics on perception of Australia by residents in Hong Kong, Malaysia, South Africa and the United States of America; and Reid’s (2006) examination of the effect of hosting the MTV music awards on the image of Edinburgh.

It has also been acknowledged that the planning phase for a mega-event usually generates some controversy and negative attention from the mass media (Gursoy & Kendall, 2006; Hall, 1992). With intense competition in the mass media market, an unusual angle or some form of sensationalism is often used to break through the ‘noise’ in the marketplace and attract the attention of consumers (Bowdin et al., 2006; Getz, 1997). A prime example of this occurring can be found in relation to the Sydney 2000 Olympics, where the media attention pre-event was clearly focussed on issues such as the IOC bribery scandal, ticketing issue, the beach volleyball venue saga and the use of foreign marching bands (Toohey & Veal, 2007).

**MEDIA REPORTING AND PUBLIC PERCEPTION**

Interestingly, there has been little attention paid to the relationship between the media and the host community in relation to mega-events, or even tourism more generally. Two exceptions are Allon’s (2004) study of the impact of backpackers within Sydney, and Scott and Smith’s (2005) examination of Schoolies Week at the Gold Coast, Queensland. Both of these Australian studies made reference to the increasing number of media reports and the declining community support for these types of tourism.

Falkheimer (2007), while examining the effect that the Malmö-Skåne Louis Vuitton Acts 6&7 of the 32nd America’s Cup – Valencia had on destination image, also touched on the concept of local and regional media reporting. He concluded that much of the current thinking regarding events and media coverage is oversimplified, and does not take into account the level at which the media reporting is occurring, the character of the event and the news management strategies being utilised. He also found that in the case of this event the destination itself received very little attention in the national and international press. However, at the regional and local level there was significantly more focus on the destination and the impact of the event on the destination.

Outside the realm of tourism, there is a substantial amount of literature linking public perception and the mass media. Much of this literature is in relation to political issues, in particular US Presidential campaigns have attracted significant attention (D’Alessio, 2003). Hoffman et al. (2007), examined the effects that intrapersonal, social and media filters have on the formation of public opinion. They found that the media has dual
roles. The first of these roles is as a disseminator of information and public opinion. The second is as an influencer and shaper of public opinion through the information it provides, and coverage and attention of specific issues. Similarly Mitrook (2003), in his longitudinal analysis of foreign policy and the media in the US, found that media is an indicator of public opinion as well as having an influence on public opinion.

Two important theories explain the way in which mass media influences public opinion: 1) agenda setting and 2) issue framing. Agenda setting can be viewed as the gatekeeping role which the mass media plays. Editorial discretion determines the issues that receive coverage and the amount of attention received. This then affects public awareness of and knowledge about issues (Perry, 1996). Framing, simply put, is the manner in which issues are presented to the public by the mass media. The emphasis placed on some aspects of an issue, the language used and the inferences drawn during coverage of an issue, all affect the way the information that the public receives and can affect the way in which particular issues are viewed within the community (Rosenberry & Vicker, 2009). In relation to political issues, where we have limited or no direct experience with it, the mass media becomes an important source of information. We use this information along with what information we have from other sources in forming opinions (Vliegenthart et al., 2008). It has also been found that the more consonant media coverage is on an issue, the more influential it is on public opinion (Peter, 2004).

Herbst (2001) and Moala (2005) both expressed the opinion that media reports should reflect public opinion. Herbst (2001) in examining the reflection of public opinion in non traditional sources such as films, says that the American public opinion infrastructure means that public opinion is measured through polls and then disseminated through the media. Moala (2005), believes that media should be like a mirror, reflecting what is going on in peoples’ lives, what they are doing, and the issues that are affecting them.

**WORLD YOUTH DAY 2008**

World Youth Day 2008 (WYD08), held from Tuesday 15 July to Sunday 20 July 2008, is the fourth mega event to be held in Sydney in the past decade. The previous mega-events hosted in Sydney were the 2000 Olympic Games, the 2003 Rugby World Cup and the Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation Meeting in 2007. Based on visitor numbers, WYD08 is comparable with the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games. The Sydney Olympics attracted an almost identical number of international visitors specifically there to attend the event (Price Waterhouse Cooper, 2002), although WYD2008 was smaller in terms of duration, organisation, volunteers and media.

There were 223,000 pilgrims registered for WYD08. 110,000 were international visitors, representing over 170 nations. 40,000 of these pilgrims were billeted with host families, 12,000 camped at Sydney Olympic Park and the balance stayed at one of the 700 temporary accommodation sites in government and non-government schools (World Youth Day 2008, 2008). In addition there were 8,000 volunteers, over 4,000 clergy and 2,000 accredited media involved in WYD08 (World Youth Day 2008, 2008). World Youth Day 2008 consisted of 450 events held at over 100 venues over the 6 day period of the festival. The major Sydney CBD venues for events included Hyde Park,
The Domain, Sydney Opera House, Darling Harbour and Circular Quay (World Youth Day Co-ordination Authority, 2008).

The largest impact and disruption to residents was the Pilgrimage walk over the Sydney Harbour Bridge to Randwick Racecourse on Saturday 19th with road closures and disruption to public transport (World Youth Day Co-ordination Authority, 2008). Initial legislation for the governance of WYD was introduced to and passed by the NSW State Parliament in November 2006, establishing the World Youth Coordination Authority whose principal functions were to co-ordinate and manage the delivery of integrated government services for WYD 08 events (Parliament of New South Wales, 2006). Just before the event, on July 1, the New South Wales State Government amended the WYD Act to include an anti-annoyance clause which made it illegal to do anything that caused annoyance or inconvenience to participants in a World Youth Day event (New South Wales Government, 2008). These regulations were challenged in the federal court on the 15th July and found to be invalid (Evans vs State of New South Wales, 2008). There was significant government support for the event, but this regulation and its consequent appeal highlights government concerns over tensions between residents and participants. The organisers of the event did not think this regulation was necessary (Powell, 2008).

**METHODOLOGY**

This investigation analysed media reports and interviews with community members. Taking into consideration Falkheimer’s (2007) findings regarding the differences in coverage of events by national and local newspapers, the investigation focused on two local newspapers and one national daily. WYD2008 newspaper articles from the *Sydney Morning Herald* (local), the *Daily Telegraph* (local) and the *Australian* (national with a large daily circulation in Sydney) were analysed. The *Sydney Morning Herald* and the *Daily Telegraph* were selected as they are the main daily Sydney newspapers. The *Australian* is the national newspaper with a high distribution within Sydney. Articles from these papers were sourced from the EBSCO database Australian/New Zealand Reference Centre which provided the complete text of these news papers.

Articles published prior to July 2008, the whole month of July 2008 and post the event, were analysed using content analysis. Articles were separated by publication and then further broken down into categories of publication before, during and after WYD08. Consonance of coverage by each publication throughout the month and between publications was also assessed. Each author, separately, used content analysis to identify categories that integrate and generalise major themes. The authors then came together for comparison and to confirm the common themes emerging from the data. An inductive approach to the data analysis was used, whereby a set of categories grounded in the data were established so that key themes emerged (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). This approach was chosen to mitigate any potential participant observer bias as a consequence of one of the author’s participation in the event. Priori themes, themes that are expected to emerge, were also identified from the theory prior to the content analysis (Bazeley, 2003). Additional emergent themes were also discovered during the analysis.
In this study priori themes identified from the literature were:

- Costs to residents including congestion, inconvenience, restricted access and economic costs;
- Benefits to residents including increased tourism, media exposure, job creation, sense of pride, celebration, happiness and sense of belonging;
- Sensationalism by the media;
- Informative articles regarding event proceedings.

In addition to these priori categories, several issues not related to the event, but tied to the event by the media also emerged through the content analysis. These issues included:

- Sexual abuse by Catholic clergy;
- Religious beliefs of Australians and the proportion of Catholics in Australia;
- Political articles on the Morris Iemma led NSW government.

In addition to the content analysis of articles from these newspapers, the ‘letters to the editor’ sections were also reviewed for evidence of community support or lack or community support for the event. While ‘letters to the editor’ are selected and published according to the bias of the particular media to which they are addressed, as previously noted in the community support for events literature, residents’ discontent is often expressed through this channel.

Further evidence of the level of community support for the event was found in the poll which was taken in the days immediately post the event. This poll was conducted by Galaxy Research, a major market research company located in Chatswood, Sydney (Galaxy Research, n.d.), and Pureprofile, a company that provides on line one to one marketing and market research through the use of user profiles (Pure Profile, 2009). The poll of 500 residents took place on Tuesday 22 and Wednesday 23 July 2008. The results of this poll were weighted and projected to reflect the population of Sydney and reported in the Daily Telegraph on 24 July. A summary of the results of this poll are included in the findings section of this paper.

One of the researchers was in Sydney from July 10 to July 21 as part of the WYD Research Team, and undertook interviews with local Sydney community members and people working with the event, using purposeful and convenience sampling (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007) and diarised observations. Interviews were transcribed and content analysis again used to elicit themes.

**FINDINGS**

**Media exposure prior to the event**

**Prior to 1st July 2008**

WYD08 received considerable media attention from as early as July 2005 when Sydney submitted a bid for the hosting of the 2008 event. In September of 2006 it was recognised that Olympic Park was not large enough to host the final event for which 400,000 people were expected, and Randwick Racecourse was announced as the
preferred site on 6 October 2006. The reaction of the horse racing community was not positive. The media picked up on this. This was further confounded by the Equine Influenza epidemic that occurred in mid 2007. Even after the epidemic was over, the costs of relocating the racing industry for this event was a point of particular attention, chiefly negative, by the media.

The initial introduction of legislation to NSW State Parliament in November 2006 received very little media attention.

1st – 14th July 2008

Local Media

In the lead up to the event, The Sydney Morning Herald (SMH) was predominately negative in their coverage of issues related to event. The focus of their attention was primarily on the anti-annoyance laws that were passed for the event. During the 14 days leading up to the event some 14 articles and 27 letters to the editor were published on this topic. Articles ranged from outright criticism of the laws as an infringement of human rights and this being a burden for Sydney residents, to more comical approaches of suggesting t-shirt slogans that residents should not wear. Other articles criticised the event on the cost of hosting it, both in terms of tax-payer funding and the impact on trade in the city centre, the pilgrim numbers estimates, the billeting arrangements for pilgrims and the impact that congestion and road closures would have for residents. The SMH gave substantial media space to the sexual abuse scandals in the Catholic Church both internationally and in Australia and ideological criticism of the Catholic Church, and linked these debates to WYD2008.

The Daily Telegraph in contrast to the SMH was very positive in their coverage of issues and events in the lead up to WYD08. This is not surprising given their status as official newspaper for the event. This newspaper also contained the most articles regarding WYD08 and included special lift out sections on both Saturday 12th and Sunday 13th. There were also numerous feature articles on topics such as site preparation, feeding the pilgrims, Catholicism and the history of the Vatican. In the sport section on July 2, there was an article stating that there were no problems with the extra horses relocated from Randwick to Warwick Farm Racecourse, and that there was a minibus transporting employees from Randwick and the provision of a free hot breakfast. Overall the tone was positive, and several articles specifically noted the perceived negativity within the community as reported by the SMH, and urged readers to see the event for the benefits it would provide. Interestingly the letters to the editor section contained very few letters relating to the event. What letters were there were by and large supportive of the event with one letter stating that ‘Sydney is a city of whingers’ and another stating that ‘the anti-annoyance laws were outrageous’.

National Media

The Australian was predominately positive in their reporting of issues in the two week lead up to the event. The majority of articles included in the ‘News’ section of the
newspaper presented a neutral account of events, and covered a range of issues including the threatened rail strike, road closures and impact on commuters, arrival of pilgrims, and the Pope’s in-flight media conference and arrival in Sydney. The feature articles were overtly positive regarding the event: “Barring the unforeseen, The Weekend Australian predicts World Youth Day will be a resounding success that should make Australia proud” (“Ancient Pilgrim Path Leads Down Under,” 2008). The expected economic benefits and media exposure from the event were also included. A major theme that emerged during the analysis was the criticism of other media, particularly ABC radio and television, and the SMH and to a lesser extent The Age, for their negativity towards the event and misrepresentation of the facts. Specific television programs were named and journalists identified as having prejudices and biases. One article dated 11th July stated that the SMH were leaders of the ‘protest’ against WYD2008, and without their media sensationalism very few would have noticed (Devine, 2008). This debate was picked up by the readers, two letters to the editor published on 14th July commented on this, Kevin Rugg of Beaumaris, Victoria said “It is a national disgrace that these influential media organs have actively sought to undermine World Youth Day, an Australian Christian festival of world importance” (“Letters to the Editor,” 2008), while Hank Verhoeven of Beacon Hill, NSW said “These past few months there have been many blatant manifestations of irritation, and of undiluted hatred as well regarding WYD and the Catholic church, especially in the print media” (“Letters to the Editor,” 2008).

Community Feedback

Sydney International Airport experienced long queues and some delays through immigration which would have inconvenienced locals, yet there was a carnival atmosphere. Visitors and local residents returning from trips overseas went along with the entertainment and caught onto the cheerful atmosphere. One visitor commented “When I found out my time in Sydney was going to coincide with WYD I thought I had better get out, now that I am here it looks like it is going to be a party, I might change my mind and stay”. The only disgruntled returning resident the researcher encountered was on the queue waiting to collect the rental car. He commented that “he wanted to get home to get some sleep as he had been on a plane for 24 hours. He was anti-WYD because he was gay. The Pope refuses to agree with his choice of life and therefore he was just anti the Pope and Catholics”. He also added that “the pilgrims in customs annoyed him with their singing, their American accents and speaking Spanish”. Custom officials and airport staff commented that the pilgrims have been arriving in large numbers all week, but they had never seen so many cheerful people. One employee commented that “a group from Croatia were still smiling and singing even though their luggage was left in London and half their group were stuck in Hong Kong. These types of tourists have made working here this last week a breeze”.

The pilgrim group the researcher was attached to undertook some volunteer work packing food packs for the final event. Most of the volunteers were local residents, from a diverse range of ethnic groups and predominantly Catholic. These residents were saying “Sydney is very lucky to have this event” and “WYD is great for us as it is an opportunity to revitalise our faith”. The following comment from a barista in the city summarises the central business district operators. “Yeah business is great for a
Saturday; you pilgrims are great for Sydney”. One elderly lady said to the group “Welcome, I hope you have a great time”. The researcher asked her views on WYD and her reply was “I am glad that Sydney is hosting this and welcoming the pilgrims. I think the ones that are complaining are just selfish and it is the media that just focuses on the negative. I think society is too individualistic and people are only concerned about their own things. I think it is great that we open up our homes and our city”.

**During the Event**

**Local Media**

Articles provided by the *Daily Telegraph* during WYD were firmly focused on the event itself. The common theme was that Sydneysiders had become swept up in the joyous nature of the event, “Happy mood overcoming Sydney” (July 16). Letters to the editor during this period were mostly positive, however some criticism of Morris Iemma and Kevin Rudd and their involvement in the event emerged. In the case of Kevin Rudd, the focus was mostly regarding his address at the opening ceremony, whereas Morris Iemma was criticised for an opinion piece where he highlighted the role religion plays in his politics. Also commented on in several letters was the way in which key services, including public transport and disability services were working so well, and questioning why this was not normally the case. Another letters to the editor included a resident supportive of the event even though he was not religious. There were “NoToPope” protestors, however the *Daily Telegraph* did not give this excessive coverage, just stating that they were drowned out by the pilgrims and the condoms they were handing out were thrown back to the protestors by the pilgrims. The telegraph did mention the intolerance of the ABC radio and television and Fairfax media to the event.

During WYD the *Sydney Morning Herald* seemed to warm to the event, as their coverage was not as negative as it had previously been. News coverage in relation to the event covered a broader range of issues than those included in the *Daily Telegraph*. Two significant issues covered were in relation to pilgrim visas and the detaining of some pilgrims. Included were stories of how some residents were benefiting from the event such as camping stores (Huxley, 2008). However there was still a degree of negativity in many of the stories, as the following headlines demonstrate “Leave your cars at home” (Bessor, 2008) and “Long Marches Await Weary Pilgrims” (Besser, 2008). Even though the feature articles were becoming more balanced towards the event, if not quite positive, the letters to the editor that were selected were predominantly negative: congratulations to the protestors, the Catholic Church is outdated, anti the event as non-Christians are not welcome. One letter stated that it is not fair to the pilgrims to deal with the negativity in the media.

**National Media**

The *Australian* continued to be predominately positive in their coverage during the event. Like the *Daily Telegraph*, their news coverage focused primarily on the actual events and the pilgrims attending these events. There was one article expressing disappointment that the Pope had not apologised for the sexual abuse by Catholic clergy and religious. They also included a lengthy feature article on 17th July regarding the
motivation of anti-pope protesters, which was attributed to stemming from the old Protestant/Catholic divide (Burchell, 2008). A second feature of particular interest was included in the Weekend Australian on 19th July. This feature noted the turnaround in attitudes toward the event, and attributed this to the excellent behavior of the pilgrims (Livingstone, 2008).

Community Feedback

The general comments by locals during the event were positive, and the event was likened to the Olympics, “you know the buzz of the Olympics being repeated again”. The event ran smoothly “Everybody has just been so harmonious, you know giving and taking and even sharing with people they don’t know, the global village is here and getting along with one another. Everyone has been really united and positive, and everywhere I go other locals and visitors are so cooperative”.

One of the potential impacts of the event on residents was visitors clogging the local transport system. Sydney commuters commented to the researcher that the pilgrims had had no impact. One railway guard at Pennant Hills railway station said “No hassles everything is moving, no one is waiting for the trains, everyone is happy and smiling. Even the locals are smiling and nice to me and not abusing or complaining to me”. He said, “I think we should have an event like this every month because it keeps our locals happy as well, it is really contagious, the cheerful atmosphere and environment”. As the event progressed many residents commented how, after capturing the atmosphere through TV broadcasts or word of mouth, they decided to come into the city to partake in the various events. One North Sydney employee said “People have been telling what a buzz the city is just to go in, and I’m going to take a walk tonight, over the bridge just to get, to feel the atmosphere”. Those involved directly with the pilgrims and the event had the following to say: A policeman and woman said “There have been no problems it has been no great effort on our part, we are having fun with the crowd, I wish every job was like this”.

After the Event

Local Media

The Daily Telegraph remained positive in coverage of the event right up until the end of July. The 2 days following the event contained comprehensive coverage of the final mass, the final blessing and the Pope’s departure. Coverage included the pilgrim who was assaulted at Randwick, the clean-up of Randwick racecourse and the tasks still to be completed by Bishop Anthony Fisher who was responsible for organising the event. They also included a special tribute to the volunteers, and published the names of all 8000 volunteers on 26th July.

Coverage of the final events of WYD08 by the Sydney Morning Herald was comprehensive; however a degree of negativity was apparent in the way in which they covered stories after the event. This was evident in range of articles that covered the ‘uproar’ over the cancellation of the Pope’s tour of Centennial Park (Harvey, 2008), the Catholic Church being out of pocket $15-20 million (Morris, 2008a) and questioning if
the Church will be able to capitalise in the longer term (Morris, 2008b). Several articles also highlighted the cost to residents of hosting the event, including the article that stated the retail sector did not feel they had benefited (Emerson, 2008) and how Church delays resulted in $2.4 million being wasted installing temporary smoke detectors and showers in schools (Jensen, 2008). An article on July 21 stated that the event was successful, but was critical of the Catholic Church. Another article on the same day commented on the success of the event, and thanked the pilgrims who made the event. The letters to the editor were still predominantly critical, but no new issues were raised.

**National Media**

In the 11 days following the event, The *Australian* had only a few articles related to World Youth Day. The 21st and 22nd July contained 8 articles providing a wrap up of the event. These were all positive in tone highlighting how successful the event was. The following edition of the *Weekend Australian* also contained 2 articles stating how successful the event was. Apart from one article that highlighted some criticisms of the Pope’s meeting with 4 victims of sexual abuse after the event had finished, and one gossip column that stated that the Pope smokes cigarettes, no other coverage was provided.

**Community Feedback**

A couple stated “We live in Sydney but did not participate in anything. But World Youth Day was wonderful, seeing all these young people so positive, and the fact that there was not one incident reported in the news that we are aware of. Being an elderly retired couple it gives us such hope for the youth, that this number, such a huge number can come together and not have any incidents”. One of the airport services staff at the International airport was asked to comment on her views of the pilgrims “They are wonderful, it is once again one of the busiest days in the airport but they are so respectful, kept the place clean, it is a pleasure to be around them”.

**Galaxy / Pure Profile Poll**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1 – Poll Findings</th>
<th>Good thing</th>
<th>Bad thing</th>
<th>Uncommitted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you think WYD was a good thing or a bad thing for Sydney?</td>
<td>71%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compared with your expectation before the event, how would you describe the inconvenience of having so many visitors?</td>
<td>Not as bad as expected 54%</td>
<td>Just as expected 34%</td>
<td>Worse than expected 12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you think the organisers of WYD did a good job or a poor job?</td>
<td>Good job 78%</td>
<td>Poor job 9%</td>
<td>Uncommitted 13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you agree that it was good to see so many young people enjoying themselves without creating a nuisance?</td>
<td>Agree 81%</td>
<td>Disagree 6%</td>
<td>Uncommitted 13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you agree that Sydney should offer to host WYD again?</td>
<td>Agree 51%</td>
<td>Disagree 26%</td>
<td>Uncommitted 23%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In analysing the print media there is evidence that there was good event planning and management on behalf of the event organisers, and this was supported by the poll. Extensive information was provided through the print media on bus, train and ferry services, maps of walking routes, road closures and detailed event information. An interesting point to note regarding the newspapers discussed above is the ownership of these newspapers. Fairfax Limited owns both the *Sydney Morning Herald* and *The Age*, the media that were predominately negative in their coverage prior to the event. The *Daily Telegraph* and the *Australian*, are owned by News Limited.

The media prior to the event did focus controversially on the economic impacts, while the economic benefits were promoted by the government, the tourism sector and the event organisers. The coverage of the social-cultural impacts by the media prior to the event was restricted to congestions, disruption to public transport and road closures. Letters to the editor during the event noted the lack of disruption. The social-cultural impacts were chiefly positive with local community civic pride, self-esteem, caught up in the festive atmosphere with a fond reminiscence of the Olympics. There were road closures, but the event was well managed and significant importance was placed on social-cultural impacts by the event organisers. The media appeared to perceive impacts prior to the event to be greater than what actually happened, which supports Kim and Petrick (2005) and Twynam and Johnston (2004) findings in relation to residents’ perceptions of impacts. The exposure in the media of the environmental impacts was quite small in context, especially prior to and during the event, with only one article on the WYD2008 carbon emissions offset scheme and another on the clean up after the event.

The research supports Fredline and Faulkner (2001) findings that high levels of contact with the event tend to lead to more extreme positions. Residents who came in contact with the researcher around the event exhibited extreme positions in relation to the event, mostly supportive. It needs to be acknowledged however that this data was ad hoc, and a limitation of the research is that there was no formal and systematic data collected regarding residents’ perception of the event besides the Galaxy Poll. The findings of this paper conflict with those of Allon’s (2004) and Scott and Smith’s (2005), highlighting residents’ antagonism, yet all three studies involved young people. The negative media reports, especially prior to the event did not reflect a decline in community support. The difference in this study is that the pilgrims were well behaved, and the cheerful carnival environment they created was welcomed by the residents. The subjects in the other two studies exhibited disruptive behaviour. This is perhaps due to the different types of ‘tourists’, one group characterised by hedonistic pleasure-seeking school leavers/backpackers, and the other group seeking a spiritual experience. An avenue for further research is to examine event participant behaviour, and the impact of this on community support for the event.

The media was relatively silent regarding community support for the event. The local community did take ownership as represented by government authorities, police, transport, health, officially registered volunteers, families who hosted pilgrims, donations of clothing and blankets for pilgrims from tropical climates, and unofficial
volunteers who helped WYD organisers in a range of tasks such as packaging food. Only one newspaper acknowledged the volunteers post event. The findings demonstrate the urban festival atmosphere that took hold of Sydney during the event which signifies community engagement with the event, but this was blurred amongst other media stories around WYD2008.

This investigation provides evidence of the media attempting to find an unusual angle or use of sensationalism in order to break through the ‘media noise’ by all three newspapers. Issues were raised unrelated to the actual event such as sex scandals in the Catholic Church, The Catholic Church is outdated, tension between the Catholic Church and other Christian Churches, political party views or personalities. Research exists providing evidence of a bias in the media against conservative religious issues and the culture wars played out through the media (Bolce & De Maio, 2008; Glascock, Livesay, & Ruggiero, 2008). Journalists have been found to be typically secularist, liberal and on the left hand side of the political divide (Underwood, 2002). A religiously orientated event such as World Youth Day was used, in this case, as another vehicle to continue the culture wars in the media, therefore mitigating the media as representative of community acceptance of the event. This was explicitly evidenced by the Sydney Morning Herald’s treatment of the event, and journalists from other newspapers and the letters to the editor accusing specific journalists of their bias. It is noted however that it is difficult to take an event out of the wider social-cultural context which typifies tourism research.

This paper supports Hoffman et al (2007) findings that the media has dual roles: shaper of public opinion and reflector of public opinion. There is evidence that the community’s positive response to the event and the event participants shaped the media during the event. Yet prior and post event the media took on the role of shaping public opinion though agenda setting and media framing (Perry, 1996; Rosenberry & Vicker, 2009). An area of further research could be close monitoring of the interplay between the event, the community and the media. It is also suggested that further research be conducted between connectedness, alignment and influence between the perception of the negative impacts by both media and residents in the lead up to the event.

Public opinion measured through a galaxy poll, post the event, showed residents to be favourable to the event and the pilgrims. Herbst (2001) argues that public opinion is measured through polls, and Moala (2005) argues that the media should only be a reflection of public opinion. In this case, post the event the Daily Telegraph appears to be a mirror, while the Sydney Morning Herald resorted back to critical reviews of the event, and the Australian through its silence was not interested in reflecting public opinion at all. This study would argue that the media do not accurately reflect community views towards an event. However more research is required to examine the relationship between media and community acceptance of the event. It would be recommended that future research selects an event that can be distanced from ideological controversy.
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Preamble

In ensuring collaboration of stakeholders for the long term benefits of a festival and it’s host destination it is vital that there is an understanding of the needs, interests and powers of each. Referring to the work of Mitchell, Agle and Wood (1997) Mossberg and Getz (2006) describe the variations between stakeholders as attributes of salience. The literature review, primary research and discussion presented here assess the role of the media as both evaluative element and arbitrator in the cooperative branding of festivals, concluding that this is a significant factor in ensuring agreed and shared socio-cultural benefits for the host area in which the respective salience of each stakeholder is acknowledged. In this ‘work-in-progress’ the author proposes that reference to the prevailing national and local policy in any country necessitates that the media be involved as both tool and dynamic stakeholder. Reference is made to policy in UK, Europe and Australia as example.

Abstract

Stakeholder collaboration is vital in ensuring a positive fit between a festival, its visitors and the need of the multifarious groups that reside, work or in some other way contributes to the life of the host area. In ensuring the development of an event with the support of the community (inclusive of businesses and other residents) the positive associations formed can be seen to determine positive outcomes. In this way the festivals’ value for the host destination can be described as event brand equity, commensurate with goodwill and other more tangible outcome (Getz, 2005; Mossberg & Getz, 2006).

While it has been stated that events can assist in promoting a place and, moreover, command positive media coverage (Reid, 2007; Waitt, 1999) this has tended towards emphasis on the special or mega sport event and a host area of metropolitan proportions (Ritchie, Sanders, & Mules, 2007). In this environment Getz and Fairley (2004) highlight the need to ensure that effective management of media interest can both generate tourism interest and aid destination image progression. There is much less however about the role of the media in and for cultural events or festivals.

In their comparative review of festivals in Sweden and Canada, respectively, Mossberg and Getz (2006) assess both the current position and future opportunity for public and private sector stakeholder interests to be united in co-branding allegiances born of involvement in local festivals. In their application of stakeholder theory in an investigation of event marketing (and branding) processes, the perceptions of power, legitimacy and urgency are identified as core elements effecting stakeholder cooperation and stakeholder significance. This is to say that stakeholders can be
categorized by their power and interest (their salience) in effecting the direction of the festival (Cherubini & Iasevoli, 2006; Hede, 2007). In recognizing therefore that festivals bridge a great number of political and policy dimensions (Sharpe, 2008; Waterman, 1998; Wood & Thomas, 2006) it is also clear that the message from and involvement of the media has a crucial role in negotiating these.

The authors of this presentation propose that the media as well as being a necessary stakeholder in the long term success of a festival is also a measurement gauge of the potential for – and the issues to be negotiated towards – stakeholder collaboration in forming event brand equity commensurate with positive socio-cultural output from festivals. With reference to a series of structured content analysis exercises undertaken on newspaper coverage of the impacts of festivals in the UK, 2006-2008, and interviews with directors and festival goers at festivals around the UK, the significance of the media in determining the significance of impacts is discussed. Further reflection is given to the need of associating these to the prevailing policy environment in which the event is held: both in Europe and in Australia.

REFERENCES


PUBLIC SECTOR SUPPORT FOR SPECIAL EVENTS:
RECONCILING ECONOMIC IMPACTS WITH COSTS AND
BENEFITS

Larry Dwyer
University of New South Wales.

Peter Forsyth
Monash University

Abstract

The standard approach taken to assessing the economic impacts of special events, using input-output (I-O) modelling, has come under increasing attack in the recent research literature. Critics have argued both that I-O modelling should be replaced by computable general equilibrium (CGE) modelling, and that cost benefit analysis should be used to account for the wider social and environmental impacts of events. This paper explores the critics' concerns, prior to highlighting the preferred economic impact assessment tool. The role of CBA is also discussed, highlighting the type of data that is needed for informed analysis. Researchers tend to treat economic impact analysis and CBA as distinct techniques of assessment, with the potential to provide conflicting recommendations. The paper outlines a method for partially integrating the two techniques. To set a context for the discussion, reference is made to the findings from research recently undertaken to estimate both the economic impacts and the net benefits of the Formula One Grand Prix held in Melbourne, Australia.

Keywords:
Special events, economic impact assessment, cost benefit analysis

INTRODUCTION

There are sometimes good economic and non economic reasons why a government may provide support for a special event. Special events increase the opportunities for new expenditure within a host region by attracting visitors to the region. They have the capacity to stimulate business activity, creating income and jobs in the short term and generate increased visitation and related investment in the longer term. Sponsorship by governments of special events, even when they are run at a financial loss, is often justified by the claim that the events produce economic benefits for the region, and country, in which they are hosted.

1 The research for this paper has been supported by the Sustainable Tourism Cooperative Research Centre, Gold Coast, Australia.
It is recognised that there may be other perceived benefits from events, such as enhancing the image of a city or region, facilitating business networking and civic pride. Events can also result in associated social and cultural benefits to a destination, providing forums for continuing education and training, facilitating technology transfer etc. On the other hand, events are recognised to generate adverse environmental impacts such as various forms of pollution and adverse social impacts such as disruption to local business and community backlash (Dwyer, Mellor, Mistilis, Mules 2000).

These aspects are very difficult to test or evaluate. Granted this, however, much of the public justification of events funding seems to centre on their expected positive economic impacts, with the social and environmental effects treated separately.

There are two standard approaches to assessing events, the first being economic impact analysis which estimates the impact of the event on variables such as Gross State Product and employment. The other, cost benefit analysis, provides estimates of the wider effects of the event, both positive and negative and attempts to put dollar values on these in order to estimate the overall result.

The usual approach to event evaluation has been for researchers and consultants to estimate the economic impacts of an event and then, alongside these, consider some of the possible wider effects of events that are not captured in the economic modelling. Effects of the latter type can be estimated using a formal CBA. This has resulted in a less than satisfactory approach to event evaluation since the economic impact analysis and the CBA can give conflicting results.

The economic impacts of special events are usually specified in terms of the multiplier effects on output and employment that are generated by expenditure on the event and by visitors. The multipliers are typically based on I-O modelling. In recent years a number of articles have been published which have been critical of various aspects of this approach. Thus critics such as Porter (1999, Matheson 2002, Matheson and Baade 2003, Blake 2005 and Crompton 2006) argue that the economic impacts of events are often exaggerated. These critics have highlighted some inappropriate practices in event assessment which inflate the estimated economic impacts. These practices include: exaggerating visitor numbers and expenditure, failure to deduct residents’ expenditure prior to modelling, abuse of multipliers, inclusion of time switchers and casuals), as well as the tendency to ignore the various costs associated with special events (e.g. opportunity costs, costs borne by the local community, and displacement costs). These criticisms indicate that considerable caution must be employed before the results of any economic impact assessment of an event may be accepted. The issues that these critics raise certainly need to be better understood by the research community, but importantly they need to be better understood by industry stakeholders since it is their hired consultants who often flaunt ‘best practice’ in pursuit of their objective of providing the client with large numbers and optimistic economic impact assessments of events.
In addition to the above types of ‘in-house’ criticisms of event assessment, a number of articles and reports have appeared in recent years that have argued that the entire approach to event assessment needs a re-examination. One element of this approach emphasises that the economic assessment models used for estimating the economic impacts of major events should reflect contemporary developments in economic analysis, particularly regarding the use of Computable General Equilibrium (CGE) modelling. More specifically, this has involved an attack on the uncritical use of I-O modelling, hitherto the standard technique of economic impact assessment of major events (Dwyer, Forsyth and Spurr 2005).

A second element in the new approach argues that event assessment which focuses only on economic impacts is too narrow in scope to provide sufficient information to policy makers and government funding agencies and that, where practical, a cost benefit approach should be employed to embrace the emerging importance of social and environmental impacts in addition to economic impacts (Jago and Dwyer 2006). Cost benefit analysis (CBA) is the ‘ideal’ approach to event assessment since it is the expected net benefits from any use of government funds that should guide resource allocation. Unfortunately, CBA has enormous data requirements that make it rather impractical to apply for all events. Because of this, a review of the worldwide literature on event assessment reveals that, despite acknowledgement of the wider social and environmental effects typically associated with events, only a handful of studies have employed a detailed CBA as an evaluation tool.

This paper has three main aims. The first is to highlight the limitations of the standard I-O technique in event economic impact assessment. Since I-O analysis has inherent biases that overstate the impacts on output and jobs, it fails to provide information on industries adversely affected by the increased tourism demand. As a result, there is likely to be a misallocation of events funding and excessive overall spending in promoting events. In particular, I-O models will be contrasted with CGE models which provide potentially much more accurate assessments of an event’s economic impacts.

The second aim is to argue that a focus solely on the economic impacts of events will provide insufficient guidance to policy makers as to whether or not the event warrants support by way of public funding. In particular it will be argued that it is the expected net benefits of an event that are important in allocating scarce resources to its support. Thus, a more detailed assessment of a major event requires CBA. CBA is the most comprehensive of the economic appraisal techniques and comprises a systematic process for identifying and assessing all (both direct and indirect) costs and benefits of an event, including, in principle though not always in practice, social and environmental costs and benefits.

A third aim of the paper is to address an issue that about which there is much confusion on the part of tourism researchers and industry stakeholders. This relates to how the outcomes of economic impact assessment and CBA can be reconciled. Researchers tend to treat economic impact analysis and CBA as distinct techniques of assessment, with the
potential to provide conflicting recommendations. Accordingly, this paper will explore the relationship between the preferred economic impact assessment tool of CGE modelling, and CBA, highlighting the type of data that is needed for informed policy making.

To set a context for the discussion, reference will be made to the findings from research recently undertaken to estimate both the economic impacts and the net benefits of the Formula One Grand Prix held in Melbourne, the capital city of the state of Victoria, Australia.

ECONOMIC ASSESSMENT OF EVENTS

The multipliers used to estimate the impacts on output, income, and employment associated with a special event are invariably based on Input-Output (I-O) models (Burns et al 1987; Ryan and Lockyer 2001; Crompton and Lee 2001; Crompton 1995, 2006). In recent years, a growing number of researchers have argued that I-O modelling is, in general, inappropriate for economic impact assessment of special events. Specifically, the concerns with I-O modelling relate to its rigid assumptions, such as exclusion of factor constraints and price changes and neglect of industry interactive effects, which ignore economic realities and which act to exaggerate the economic impacts of events (Dwyer, Forsyth and Spurr 2005, Blake 2005, Jago and Dwyer 2006, Madden 2006).

The assumptions of I-O modelling imply that the injection of ‘new money’ into an event location will always have a positive impact on production, income and employment. Although an I-O model can allow for resource constraints it ignores the price changes that are likely to result from this. The rigidity of these assumptions is such that little confidence can be placed in the accuracy of the projected results. Unless there is significant excess capacity in tourism related industries, the primary effect of an injection of expenditure into an area is to alter the industrial structure of the economy, rather than to generate a large increase in aggregate economic activity. Its effect will thus show up as a change in the composition of the economy rather than as a net addition to activity. Key mechanisms, which determine the size of the economic impacts resulting from increased tourism demand, include: factor supply constraints; real exchange rate appreciation; and current government economic policy (Dwyer, Forsyth, Madden & Spurr 2000). The upshot is that I-O modelling does not provide an accurate picture of the economic impacts of events and is thus incapable of informing event funding agencies of the ‘bangs for bucks’ to be expected from event funding.

Recognising the limitations of I-O models for event impact estimation, a growing number of researchers, are employing CGE models for this purpose and to meet the rigorous constraints on event assessment demanded by funding agencies. CGE models provide a highly useful and flexible framework to examine the impacts of injected visitor expenditure associated with a special event. Space limitations preclude a discussion of the structure of CGE models, which, in any case, are tailored to a particular economy at a
particular point in time. A good discussion of the structure of a CGE model as used in event assessment can be found in Blake (2005).

Despite the problems with I-O modelling of an event’s economic impacts and the existence of a superior technique it is unfortunate that uncritical use of I-O modelling is still prevalent in the tourism literature. This is not to say that CGE modelling does not have its own problems (Dwyer and Forsyth 2006) but it does represent a more realistic approach to event assessment.

COST BENEFIT ANALYSIS OF EVENTS

Estimates of the economic impacts of an event provide, in themselves, an imperfect basis for decisions about resource allocation. Economic impacts, such as the change in Gross State Product (GSP) resulting from an event, are not the same thing as the economic benefits which arise. The change in GSP is a gross exaggeration of how much better off the state, and, more precisely, its residents, are. The measured impacts on economic activity of most tourism shocks, such as increases in tourism expenditure, may normally be expected to be much greater than the net benefits which they generate for the community (or in other words, the measure of the extent to which they make the community better off).

CBA estimates the sum of welfare effects of an event for a particular community. These welfare effects include benefits and costs experienced by (a) consumers and producers of the event(s), and (b) other members of the community who may be neither consumers nor producers of these events but who, as third party participants, nevertheless share in the costs and benefits. The aggregate result of a CBA indicates whether the estimated gains exceed the costs to the community as a whole. If the estimated net social benefit of an event is positive, (the total benefit exceeds the total cost) then the event is said to be an efficient use of society’s economic resources.

The results of economic impact studies of a special event can only estimate the effect on the economy, whereas the question of whether an event is worth funding can only be determined by estimating the event’s net benefit. A CBA can estimate the sum of welfare effects of a special event for a particular community. A welfare effect is simply any cost or benefit experienced by a member of the relevant community, consisting of consumers, producers, and third parties who are not directly involved in the event. In contrast, an economic impact study does not include benefits to consumers nor third party effects which are not captured in the markets as modelled. The benefits of an event outweigh the costs if the consumer’s willingness-to-pay outweighs the value of the resources used in the process (where value is represented by the opportunity cost involved). If the benefits exceed costs, there is a positive net social benefit and the project should proceed. Conversely, if costs exceed benefits, there is a negative net social benefit and the project should be modified or not supported.
The event literature comprises very few CBA of events. Recently a CBA of the forthcoming Winter Olympic Games in Vancouver 2010 was undertaken (Shaffer, Greer and Mauboules 2003), where the authors forecast that the event will generate net costs to the Province of British Columbia of $1.2 billion. This is despite an economic impact study commissioned by the government of British Colombia that concluded that the event would generate claims by some proponents that the Games will generate over $10 billion in provincial GDP and more than 200,000 jobs (InterVistas 2002). Two post hoc studies undertaken of motor race events in Australia also conclude that the costs exceeded the benefits (ACT Auditor General 2002; Victorian Auditor-General 2007). Each study aimed to provide an independent assessment of the economic value derived from a special event and to assist agencies in the selection and application of methodologies for evaluating major events. Interestingly, the Victorian Auditor-General commissioned one independent consultant to apply CGE modeling to estimate the economic effects of the Formula 1 Grand Prix held in Melbourne, Victoria, in 2005, and commissioned another independent consultant to perform a CBA of the same event.

**Outcome of CGE modeling**

The CGE model used to assess the economic impacts of the Grand Prix was the Monash Multiregional Forecasting (MMRF) model that has had a long history of use by various state and Australian government agencies, and is updated on an ongoing basis (Adams, Horridge and Wittwer 2003). The model is built from the “bottom up” and states are linked via interstate trade, interstate migration and capital movements. The MMRF model is comprised of 8 Australian regions (the 6 states and 2 territories) and 56 sub-state regions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>GSP/GDP $m</th>
<th>Private investment $m</th>
<th>Private consumption $m</th>
<th>Public consumption $m</th>
<th>Tax revenue $m</th>
<th>Employment</th>
<th>Current account balance $m</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Victoria</td>
<td>62.4</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>400</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rest of Australia</td>
<td>-60.5</td>
<td>-15.3</td>
<td>-22.0</td>
<td>-5.3</td>
<td>-0.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nation</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>-2.6</td>
<td>-5.9</td>
<td>-1.7</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-4.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Victorian Auditor-General [2007]. Dollars are $Australian (approx 65 cents US in January 2009)

The CGE simulations indicate that an increase in expenditure of $58.4m injected into the State of Victoria as a result of the grand prix generates positive macroeconomic consequences, with real GSP up by $62.4 million, and real consumption increasing by $16.1 million. Real public consumption expenditure is assumed to move with real private
consumption expenditure in response to the activity associated with the grand prix. The special event is found to generate 400 new jobs in the State (full time equivalents).

The grand prix crowds out activity in some industries both within the state and elsewhere in Australia. The modelling indicates that the event is associated with a substantial shift of resources and economic activity from the rest of Australia to Victoria, reducing GSP in other states by $60.5 million in total. Australian expenditures on the grand prix (that is, those by Victorians and people from other states) are funded wholly or partly by reductions in expenditures on other goods and services. In the case of interstate visitors, this means that their spending in Victoria leads to equal sized reductions in spending in their home states. This, combined with the negative effects of real appreciation on the competitiveness of traded-goods industries throughout Australia, are the main reasons underlying the crowding-out of activity in the rest of Australia, rendering national real GDP as essentially unaffected. Overall, due to a large decrease in GSP in other states, the grand prix generates a mere $1.9m increase in GDP in Australia as a whole. The CGE model assumes that the grand prix has no effect on national employment, with the national real wage rate adjusting to ensure that national employment does not change. This is a standard long-run modelling assumption, based on the idea that in the long-run national employment is determined by demographic factors (birth rates, death rates etc.) and macro-economic management which are unaffected by the grand prix.

Government budget balances (Federal and state) are held fixed in the model via endogenous changes in lump-sum payments to households. It follows, therefore, that any increase in taxation receipts arising from the grand prix will be immediately passed on to households. The fall in consumption outside Victoria leads to a fall in real national domestic “absorption” (the sum of consumption, investment and government expenditure) relative to real gross domestic demand.

**Outcome of CBA**

Following the CBA of special events the main types of benefits and costs may be identified.

**Benefits**

The benefits comprise payments to event organisers, resident consumer benefits, surpluses to state businesses and surpluses to labour.

*(1) Payments to event organisers*

For most events the largest item of benefits will be the payments to the event organiser (eg. ticket revenue, sponsorship revenue). The ticket sales and sponsor revenue received by the AGPC (exclusive of goods and services tax payments) are a benefit to the resident taxpayer in that they offset the costs incurred in staging the grand prix, and reduce the
size of the Victorian Government subsidy to the Grand Prix. Payments to organisers located outside the state are treated as costs.

(2) **Resident consumer benefits may be classified into three types:**

(a) Consumer benefits (consumer surpluses) derived by resident householders who attend the event. Local residents, as patrons of the event, are willing to pay more to attend the event than the ticket price. Consumer surplus is the difference between the amount residents would be willing to pay for a ticket and what they actually pay. Ticket prices may not reflect the maximum that many consumers may be willing to pay for a good or service. The practice of ticket scalping is an indication that people are often willing to pay more than the official ticket price, and that consumer surplus exists.

(b) Consumer benefits from attending related off site events (satellite events). Many events have such activities associated with them. These usually comprise a mix of ticketed and non-ticketed activities. During the 2005 Grand Prix, most related events took place in Melbourne city centre including the parade of F1 cars and the live site in Federation Square attended by several thousand people.

(c) Destination household benefits from indirect enjoyment of the event (non attendees). This refers to the pride and enjoyment the residents would derive simply from hosting the event.

(3) **Surpluses to State businesses (returns to capital above opportunity costs).**

Business surplus is the difference between the value of output and the cost of the factors of production (land, labour and capital), where their cost reflects their value in alternative uses. The source of business surplus comes when a firm is able to expand output with the difference between the cost of the expanded output and the sale value being the business surplus. From this figure we deduct income payable abroad (proportion of the surplus that accrues to out-of-state businesses).

(4) **Benefits to resident labour (above opportunity costs).**

An event may result in the creation of additional employment in the state or sub region. Additional employment can be an extra source of net benefit over and above the business surplus. Labour surpluses are assumed to be generated because some jobs go to unemployed or underemployed workers who can be hired on a casual basis to meet the extra demand. The surplus accruing to labour is the amount of the wage above what is necessary to induce a worker to take on an employment opportunity, which in turn is determined by the wage in alternative employment opportunities. Thus, labour surplus occurs in the situation where labour is employed at a wage higher than what workers would be prepared to accept to enter into employment.
Costs

There are three main sets of costs of a special event.

(1) Within the CBA framework, funds flow into the event organiser as benefits, and out as the costs of construction and operation of the event. Major categories of organiser costs include: event management and staging, recurrent engineering, marketing/promotion and catering, administration. These financial flows associated with an event can be estimated in a fairly straightforward way as they are based on balance sheet figures of government departments and agencies.

(2) Event-related costs incurred by other State government agencies. Other event related costs incurred by other state government agencies might include payments in respect of: Roads and traffic authority, Police, Ambulance, Fire Brigade, State Emergency Services.

(3) Social and environmental costs including noise, congestion, disruption to resident lifestyles, traffic diversion, impact on destination image, carbon footprint and loss of access to amenities incurred by the host destination community. The grand prix in Melbourne has for some years been the focus of concern by community groups that oppose the closure of suburban streets and parkland which is claimed to disrupt their lives. These effects, economic as well as non economic, are often ignored unless a particular effort is made to include them in a comprehensive event assessment. They represent, nonetheless, very real effects of events on a destination and need to be recognised in the overall assessment of the costs and benefits of special events to the host destination. Many such effects are not sufficiently defined or measurable to be included in a CBA.

As indicated in Table 2, the benefits of the Australian Formula 1 Grand Prix in 2005 were $63.1 million in total. The major component of benefits was visitor and sponsor payments to the AGPC. Minor sources of benefits comprised consumer surplus ($3.4 million), benefits of participants at related off site events ($1.9 million), surpluses accruing to businesses ($3.7 m) and surpluses accruing to labour ($1.7 m).

The costs of producing the 2005 Grand Prix event were estimated to be $69.8 million, while the estimated benefits were $63.1 million. This yielded an estimated net benefit (cost) of $ -6.7 million.
Table 2 Net Benefit (Cost) of Australian Formula 1 Grand Prix, 2005

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benefits</th>
<th>$ 63.1m</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Visitor and sponsor payments to the AGPC</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$52.4m</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Victorian grand prix consumer surpluses $3.4m</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Other consumer benefits – e.g. benefits of participating in related off-site events $1.9m</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Surpluses gained by Victorian businesses $3.7 m</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Surpluses gained by Victorian labor $1.7m</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Costs</td>
<td>$69.8m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Construction and operating costs incurred by AGPC, $68.1m</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Grand prix-related costs incurred by other Victorian government agencies $0.5m</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Costs incurred by the Victorian community, including loss of Albert Park uses and amenity, traffic diversion and congestion, and noise. $1.2m</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Net Benefits</td>
<td>-$6.7 m</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Victorian Auditor-General [2007]

The estimated net cost of $6.7 million is sensitive to assumptions made about Victorian consumer surpluses and Victorian business and labour surpluses. The latter depend importantly on the extent to which labour required to hold the event is diverted from other uses or from unemployment. The results of these sensitivity tests demonstrate that the size of the best estimate of the overall net benefit to Victoria from the Grand Prix does not change significantly in the face of plausible variations in the estimates for consumer surplus, business surplus and labour surplus, and that none of the variations alone has the capability of turning the negative net benefit into a positive net benefit. Similarly, when the most optimistic and the most pessimistic of the sensitivity outcomes for consumer surplus, business surplus and labour surplus are combined, the most optimistic outcome is $0.8 million and the most pessimistic outcome is $-13.2 million (Victorian Auditor-General 2007:122).

RECONCILING ECONOMIC IMPACT ANALYSIS AND CBA

The results of the studies appear to point in different directions. The CBA study indicates that benefits fall short of costs by $6.7m, while the CGE study indicates that the event led to a $62.4m increase in GSP, and generated 400 jobs. The CBA indicates that the grand prix is a poor investment, while the CGE study appears to suggest a highly positive outcome.
Contrary to what might be implied in much of the economic impacts literature, estimates of the economic impacts of events provide, in themselves, an imperfect basis for decisions about resource allocation. The problem arises from a failure to distinguish clearly between the impacts and the (net) benefits of the event. The failure to make the distinction clear, has, we believe, resulted in the situation where tourism stakeholders generally regard ‘impacts’ as synonymous with ‘benefits’. ‘Impacts’ on economic activity, are measured by changes in GDP or similar measures. The change in GDP is an exaggeration of how much better off the country, and, more precisely, its residents, are when additional resources are used to enable this activity (Forsyth and Dwyer 1993). ‘Net benefits’ are a measure of the value of the gain in economic activity less the cost needed to enable this extra activity.

It is interesting that the issue of reconciling economic impact analysis and CBA has received almost no attention in the research literature. Because both CBA and CGE are quite different in their purpose, method and application, in the area of event assessment at least their results appear to be regarded as not directly comparable with one another. While a CBA addresses the extent of net social benefit to the host destination from the event itself, it cannot measure the level of economic activity generated from the event or the wider flow-on effects. On the other hand while economic impact analysis measures the level of economic activity associated with the event, it cannot address the issue of whether the event should receive government support. This is the view of the Victoria Auditor General (2007). Consistent with this, the stance taken by those few researchers who have addressed the issue is that essentially they are complementary techniques, and one technique picks up aspects that are not picked by the other (Mules and Dwyer 2005).

In our view, treating the two techniques as distinct creates confusion among event managers and other stakeholders. In what follows we explore an approach that attempts, as far as is possible, to integrate the two methods so as to better inform policy makers about the net benefits associated with a special event.

Traditional CBA is primarily, though not necessarily, a partial equilibrium technique. It focuses on the direct impacts of a project, for example, the consumer surplus generated, the cash costs and revenues, the direct environmental externalities and so forth. Shadow pricing normally seeks to correct for the direct distortions in input and output markets, for example, in handling taxes levied on fuel used by a project. However, the shadow pricing problem is essentially a general equilibrium one – the shadow price of an input depends on how an extra unit of its use affects all markets in the economy, directly and indirectly (Boadway, 1975, and Drèze and Stern, 1987).

The general equilibrium nature of the cost benefit problem can be seen in the problem of shadow pricing labour, often the most important input. If labour markets are perfect, and there are no taxes on labour, the market wage rate can be taken as the shadow price. However, if there is excess labour in the economy, or heavy taxation of labour, a shadow pricing problem exists. An event will employ people, but it is not clear what net impact
on employment and unemployment will result. To some extent the extra demand generated by the event will lead to wages being bid up, drawing workers away from other parts of the economy. Existing employees in affected sectors may work longer hours. If an event leads to additional employment and reduced unemployment in an economy there will be a benefit since the wages paid in event related employment event will exceed the shadow wage, or real cost of employment. Determining what the impact on employment of an event is, the cost of employing additional persons in the economy, is essentially a general equilibrium problem.

Partial equilibrium CBA also cannot handle situations where the level of economic activity in a jurisdiction or national economy changes. One of the main benefits of events is that they stimulate economic activity in a region, state or national economy. Determining the additional output, and use of inputs, is essentially a general equilibrium exercise since the impact on activity, output and the use of inputs depends on how markets across the economy work. In particular they depend on how inputs markets work, such as for capital and labour. In a region or state, labour may flow in from other states, and if unemployment is present, the labour force can be augmented from unemployed persons. Even if unemployment is present or immigration is feasible, there may be limits on the availability of skilled employees, and increased demand may lead to higher wages rather than additional output. For the national economy, the potential labour force can be accepted as fixed for most countries, since immigration in response to labour market shortages is often not permitted. When there is additional expenditure in a national economy due to an event, the impact on economic activity will be moderated by exchange rate movements (induced by the rise in exports) and a reduction in output of other export and import competing industries. Typically, the positive impact of an event on economic activity will be larger in a state than in the national economy as a whole since it will be possible to shift economic activity to the host state from other states – the supply of inputs to the national economy as a whole will be less flexible than to parts of the economy.

As a result of stimulation of economic activity, welfare can increase. Additional economic activity leads to increased value added in the region (or Gross State Product in a state or Gross Domestic Product in a nation). The extra output is valuable, but there are costs in producing it. Additional inputs, such as labour and capital, must be used to produce it and these are costly. The net gain to the economy will be the value of the additional output less the cost of additional resources used. Even if new jobs are created, and unemployed persons gain employment, there is a cost since these will have to forego leisure and will incur the disutility of work - typically, most unemployed persons would not be prepared to work for nothing. When employment in a state increases due to immigration from other states the gain to the state will be small, since the net gain to the migrants is likely to be much smaller than the wage they receive once the costs of moving, and the wages they could have obtained in the origin state are taken into account.
Essentially, CBA is detailed but partial equilibrium, whereas CGE techniques are general equilibrium but less detailed. In principle, it would be possible to develop a CGE model which incorporates all the detail that one might include in a CBA, but in practice, this would be an impossibly demanding task. A CBA picks up a whole range of benefits and costs which would not be picked up in a CGE model. This includes non priced effects which do not get included in the markets which are modelled- noise from an event, the consumers surplus of home patrons, loss of park amenity and traffic congestion associated with the event. The CGE modelling, in contract picks up the increased income to households resulting from the event. Since neither technique is completely comprehensive, both have a role in a comprehensive evaluation of a project or event.

One problem is that of overlap. Some aspects would normally be captured in both forms of evaluation. One of these would be the profit from an event. If an event earns a profit, this will be counted as a benefit along with consumer surplus and other benefits in a CBA. In a CGE study, if an event earns a profit, this should lead to an increase in real GDP, other things equal. When local patrons shift their expenditure from other goods and services to the event, the costs of the inputs used to create the event will be less than the value of its output. These resources can be used elsewhere to create other output of value, which will be added to GDP. A similar situation occurs when the event caters for visitors from outside the jurisdiction. If the price paid for the event by visitors is greater than the cost of the resources used to enable the event then resources are freed to create value elsewhere, and GDP rises. In integrating the results of CBA and CGE studies, the rule should be to exclude any overlaps, or effects which are counted in both studies.

The cost of raising taxes to fund a subsidy is something which can also be handled in both a CBA and CGE analysis. In a CBA, if taxes are raised to subsidise the event, there will be a cost due to the deadweight loss created from raising taxes. Raising $1 of tax imposes more than an additional $1 of cost on the economy because the additional tax increases an already present distortion. Taxes cannot be raised costlessly. It is estimated that the cost of raising $1 of tax in Australia is $1.2 to $1.5 (for discussion, see (Freebairn, 1995; Campbell and Bond, 1997), and in a state of Australia more than this because state governments only have access to relatively distorting taxes.

If an event incurs a loss to be financed by government there is an additional cost which needs to be taken into account. This cost is automatically taken account of in a CGE but must be explicitly addressed in a CBA. In a CGE analysis, the additional taxes required to fund the subsidy would lead to a shift in the composition of output (even in a full employment situation where there is no macro effect of the tax on economic activity). The output of taxed goods with a high price to cost ratio would be lowered to increase the output of a low price to cost ratio, and this will lead to a reduction in real GDP. In addition, a rise in taxes in a state may make the state less competitive, which would lead to a shift in economic activity to other states. This additional effect may not matter for the national economy as a whole, but it would raise the cost of funding subsidies for the event’s host state.
INTEGRATION IN PRACTICE

In fact, the CBA study does include some benefits which come about through indirect effects throughout the economy, and which are measured using CGE techniques. A CBA would detail benefits and costs, such as consumers’ surplus, which would not be picked up in a CGE study, while the CGE study would pick up general equilibrium effects which the partial CBA is not capable of detecting.

Some CGE models are explicitly designed to measure changes in welfare (Dixon et al 2002). In his study of the impacts of the London Olympics 2012 Blake (2005) includes a measure of resident welfare. Consistent with economic theory, Blake’s model measures a change in welfare by equivalent variation (EV), which indicates how much the change in welfare is worth to the economy at the pre-simulation set of prices. This measure takes the results from what may be quite complex effects of a simulation on a household and produces a single value to describe how much better (or worse) off the economy is as a result of such effects. Blake’s estimates employ EV, along with production measures such as GVA and GDP, to assess the welfare effects of simulations on the economy (Blake 2005). The credibility of such estimates depends upon how robust they are to alternative specifications of the utility functions, production functions, ability of factors to move from jurisdiction to jurisdiction, and many other assumptions inherent in the CGE model.

One step towards assessing the gain to the economy from the increase in economic activity is to measure the changes in surpluses (or differences between gross gains and the costs of obtaining them). As we have indicated, owners of capital/businesses, governments and workers may gain from increased economic activity. Moreover, if tax receipts increase as a result of increased economic activity, there is a surplus gain which accrues to the government.

Following the estimates of the economic impacts of an event on GSP, two measures of ‘net benefit’ can be derived, namely business surplus and labour surplus, both of which were defined above.

Dwyer et al (2006b) have shown how business surplus can be derived from the outputs of a CGE model. When an event is held, businesses such as hotels and restaurants and tour companies are likely to accrue business surpluses because of some likely spare capacity. Thus, for the grand prix, if local businesses were able to accommodate the extra demand created by interstate and international visitors to the event without reducing their services to other customers, and without requiring additional capital and land, then those businesses would earn surpluses. In the approach of Dwyer et al (2006b) a measure of ‘business surplus’ is generated by subtracting the cost of additional labour used (wage by quantity), the cost of additional capital services supplied domestically and cost of additional natural resources from the change in the value of the increased economic activity, as measured by the change in GSP. From this figure income payable abroad
(proportion of the surplus that accrues to out-of-state businesses), must be deducted. Used for event impact analysis, a public sector agency could employ a CGE model to estimate the impacts of an event on GSP and then deduct the costs of labour from this figure to derive the value of business surplus. Adopting this approach for the grand prix, as indicated above business surplus is estimated to be $3.7 million.

The estimation of surpluses to labour is slightly more complex. The standard procedure in CBA is to assume full employment, so that all labour, capital and land are valued at their opportunity cost. There are circumstances, however, where an event may well result in the creation of additional employment in the state or sub region. Any additional employment can be an extra source of net benefit over and above the business surplus. Labour surpluses are generated when jobs go to unemployed or underemployed workers who can be hired on a casual basis to meet the extra demand. This is often the situation for a special event. A labour surplus occurs in the situation where the additional labour is employed at a wage higher than what workers would be prepared to accept to enter into employment. Thus, the surplus accruing to labour is the amount of the wage above what is necessary to induce a worker to take on an employment opportunity, which in turn is determined by the wage in alternative employment opportunities. Additional jobs due to the holding of events would bring a positive benefit to the economy, since persons who are involuntarily unemployed would be willing to work for less than they will be paid if they obtained a job. The difference between the cost of labour, evaluated at the market wage rate, and evaluated at the shadow or reservation wage, is an additional benefit from the increased economic activity associated with an event.

The CGE model can allow for the effects of different costs of expanding the amount of labour employed. If additional event related expenditure leads to less involuntary unemployment, additional labour should be costed at less than the market wage, and the measured benefit from the event should be larger. With information on the shadow wage, the labour surplus can be calculated and added to the measure of net benefits produced by the CGE model. In an earlier attempt to estimate labour surplus from simulations using a CGE model, Dwyer et al. (2005) assumed that workers who gained jobs because of an increase in tourism demand were willing to work for two-thirds of the wage that they received. This implied a surplus for each worker equal to one-third of the wage actually received. The overall labour surplus was thus estimated to be one-third of the additional wages bill associated with the additional employment. Since wage rates are known (from estimation of the business surplus) the labour effect can then be derived in a straightforward manner. The same assumptions underlying the study by Dwyer et al. (2005) were employed by the Victorian Auditor General (2007) to estimate the labour surplus figure of $1.7 million) used in the CBA of the grand prix.

If it is assumed that all of the output reflected in the value of GSP is produced by the application of unemployed or part-time labour to the spare capacity available in capital and land, all of the difference between labour cost and GSP is a surplus that accrues to existing capital and land. This is because no additional capital and land were required to meet the extra demand. The Victoria Auditor General adopted this approach to estimate
business surplus as part of the CBA of the Grand Prix in Melbourne (Victoria Auditor General 2007).

The measures of business surplus and labour surplus can be added together to comprise a measure of the ‘net economic benefit’ of an event that a government can employ in its assessment of which degree of support, if any, is warranted for a special event. In summary:

Impact of event on real GSP less the costs of the factors of production (land, labour and capital) = Business surplus + Labour surplus = Net Economic Benefit of Event

It must be stressed that business surpluses and labour surpluses do not comprise the total net benefits - they form only part of a CBA. As discussed, costs to government need to be deducted while benefits to consumers, and benefits to residents including effects on third parties, need to be added to the estimates of business and labour surpluses to provide a more comprehensive estimate of the net (overall) net benefits of an event. It is also recognised that there are various other event associated costs and benefits that are not included in any of the above measures. These items include various wider economic effects, such as future increased tourism numbers and expenditure, increased investment, enhanced trade and business development, as well as social and environmental effects that are difficult to measure but must, nevertheless, be acknowledged in any comprehensive accounting of the costs and benefits of an event.

CONCLUSIONS

This paper had three aims. The first was to highlight the limitations of the standard I-O technique in event economic impact assessment. We have argued that the standard approach, using multipliers from I-O models is likely to result in a misallocation of events funding and excessive overall spending in developing events. CGE models are the preferred technique for assessing the impact of an event on economic activity, and its various dimensions such as GSP/GDP and employment. The CGE approach gets around the serious problems encountered by I-O techniques, so often used (or misused) in event evaluation, for assessing impacts.

The second aim was to argue that a focus solely on the economic impacts of events provides insufficient guidance to policy makers as to whether or not the event warrants support by way of public funding. To do this we contrasted the results of an economic impact assessment and a CBA of the same event. To illustrate some results of CGE and CBA analysis of the same event we referred to two studies recently commissioned by the Victoria Auditor-General as part of a comprehensive study of best practice event assessment (Victorian Auditor-General 2007). The CBA study indicates that benefits fall short of costs by $6.7m, while the CGE study indicates that the event lead to a $62.4m increase in GSP, and generated 400 jobs. The CBA indicates that the grand prix is a poor investment, while the CGE study appears to suggest a highly positive outcome.
A third aim of the paper was to explore how the outcomes of economic impact assessment and CBA can be reconciled. We have argued that there is indeed common ground between CBA and economic impact analysis of special events. In particular, it was argued that the two techniques focus on different aspects of the evaluation problem. CBA is the established techniques for assessing the wider benefits and costs of a project, and as such, it is an appropriate framework for classification and measurement of the projected outcomes of an event. While CBA would emphasise consumer surplus as a primary source of gains from an event, in the case of larger special events, however, their outcomes are not aimed specifically at providing benefits to local consumers, but rather at attracting tourists and their expenditure from outside the region. It would seem then that economic impact analysis can provide important information on what is essentially a major source of benefit of a special event.

A complete integration of the results of the two studies outlined above was not feasible given the information provided. However, we identified how the different elements can be integrated, giving particular attention to the problem of overlap. Recognising that changes in GSP/GDP are gross changes, and not measures of the net welfare gain, we noted some of the benefits and costs arising from changes in economic activity as estimated in the CGE simulation. When the subsidy cost of achieving these changes are taken account of, the grand prix looks more marginal, and the assessment is consistent with that of the CBA study.

The use of CGE modelling to derive business and labor surpluses that comprise important components of a CBA represents an important step in clarifying and reconciling the differences that often exist between impact analysis and CBA of a special event. The approach that we recommend in this report bridges the gap between economic impact analysis and CBA, in a way that has policy relevance for a public sector agency in order to inform its decisions in respect of which events should receive support and which events should not be supported by government funds. The effectiveness of this approach to evaluating the impacts of special events will, of course, always be constrained by the availability of data. As indicated, the concept of ‘net economic benefit’ excludes many effects of events which need to be taken into account in any comprehensive event assessment. Important components in estimating costs and benefits, such as those relating to environmental and social impacts can be inherently difficult to value. This will also apply to any “feel good” component which the hosting of an event may provide for a community. The perceived impact on future tourism or investment flows as a result of wide media coverage, or from the business networking opportunities provided, have also been used to justify the hosting of a major event or even for the cumulative effect on a city or region’s wider profile from hosting a regular ongoing series of events. Evaluations of these effects remain fertile ground for further research.
REFERENCES


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ESTIMATING THE ECONOMIC IMPACT OF THE 2008 HAM-PYEONG WORLD BUTTERFLY AND INSECT EXPO KOREA: USING REGIONAL INPUT-OUTPUT MODEL

Soon Hwa Kang
Woosuk University

Jung Hwan Kim
Relationship Manager, Corporate Finance Team
Korea Development Bank

Abstract

The 2008 Ham-Pyeong World Butterfly and Insect Expo Korea (18 April to 1 June 2008), which is the research subject of this paper, is one of the well known local festivals representing Korea. This ecological festival focusing on butterflies, insects and flowers in the theme of nature and rural amenity, has steadily contributed to the income improvement of the local economy by inducing tourists successfully. This paper aims to study the ripple effect of this event on the economy of the Ham-Pyeong district in depth. In particular, the Location Quotient (LQ) method that has been broadly used in Korea instead of a direct research method was adopted in this research to make an industry-related model in the scope of the local economy.

Keywords: Regional Input-out Model, Location Quotient Method, Tourism Multipliers, Economic Ripple Impact, Ham-Pyeong World Butterfly and Insect Expo Korea

INTRODUCTION

In Korea, events have been traditionally held by the local community or government due to their values and benefits to society, culture and the economy. In particular, a festival or an event is usually organised as a marketing tool in order to promote the region and contribute to tourism development, employment effect, economic impact, image enhancement, resource utilisation and local advertisement (Light, 1996). On this positive side of events, some typical research findings have tended to focus only on the result after the period of the event rather than the primary components of the event (Rochie, 1994; Gitelson et al 1995; McHone & Runggeling, 2000; Tyrrell & Johnson, 2001; Ahlert, 2001). On the side of economic effects, Getz (1991) notes that a festival is an important event to induce tourist expenditure, although there are some incidental problems because the fundamental purpose of local events is mainly on the economic performance.

Lee (1997), Archer and Fletcher (1996) insist that analysis of the economic impact of a festival is important statistical data that shows the competence and performance of the event. Interestingly, most organisations planning festivals have expected to have growth in the number of visitors and accompanying expenses since they have tended to give more weight to the local economy (Murphuy & Carmichael, 1991; Walo et al.,
That is why the economic impacts in relation to festivals are sometimes exaggerated. Also, there are some risks of neglecting the negative effects caused by local events or festivals as well as running off festival programs produced recklessly only for an increase of local budgets. In the case of Korea where most festivals are funded by local governments, especially, event organisers are likely to get more investments as the ripple impact on the local economy increases. This is the main reason for presenting the economic performance of festival against the injected budgets. In order to estimate the economic impact of a festival on a fair value, hence, research and analysis should be conducted precisely and reliably.

From a critical viewpoint, however, not many papers have studied the economic ripple effect of a festival from a scientific objective viewpoint yet (Briassoulis, 1991; Kang & Perdue, 1994; Kim, 2002; Lee et al, 2005). In the same context, the research data on the economic effects has been interpreted in wrong ways due to limited uses of analysis techniques (Dwyer et al, 2004). Therefore, in a profound approach, this paper attempts to analyse the economic ripple impact of a local festival which has been utilised as a tool of marketing and prosperity as well as a core resource for revitalising the local economy. The 2008 Ham-Pyeong World Butterfly and Insect Expo Korea was chosen as the case study for research because of its reputation of a well-programmed festival that has gradually contributed to the income improvement of the district by inducing visitors successfully. The purpose of this paper is to analyse the ripple impact of festival on the local economy logically and provide some implications that other local cities can benchmark from this case study.

**STUDY SETTING**

Ham-Pyeong district, located northwest of Jeollanam City, has an area of 393 square metres and is mainly operated by state government funding; the level of self-supporting economy is at the low stage (The Ham-Pyeong County, 2008). This typically small-sized rural district consists of 46,000 residents, of which 71 per cent of local residents are engaged in primary industry (Kim, 2006). Since the first Ham-Pyeong Butterfly Festival held in 1999, this area has been in the spotlight due to the impact of image improvement progressed by the local government’s policy for contributing to local residents’ income (The Ham-Pyeong WBIEK Foundation, 2008).

At the moment, this event is one of the well known local festivals representing Korea and it has actually contributed to the income improvement of the local economy by inducing tourists successfully. Moreover, its operating direction focusing on butterflies, insects and flowers and the theme of nature and rural amenity has set a well-arranged model of eco-friendly event. In particular, the characteristics of this festival involving not only the impact of economy but that of education give opportunities of communication which have strong effects to reduce a generation gap and opinion difference between rural and city residents.
On the success of this event, the local government of Ham-Pyeong district has developed a local-oriented brand, which is called ‘nareda’, and improved the image of goods produced in the area (The Ham-Pyeong County, 2008). The mechanism of this local image development has significantly influenced the promotion of Ham-Pyeong district as well as inducing more than one million visitors annually (Graph 1). As a result, the income that Ham-Pyeong district gained by the butterfly festival was 60 billion won (Korean currency) in the first year and passed over 100 billion won after 2003 (Graph 2). In 2007 the local government, with festival organisers that had accumulated know-how and experience on managing local events for more than 7 years, held the Ham-Pyeong World Butterfly and Insect Expo Korea with more than one million visitors and earned 93 billion won of admission fees, although the total number of visitors was remarkably decreased due to the reduction of free admission (Graph 2). In addition, local businesses such as local restaurants, petrol stations and accommodation facilities had recorded growth in sales during the period.

This economic phenomenon in a rural area has an implied value to the field of event research since it has directly affected local resident and economic development (Deepak et al, 2003). But the ripple impact of this festival has been reported as a routine annual occasion by representing tourism multipliers based on a national input-output model (Johnson & Moore, 1993; Miller & Blair, 1985). In this case, a typical problem of indirect analysis can be raised because the festival was actually held regionally, not nationally. For this reason, the economic ripple impact of the Ham-Pyeong World Butterfly and Insect Expo Korea will be analysed by a regional input-output model in this paper.
INPUT-OUTPUT MODEL

A general equilibrium theory can be used to assume the economic ripple impact of a business or to grasp the circular correlation between different industries. Some broadly-used analysis tools such as input-output model, computable general equilibrium model (CGM), social accounting matrix (SAM), and macro-economic metric model (ME) have been derived by the theory (Fletcher, 1989). Among those models, an input-output model, which has a high level of solubility and suitability on data analysis, is adopted for building the model used in this paper to assess the economic effect (Ko, 1996; Moses, 1995).

In the use of input-output model when analysing an event-related case, the model has been some researchers’ favorite since it can draw the flows of goods and services in an area by grasping the inter-industry relation within the region or between cities. On the other hand, some criticisms indicate that input-output techniques account for the positive impacts of an event on economic activity with exaggerated effects, but they ignore the equally real negative impacts based on the unrealistic assumptions listed in the following (Blake, 2005; Dwyer et al, 2005; Dwyer et al, 2006; Dwyer et al, 2006a):

- All resources and inputs are provided freely, and that no resource constraints exist
- Employment will increase without any wage or price effects
- The behaviour of the government budget sector is treated as being neutral
- All price effects and financial effects are treated as being neutral.

Although issues in relation to unrealistic assumptions should be carefully considered in the use of input-output models, however, these critical drawbacks are not perfectly reflected in the circumstances that most festivals are funded by local governments. For instance, in Korea, almost all well-known local festivals are scheduled by local governments so that the resources and inputs are usually abundant in volume whereas employment is temporally increased without a remarkable wage or price effects due to the government policies designed to stimulate the local economy. Hence, input-output models are comparatively suitable for analysing the economic impact of festival in the environment that important measurement factors such as resource, employment, price and financial effects are significantly controlled by the government’s expansionary policy for the local economy.

An inter-industry relation table that records the movement of goods and services between different industries in terms of economics gives a systematic cornerstone in the model. This table has been broadly used for analysing the economic ripple effect in a tourism industry based on its usefulness to understand reciprocity between industries and estimate the ripple impact caused by the expense of visitors to related industries (Archer, 1973; Heng & Low, 1990; Lee, 1992; Strang, 1970).
In general, survey and non-survey methods are two typical ways to draw an inter-industry relation table (Lee et al., 2005). The one is more precise, but consuming lots of time and budgets whereas the other consumes less time and budgets by deriving a regional inter-industry relation table from a national inter-industry relation table and local economic data. For this reason, an indirect estimation representing a non-survey method is mainly used in some developed forms such as a location quotient method and a supply-demand pool method (Kim, 1997; Lee, 1997; Lee & Choi, 2003).

A location quotient (LQ) method estimates relative importance coefficients of regional industries toward national industries and calculates a regional input coefficient by reflecting the input coefficients in a national inter-industry relation table. For example, $LQ_i^R$ that is a location quotient of i industry can be calculated as below when a specific research area (H), a nation (K), and an industry (i) are presented.

$$LQ_i^R = \frac{X_i^H}{X_i^K}$$

($1$)

$LQ_i^R$ = location quotient of H area and i industry, $X_i^H$ = output of H area and i industry, $X_i^K$ = total output of i industry, $X^K$ = total output of nation’s industries

A location quotient ($LQ_i^R$) indicates a level of self-sufficient economy dividing into three different situations. ① when $LQ_i^R = 1$, H area’s i industry staying in a perfectly self-sufficient economy ② when $LQ_i^R > 1$, H area’s i industry satisfying local demand and exporting goods and services ③ when $LQ_i^R < 1$, H area’s i industry not satisfying local demand and importing goods and services. By using location quotient method as above, a regional input coefficient is estimated in a formulation as below.

$$A^R = LQ \times A^K$$

$A^K$ = determinant of national input quotient (kxk), $A^R$=H determinant of regional input quotient, LQ= diagonal matrix having a factor of $LQ_i^R$ (kxk: the major diagonal factor is$LQ_i^R$, the other factors are equivalent to 0).

In the above diagonal matrix, 1 is applied when the factor value of LQ is $LQ_i^R \geq 1$ and self-value of $LQ_i^R$ is applied when $LQ_i^R$ is less than 1. Also, in assumption, if the input coefficient represents the volume of direct impact, then production-inducing coefficients show the direct and indirect effect caused by a linked ripple impact between industries. A matrix of production-inducing coefficient can be expressed in a simple formula as below.

$$X^R = (I - A^R) (J - A^R)^{-1} \times T$$

($3$)

$X^R$=H (total-output vector of regional industries), $A^R$= input-coefficient matrix of H region (kxk), I= diagonal matrix, $(I - A^R)^{-1}$= production-inducing coefficient matrix of H region’s economy, T= tourism income.
In this logic, \((I - A^B)^{-1}\) (inverse matrix) is called as a production-inducing coefficient matrix and this indicates the direct and indirect impact on the local economy when the one unit of final demand occurs. The production-inducing coefficient matrix becomes production multipliers after combining each matrix and then this gives a fundamental tool to derive other multipliers in the sectors of income, value-added and employment.

This paper has adopted a location quotient method, which has been broadly used for framing an inter-industry relation model, instead of a survey method. Nevertheless, a location quotient method has a critical drawback assuming that the structure of a regional industry is identical to that of a national industry. Consequently, it is necessary to recognise that such a limitation can be implied in analysis when estimating the ripple impact by using the regional input coefficient derived from a location quotient method.

**ECONOMIC IMPACT RESEARCH TRENDS IN KOREA**

In the 1930s, an inter-industry relation analysis advanced by Leontief (1936) was originally aimed to analyse a nation’s economy overall, but extended its scope to the regional unit by Isard (1951) in the 1950s (Della et al, 1997; Pyo et al, 1988; Long & Perdue, 1990; Burgan & Mules, 1992). Since the 1960s, a non-survey method saving more time and budgets than that of a direct method has been extensively propagated. The first attempt of a non-survey method was conducted by Moore & Petersen (1955) in order to derive a location quotient by adjusting a regional input coefficient. After that, this indirect research method has been broadly adopted as an alternative to a direct survey method (Richardson, 1985, Schaffer & Chu, 1969).

In Korea, tourism research regarding a regional inter-industry relation analysis has been conducted to study the regional economic ripple effect on a local festival and tourist development. In the field of tourism, however, the amount of previous research on this issue is remarkably insufficient compared to that of economics. So far, only some papers researching on applying the regional weighted average to a supply-demand mixture method (Jung, 1994), assumption method of a regional inter-industry relation model (Lee, 1998), the economic impact of a local tourism industry (Kim, 1997; Lee, 1997), the regional economic ripple effect of a local festival (Lee, 2001), comparison analysis distinguishing the economic ripple impact into an inner regional effect and an inter regional effect (Joao & Yim, 2001), have argued on a regional inter-industry relation analysis.

**METHODOLOGY**

An inter-industry relation table issued by the Bank of Korea (2003) is reorganised in order to estimate the economic ripple impact of the Ham-Pyeong World Butterfly and Insect Expo Korea in an adequate standard. Firstly, in a specific analysis method, the national inter-industry relation table is integrated to a 32×32 matrix table which divides the tourism sector into five sections; accommodation, shopping, tourism, transportation, and entertainment businesses (Ruiz, 1985; Smith, 1988; Hurley et
al, 1994; Lee & Taylor, 2005). Secondly, an input-output table of Ham-Pyeong region is derived by the integrated inter-industry relation table and a simple location quotient. Thirdly, production multipliers, income multipliers, employment multipliers and value-added multipliers are estimated by using the calculated regional inter-industry relation table with a term of multiplier that is to show a direct and indirect ripple effect. Lastly, the total economic ripple impact caused by the festival is estimated by considering both multipliers and visitors’ expenses.

In order to assume the visitor expense per capita, interview and self-administered research methods were conducted during the festival period (2008. 4. 18 ~ 2008. 6. 1). Survey questions were framed to estimate the expenses and the 1,035 valid samples provided by Mokpo National University Culture & Tourism Institute (2008) were used in analysis.

An inter-industry relation table, which is a base of framing a regional inter-industry relation table, is used in this paper. In addition, some critical figures for estimating regional input coefficients such as regional and industrial outputs, employment index and amounts of added-value were supplied by reference materials published by the National Statistical Office, Korea (www.nso.go.kr).

RESULTS

Estimating location quotients

Since the industrial multipliers have not been developed yet in Ham-Pyeong district, the industrial multipliers of Jeonnam region, an adjacent area to Ham-Pyeong district, were referred to in order to derive research results (Lee et al., 2005). As a result of analysing Ham-Pyeong district’s location quotients representing relative importance of a regional industry, it was found that the core industries of this area are in the field of chemistry (13.59) and petroleum and coal (5.41) (Table 1). In the tourism industry, on the other hand, restaurant (0.97) and retail (0.93) businesses have been developed on a well-base while accommodation (0.67), transportation (0.42) and entertainment (0.11) businesses are inferior to other specialised industries on a national basis (Table 1).

<Table 1> Location quotients

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>List</th>
<th>Industry Sector</th>
<th>Output (Unit: 1 million won)</th>
<th>Location Quotients</th>
<th>Ranking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>Ham-Pyeong District</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Agriculture and fishery</td>
<td>38,463,169</td>
<td>4,586,534</td>
<td>2.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Mining</td>
<td>2,248,237</td>
<td>267,262</td>
<td>2.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Food and beverage</td>
<td>41,129,323</td>
<td>1,851,344</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Petroleum</td>
<td>40,157,980</td>
<td>9,597,160</td>
<td>5.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Chemistry</td>
<td>21,464,626</td>
<td>12,882,716</td>
<td>13.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Energy</td>
<td>28,600,219</td>
<td>1,554,819</td>
<td>1.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>106,799,693</td>
<td>5,317,719</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As table 2 presents, the production multipliers represent the direct and indirect production effects on the local economy when one unit of the final demand in relation to an industry occurs. In the tourism sector, the multipliers of restaurant business (1.89) ranked sixth among other industries exceeded the average of the whole industry by 0.49. This 1.89 means that the production effect of 1.89 won (Korean currency) is taken to the local economy when a visitor consumes every 1 won.

In the case of income multipliers, it shows the direct and indirect income effects on the local economy when one unit of the final demand of an industry occurs. The income multipliers of the tourism sector exceeded the average of the whole industry
by 0.21, meaning tourism industry contributes to the local residents significantly in terms of income improvements than other industries. The multipliers of restaurant business (0.38) have the highest ranking in the tourism sector and ranked fifth in the whole industry.

The employment multipliers mean the direct and indirect employment impacts on the local economy when one unit of the final demand in relation to an industry occurs. In this case, a 0.072 of employment multipliers derived by the number of employees per 1 million won indicates 72 people are employed as visitors expend every 10 billion won. Entertainment business (0.12) in the tourism sector is ranked second in the whole industry and exceeded the industry average by 0.04.

Value-added multipliers show the direct and indirect value-added impacts on the local economy when one unit of the final demand in relation to an industry occurs. A value-added consists of sales surpluses, employee compensations, fixed equity consumptions, indirect taxes and government subsidies. All sections of value-added except entertainment business exceeded the industry average (0.58) and accommodation business ranked tenth in the whole industry having the highest value-added multipliers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3</th>
<th>Tourism multipliers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Production Multipliers</td>
<td>Income Multipliers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4278</td>
<td>0.2964</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Tourism Multipliers: estimated by averaging the multipliers of accommodations, restaurants, shopping, and entertainment businesses.

**Assumption on the festival visitors’ expense**

An average expense per capita of festival visitors is assumed as 59,917 won consists of food and beverage expenses (22,280 won), transportation costs (19,320), shopping costs (7,260), entertainment costs (4,747), accommodation costs (3,510), and other expenses (2,800) in order (Table 4).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4</th>
<th>Assumption on expense of festival visitors (Currency: Korean won)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Item on expense per capita</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food and beverage expenses</td>
<td>22,280</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation costs</td>
<td>19,320</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping costs (souvenirs and local specialities)</td>
<td>7,260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment costs</td>
<td>4,747</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation costs</td>
<td>3,510</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other expenses</td>
<td>2,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>59,917</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Foundation of the Ham-Pyeong World Butterfly and Insect Expo Korea (2008)
THE RIPPLE IMPACT IN THE ECONOMY OF HAM-PYEONG DISTRICT

The economic impact of this festival on the local area has been analysed by the amount of expense that visitors from other cities have spent on the festival-related production activities in Ham-Pyeong district. According to the Korean Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism (KMCST), only the total amount of expense spent by visitors excluding local residents in the event area is analysed to figure out a reliable result because the ripple impact in a local economy means the input from external regions into the local district based on economic sense.

<Table 5> Total amount of expense spent by visitors from other districts
(Currency: Korean won)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of visitors excluding local residents</th>
<th>Expense per capita</th>
<th>*Total expense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1,171,800</td>
<td>59,917</td>
<td>70,210,740,600</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* *Total Expense = [Total number of visitors (1,260,000) × [Number of outsiders (1,171,800)] × Expense per capita

- Production Effect: During the festival period a total expense of visitors from other areas was 702 billion won (Expense per capita; 59,917 × Number of outsiders; 1,171,800) having an effect on the production sector that is equivalent of 1,002 billion won (Total expense; 70,210,740,600 × Production-inducing coefficient; 1.4278)

- Income Effect: 208 billion won of income effects were obtained (Total expense; 70,210,740,600 × Income-inducing coefficient; 0.2964)

- Value-added Effect: 416 billion won of value-added effects were obtained (Total expense; 70,210,740,600 × Value-added-inducing coefficient; 0.5931)

- Employment Effect: 567 people of employment effects were obtained (Total expense; 70,210,740,600 × Employment-inducing coefficient; 0.0807 / 1 Million one per capita)

<Table 6> Ripple impact on the local economy (The 2008 Ham-Pyeong World Butterfly and Insect Expo Korea)
(Currency: Korean won)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Induction coefficient of tourism expense</th>
<th>Ripple impact</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Production Effect</td>
<td>70,210,740,600×1.4278</td>
<td>1,002 billion won</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income Effect</td>
<td>70,210,740,600×0.2964</td>
<td>208 billion won</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value-added Effect</td>
<td>70,210,740,600×0.5931</td>
<td>416 billion won</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment Effect</td>
<td>70,210,740,600×0.0807</td>
<td>567 people</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CONCLUSION

The majority of festivals held in Korea are operated by government subsidies so that the economic impact to local districts is a significant index to policy makers and practitioners involved in the field of events to present performance against invested budgets. In this side, this paper has estimated the economic impact of the festival on Ham-Pyeong district by using a regional input-output model that is a logical method to reflect the health of the local production structure and commercial condition. Although several significant criticisms on this model such as unrealistic assumptions have a sound logic, they are not perfectly applied to every case. As mentioned above, Korea has the circumstances that most festivals are funded by local governments so that important measurement factors such as resource, employment, price and financial effects are significantly controlled by the government’s expansionary policy for the purpose of local economic development. This is why sometimes a regional input-output model can be applied to particular environments for objective and valid research results.

In the economic ripple effect of the festival, about 1.3 million people visited this event and spent more than 702 billion won (Korean currency). More specifically, the analysis result shows that these figures consist of 1,000 billion won in the production sector, 209 billion won in the expense sector, 416 billion won in the value added sector, and 567 people in the employment sector. These definite economic effects on the local area are important and objective data to those managing and organising the government-led festivals to prove the validity of local events. As the scope of this paper shows, studying the ripple effects of an event in the economic field on the exact and reliable bases is difficult to progress due to lack of previous research. In order to overcome this problem, therefore, the standardisation process between industrial analysis and statistical data has simultaneously to be completed by support of local governments.

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www.nso.go.kr
CORPORATE HOSPITALITY AT SPECIAL EVENTS: IS IT FUNDAMENTAL IN B2B MARKETING COMMUNICATIONS OR JUST ‘FROTH AND BUBBLE’?

Colin Drake, Leo Jago and Margaret Deery
Victoria University

Abstract

The growth of Corporate Hospitality (CH) by marketers over the last three decades has positioned the practice centrally in many Business to Business (B2B) marketing programs. Corporate Hospitality now plays an increasingly important role in special events, where it is used by businesses to enhance what are referred to as commercial interpersonal relationships (Iacobucci & Ostram 1996). The health and durability of these relationships between a business and its stakeholders are indicators for future prosperity. In most cases, CH is directed towards a firm’s customers with the intention of building commitment and loyalty. Leveraging the experience of a major sports or entertainment spectacle provides an attractive tool in a marketer’s armoury when seeking to engage with existing and prospective customers. Events and the Corporate Hospitality experience allow a business to ‘get up close and personal’ with their customers (Grant 1999) in a form of engagement that not only expands the marketing channels but provides a temporal and spatial connection.

The dilemma facing Corporate Hospitality and the special event industry is two fold. With the global credit crisis creating continued downward pressure on most industrialised economies, many organisations have been forced to reduce revenue and expenditure budgets. Travel, entertainment, marketing and sponsorships are often seen in some sectors as discretionary, and it is therefore possible that the participation in corporate hospitality programs at major events will suffer. This has the potential to impact the financial viability of special events. Whilst CH has often been bundled with sponsorship, it has seldom been subject to the same management and scrutiny (Bennett 2003). Often the sector has been reviewed in a superficial way with statistics of corporate consumption rather than ethical considerations or strategic outcomes as the focus (Davidson & Cope 2003, Weekes 2006). This research was conducted to explore the motivations and practice of senior executives who are responsible for Corporate Hospitality expenditure, and sought to understand these against the backdrop of a global economic slowdown. The research found that very few businesses surveyed had any intention of curtailing such programs, and more importantly the consensus indicated during times of business uncertainty it was even more important to invest in these relationships through Corporate Hospitality. Further, the research showed that most organisations were not satisfied with their measurement of the practice, but had an overwhelming sense that engaging in it did deliver business objectives.
INTRODUCTION

The growth of Corporate Hospitality (CH) by marketers over the last three decades has positioned the practice centrally in many Business to Business (B2B) marketing programs. Corporate Hospitality now plays an increasingly important role in special events where it is used by businesses to enhance what are referred to as commercial interpersonal relationships (Iacobucci & Ostram 1996). The health and durability of these relationships between a business and its stakeholders are indicators for future prosperity. In most cases, CH is directed towards a firm’s customers with the intention of building commitment and loyalty. Leveraging the experience of a major sports or entertainment spectacle provides an attractive tool in a marketer's armoury when seeking to engage with existing and prospective customers. Events and the Corporate Hospitality experience allow a business to ‘get up close and personal’ with their customers (Grant 1999) in a form of engagement that not only expands the marketing channels but provides a temporal and spatial connection.

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BACKGROUND

Events have grown in significance in recent years as tourism bodies around the world invest in them to increase destination profile, build tourist visitation and generate economic benefits (Carlsen, Getz & Soutar 2000). As events have been segmented between tourism events (special events and festivals) and business events (meetings, incentives, conferences and exhibitions) (Sherwood 2007), Corporate Hospitality has the potential to combine both of these forms through leveraging the former for the latter. Recent examples where businesses have leveraged the exclusivity, excitement and appeal of such major events include the 2000 Sydney Olympics and 2006
Commonwealth Games as well as perennial favourites such as the Australian F1 Grand Prix, Victorian Spring Racing Carnival and AFL Grand Final.

In terms of marketing strategy, businesses are now investing directly in their relationships rather than in individual transactions that mirror the widening acceptance of the principals of Relationship Marketing. It is understood that customer loyalty is one of the principal aims of Relationship Marketing (Sheth & Parvatiyar 2000) and lowers the cost to service customers ultimately leading to higher firm profitability (Berry 1995). This marketing philosophy has been the subject of substantial academic examination over the last three decades (see for example, Gummesson 2002; Grönroos 2000, Zeithaml & Bitner 1996, Christopher & Ballantyne 1991). The health of an organisation’s relationships rather than market share is viewed as a better barometer of future success because market share is “often the result of strategies and brand investments made by past generations rather than those made today” (Doyle 1995 p. 27). A Relationship Marketing approach has led businesses to focus more attention on partnering and value creation embracing the concept of Customer Life Value (CLV) rather than the former focus on disjointed marketing strategies directed toward growing revenue gained through building discrete transactions. Kotler (2008) states that in essence Marketing should not be about the art of finding clever ways to dispose of what you make, rather it is the art of creating genuine customer value.

Corporate Hospitality is a significant business; a recent estimate places the annual expenditure on this practice at about AUD$730m in Australia (Dann & Dann 2005). Corporate Hospitality contributes to a business tourism sector in Australia worth AUD$17.3 billion per year (Deery; Fredline, Jago & Dwyer 2005) and features strongly in sporting events tourism, a sector of the industry that accounts for approximately AUD$3 billion per annum (Tourism Queensland 2004). The marked growth in staging major events around the world has created a platform for the growth in Corporate Hospitality. Most major event organisers rely on the revenue of the corporate sector to offset the considerable costs of staging events. Corporate Hospitality has the capacity to enhance those experiences for those fortunate to be recipients of an invitation. Objectives sought by firms involved in entertaining stakeholders through Corporate Hospitality vary but may include improving company profile and relationship development (Davidson & Cope 2003). In addition, Corporate Hospitality can assist with gaining vital market intelligence whilst building employee and buyer loyalty to ensure a wider range of business aims are met.

For many years special event owners, producers and venues have created products to attract the high yield revenue from the Corporate Hospitality market. Competition for this business has intensified at a time when it is highly likely that the special event market may have already reached saturation with researchers such as Janiskee (1994) indicating that saturation was being approached in some markets 15 years ago. The political climate for special events (especially in Victoria, Australia) is highly charged. The promise and expectation that such events return the investment of public funds to stage them has often not been realised. Rather than “pulling in tourists, getting the results that Victorians need we've seen them propped up by the government and making significant losses" (Davis cited in Sydney Morning Herald
In recent years the Australian Formula One Grand Prix Corporation has noticed a significant drop in corporate patronage and sponsorship with a reported 30% drop in Corporate Box sales leading to a $9.2 million fall in revenue for the 2007 event (Sydney Morning Herald 2007). Most recently, the Australian Grand Prix spokeswoman, Elise Sullivan stated that the economic climate was responsible for waning interest in corporate hospitality (Toy, 2009). The underlying question, however, is whether in a sophisticated Corporate Hospitality market; the product itself may be part of the problem.

**METHOD**

In the initial phase of the research it was decided to undertake semi-structured in depth interviews with key business executives who were responsible for organisation wide corporate hospitality (CH) programs. This qualitative approach was deemed necessary for the collection of data regarding motivations, strategy and measurement as well as current and future expenditure behaviour. The design of this phase of the research allowed scope for individual respondent contributions that could lead to a better understanding of the practice. This also assisted in informing the research questions required for the second phase of research. The identification of key informants was based on identifying senior business executives within organisations who held budgetary responsibility for Corporate Hospitality programs. The sample ensured that a range of industries were represented. Fifteen interviews were conducted and each interview was recorded and key elements from each interview were transcribed prior to analysis taking place.

**FINDINGS**

This research indicated that a range of elements or dimensions of a CH experience are considered when the decision to invest in an event is made. Principally the event itself is critical, and whether it is deemed suitable for the host organisation’s guests. The host’s target audience may consist of a specific social, gender or age mix where some events are deemed unsuitable. Most respondents were conscious that sporting events, particularly football or cricket may not offer the best opportunities for female guests whether invited singularly or as partners of invited guests. Other considerations include the time available for networking. Sports that offered wider appeal to both sexes included Tennis and Horseracing. The research signalled golf days and thoroughbred racing events were often favoured over motorsport events because of the ‘quality time’ available to network with guests. It was also found that apart from the event itself, the quality of food and beverage was singled out as a critical ingredient for success. With many CH packages now running into thousands of dollars per guest for a single event it has magnified the pressure on the host organisation to ensure guest satisfaction is achieved.

Most respondents admitted that they did not have a systematic tracking or measurement system to report any tangible outcomes of their corporate hospitality programs. Most agreed it was a weakness and that it should be a priority to remedy. Respondents believed that allowing staff to attend a major event was a ‘fringe benefit’ even if that meant hosting of guests. The research uncovered that little or no prior
training of staff occurred in discussing organisational objectives or hosting responsibilities prior to events. This was agreed to be a weakness. There was concern that unless staff across the organisation were integrated into CH programs, the expenditure could be viewed as elitist and counter to building an equitable culture within the business.

Rarely did respondents encounter negative experiences with CH. The composition of the guests within the suite had the potential to cause concern, especially if industry rivalries or personal relationship issues exist prior to attendance at an event. Lastly, the issue of intoxication and anti-social behaviour of a guest at an event has been recognised at several major events including the Australian Open in 2007 and 2009 and A league Soccer Matches in 2008 and 2009, but was considered extremely rare within corporate hospitality.

In terms of investment in Corporate Hospitality, most respondents agreed that they valued the opportunity and saw benefit in continuance regardless of present economic conditions. Most respondents have operated CH programs continuously through business cycles and explained that an investment in key events would continue but that they would be more circumspect regarding investing in new opportunities.

**FUTURE RESEARCH**

The next phase of this study will involve a survey of patrons (guests of host organisations) who had received Corporate Hospitality at major events within the previous 12 months. The second stage seeks to gain an understanding of the role that individual dimensions play on the CH experience as well as the views of informants related to their perceptions of the host organisation and consequently their purchase intention behaviour. It is with the addition of this data that the conceptual model related to CH dimensions can be assessed.

**LIMITATIONS**

This is an exploratory study based on 15 respondents and therefore the results may not necessarily apply to all corporate hospitality participants or markets. This phase is part of a larger study that seeks to further understand the practice.

**REFERENCES**


MANAGERIAL COMPETENCIES FOR MEETING, INCENTIVE, CONVENTION AND EXHIBITION (MICE) UNDERGRADUATE PROGRAMS: A TAIWAN PERSPECTIVE

Mr. I-Cheng Hsu
Taiwan Hospitality and Tourism College

Pei-Yi Wu
Griffith University

Abstract

This working paper reports on the conceptual development of research that identifies managerial competencies needed for students of meeting, incentive, convention and exhibition (MICE) undergraduate programs in Taiwan. One of the greatest challenges facing the MICE industry in Taiwan is the shortage of talent. In order to prepare well-qualified MICE graduates for the industry, the MICE higher education should strike the balance between the needs of the academics and industry practitioners. Considerable research has been conducted to examine the gaps between practitioners’ and educators’ perceptions in terms of important competencies, namely knowledge, skills and attitudes. The competency-based approach is one of the most effective methods to develop curricula, teaching delivery, assessment tools and departmental objectives that meet the needs of the industry. Despite the wide application in tourism and hospitality related education, little has been found in MICE programs, especially in Taiwan. To provide timely and useful information for curriculum planners and educators, the first objective of this research is to analyse perceptions of MICE practitioners and educators regarding essential management competencies. The second objective is to examine the differences and similarities between the two groups.

Keywords:
Meeting, incentive, convention and exhibition education, curriculum development, competency-based approach
INTRODUCTION

The meeting, incentive, convention and exhibition (MICE) industry is one of the fastest growing sectors of the tourism and hospitality industry worldwide. MICE events have been identified as a key strategy to improve national and regional economies due to the high-expenditure of delegates and increased employment outcomes from hosting these events (Kim, Chon & Chung, 2003; McCabe, 2008). Seeing the economic benefits and job opportunities generated by the industry, the Executive Yuan in Taiwan posed the MICE industry as a flagship plan within the “Guidelines and Action Plans for Service Industry Development” (Taiwan Institute of Economic Research, 2008) and the Ministry of Economic Affairs in 2005 began implementation of the “Four Year Plan for MICE Industry Development” (Ministry of Economic Affairs, Taiwan, 2008). Under the impetus of the Taiwan Government, the MICE industry has gradually grown. In 2007 ranking for over 250 convention cities worldwide, Taipei city was the 18th in the world and the 9th in Asia. Comparing with its 2006 rank as the 40th in the world and the 12th in Asia, Taipei city has elevated its status into a city of international conventions (International Congress and Convention Association, 2007 cited in Taiwan Institute of Economic Research, 2008).

One of the greatest challenges facing the MICE industry in Taiwan is the shortage of talent. Limited professional education and training is available to create a demand for qualified personnel. In addition, some MICE courses offered by higher education in Taiwan are not able to meet the needs of the workplace and not all MICE educators have expertise in the field of MICE owing to the lack of hands-on experience (Ministry of Economic Affairs, Taiwan, 2008; Wu, 2006; Yang, 2007).

To prepare well-qualified MICE graduates in Taiwan, there is a need to design curricula that meet the needs of industry expectations. Researchers argued the competency-based approach is one of the most effective methods to develop curricula, teaching delivery, assessment tools and departmental objectives (Baartman, Bastiaens, Kirschner & Van der Vleuten, 2006; Brownell & Chung, 2001; Hoogveld, Paas & Jochems, 2005). The purpose of this study is to investigate the importance of management competencies that MICE students need upon program completion from the perspective of MICE industry professionals and to compare educator perceptions with those of professionals.
COMPETENCY-BASED EDUCATION

Competency-based education (CBE) is a process of developing students’ abilities and capabilities to perform in roles and tasks (Hoogveld et al., 2005). According to Bowden and Masters (1993), CBE has its historical roots in teacher education in the United States in 1967/68. To ensure the preparedness of prospective teachers, the program requirements of competency-based teacher education were derived from the practices of effective teachers and then stated as competencies. Those competencies, namely, knowledge, skills, and attitudes, were specifically transformed into course objectives, instruction and assessment.

Some researchers believe that CBE offers practical and systematic direction for higher education, and especially for professional preparation programs (Boritz & Carnaghan, 2003; Garman & Johnson, 2006). It can help educators identify the instructional intents of the program and learning outcomes that will facilitate the development of teaching delivery and student assessment. Consequently CBE can prepare students with the required competencies for solving complex problems in their domains of study, future work and life. Chung-Herrera, Enz and Lankau (2003) also concurred that using competencies in curriculum design can assist future generations of professionals in meeting the industry’s future needs. However, other researchers noted that when professional development or learning experiences are specified into discrete competencies, the focus may be simply put on the end goals instead of the learning process (Bowden & Masters, 1993; Brady, 1995). Donahue (2004) agreed that CBE has a tendency to reduce the profession to a set of specific skills, as this approach oversimplifies personal and professional development, and results in switching attention back from processes to end products.

These pros and cons reinforce the continuous challenges for competency-based curriculum educators to achieve an appropriate balance in all aspects of higher education. The purpose of higher education is not only to prepare the professionals but also to provide students with life-long skills (both generic and specialised competencies) in their personal and social life. Hence, the selection of educational objectives is pivotal. The judgments may be sourced from the needs of learners, the body of knowledge of the past, the analysis of problems in contemporary society, or philosophical values in life (Tyler, 1949). Foucar-Szocki and Bolsing (1999) and Coll and Zegwaard (2006) supported that good curriculum development requires an understanding of the perceptions of all education stakeholders given that each of these
sources has certain values to be considered. Therefore, fully examining the worth of each educational objective is significant for the curriculum development of competency-based education.

COMPETENCY-BASED EDUCATION IN TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY PROGRAMS

A number of studies have identified management competencies for tourism and hospitality graduates upon program completion (Annaraud, 2006; Dopson & Nelson, 2002; Ebner, 2002; Green, 2007; Mayo & Thomas-Haysbert, 2004; Okeiyi, Finley & Postel, 1994; Tas, 1988). According to Baum (1991) and Christou (2002), the study of Tas (1988) was one of the most innovative and pioneering hospitality management competency studies. In Tas’s study, 36 required competencies were identified for hotel management trainees based on the perceptions of hotel general managers. To enable students with the required competencies, Tas proposed 12 hospitality relevant courses as a foundation of university curricula and claimed that hospitality programs should focus on learning experiences both in the classroom and in the field involving lectures, laboratory activities and internship.

Recently, Dopson and Tas (2004) conducted a competency-based study to review and revise the curriculum of the hospitality management program at the University of North Texas, whereas a series of studies investigated by Gursoy and Swanger (2004, 2005) and Swanger and Gursoy (2007) adopted an industry-driven approach to determine the qualifications and competencies desired from new hospitality business management graduates. In addition, the competency-based approach has been also applied to investigate management competencies for other sectors, such as food and beverage service (Kay & Russette, 2000; Okeiyi et al., 1994), club (Perdue, Ninemeier & Woods, 2000; Perdue, Woods & Ninemeier, 2002; Koenigsfeld, 2007), gaming (Ebner, 2002), and tourism sector (Cizel, Anafarta & Sarvan, 2007).

STAKEHOLDER INPUTS

While examining the relevance of tourism and hospitality education and graduates’ performance, researchers have investigated the essential competencies needed for graduates from the perspectives of various stakeholders. For instance, seeing the industry-driven nature of hospitality education, Tas (1988), Su and Shanklin (1997/1998), Chen and Gu (2001) and Jauhari (2006) developed different sets of
competency statements based on the input of hospitality managers. To bridge the gap between what is taught to students and what the practising managers expect of the graduates, some researchers compared the required competencies from the perspectives of hospitality industry and faculty (Mayo & Thomas-Haysbert, 2004; Green, 2007). Others investigated the competencies by surveying industry managers, academics and students since all three groups have a key stake in the education process (Annaraud, 2006; Dopson & Nelson, 2002; Okeiyi et al., 1994).

### COMPETENCY MODELS

According to Chung-Herrera et al. (2003), competency models can guide university educators in designing curricula. Katz (1955) claimed that every successful manager relied on three basic personal skills: technical skills, human skills and conceptual skills. Based on the skill categories of Katz, Annaraud (2006) conducted multiple studies in the United States and Russia to determine the skills necessary for career success for hospitality students upon graduation. The results showed that, in both countries, human relations skills were ranked as the most important, followed by conceptual skills, and then technical skills.

Expanding on the Katz’s (1955) model, Sandwith (1993) developed a competency domain model including five domains: conceptual/creative, leadership, interpersonal, administrative, and technical. While Kay and Russette (2000) adopted this model to identify and compare essential management competencies for hotel managers in different areas (food and beverage, front desk, and sales), Koenigsfeld (2007) used it to investigate management competencies for private club managers. Despite the different contexts conducted in the two studies, both concluded that the most essential management competencies were identified in leadership domain.

### CONCLUSION

According to past research on management competencies in relation to curriculum development, different stakeholders’ perspectives were valued and different models were employed. While most research has focused on hotel, food and beverage and club sectors, little is known regarding MICE management competencies. This paper proposes to identify management competencies for MICE undergraduate programs in line with Sandwith’s five domain model and compare perceptions between educators and practitioners in terms of essential competencies. The findings will fill the gap in
hospitality literature and provide significant implications to the MICE education and industry. For educators, the results will form a platform for curriculum development discussion to prepare effective and job-ready graduates. For industry practitioners, the competencies identified can be used for staff recruitment, performance appraisals, on-the-job training and staff-development.

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EXAMINING RATIONALES FOR GOVERNMENT INVOLVEMENT IN SPORT EVENTS

Alana Thomson and Simon Darcy
University of Technology, Sydney

Abstract

It is recognised that government involvement in sport events is based on various rationales, and these rationales influence the potential outcomes a city may experience from hosting such an event (Gleeson & Low, 2000; Searle & Bounds, 1999; Veal, 2002). Over the last few decades, the economic potential that sport events offer a city has seen increased government interest and governments have been criticised for neglecting the social outcomes (Carrière & Demazière, 2002; Misener & Mason, 2006; Searle, 2002). Yet there is limited research that has empirically investigated government involvement in sport events. This paper aims to address two main objectives: to develop an understanding of rationales for government involvement in sport events and to understand how these rationales influence subsequent event outcomes. This research addresses these objectives through an analysis of post-event evaluation documents. The research design consisted of two stages. First, a framework is presented through which to examine the rationales for government involvement in sport events. Second, the preliminary findings are presented from the empirical test of the Framework to determine which policy areas have been incorporated and emphasised within the post-event reporting. This research analyses 7 sport events staged in Australia from 1995 to 2007. Findings from this study demonstrate conclusively that event reporting is preoccupied with economic outcomes, with content coverage almost double to that of social outcomes. The implication of this research is that the development of leveraging sport events for social outcomes and evaluating these social outcomes has been limited.

Keywords:
Policy; Government; Social outcomes; Sport; Events

INTRODUCTION

It is recognised that rationales for government involvement in sport events have influence on the potential outcomes a city may experience from hosting events (O'Sullivan, Pickernell, & Senyard, 2009). In this context, rationales are understood as the reasons why governments intervene in the free market delivery of sport events (Veal, 2002). Subsequently, the event outcomes can be seen as the manifestation of government rationales, as the rationales are where policy will be directed to ensure outcomes are realised (O'Sullivan et al., 2009; Veal, 2002). Over the last few decades, the economic potential that sport events offer a city has become a predominant rationale for government involvement. The dominant focus of governments has been around the benefits of attracting capital investment, visitors, and media coverage (Carlson & Millan, 2002; Hall, 2004; Hiller, 2000; Monclús, 2006; Ritchie, 2000) and reinvigorating deindustrialised city economies (Gleeson & Low, 2000; Vaz & Jacques, 2006). Reflecting this economic drive, policies, leveraging strategies and
evaluation of sport events have been geared towards economic outcomes (Chalip, 2006; Murphy & Bauman, 2007; O’Sullivan et al., 2009).

However, governments have been criticised for neglecting the social outcomes, which include benefits to host communities through various forms of participation (Carrière & Demazière, 2002; Misener & Mason, 2006; Searle, 2002). There is a need to broaden the focus of policy surrounding sport events beyond economic considerations (Sherwood, 2007). This is consistent with notions of sustainability and Triple Bottom Line Accounting, which call for an equal consideration of the economic, social and environmental aspects of special events (Fredline, Raybould, Jago, Deery, & Allen, 2007; Sherwood, 2007). Yet, there is limited research that has empirically investigated the influences of rationales for government involvement in sport events, particularly in the Australian context.

This research aims to contribute to the body of knowledge through addressing two main research objectives:

1. To develop an understanding of rationales for government involvement in sport events; and,
2. To understand how these rationales influence subsequent event outcomes.

This research addresses these objectives through analysing post-event reporting by way of evaluation documents through a two stage research design. In stage one a framework is developed to examine the rationales for government involvement in sport events. In stage two, the Framework is used to examine post event evaluation documents and determine the rationales that are most emphasised within the documents.

The following paper first provides an overview of relevant literature. Second, the research design is explained, and Framework to Examine Government Involvement in Sport Events is presented. Third, the preliminary findings are outlined and discussed. Last, conclusion and implications of the research are presented.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

The many varied benefits presented by sport events have seen governments focus on sport events as a ‘packaged solution’ for economic management and urban regeneration (Carrière & Demazière, 2002; O’Sullivan et al., 2009). The packaged solution is described as governments and cities investing in the hosting of a sport event, and anticipating automatic benefits and improvements across a broad range of areas (Carrière & Demazière, 2002). Some authors argue that this focus has been driven by neoliberal ideologies that have come to see large scale events, including sport events as urban projects within neoliberal governance structures and practices (Gleeson & Low, 2000; Hall, 2006; MacLeod, 2002; Searle & Bounds, 1999; Smith & Fox, 2007).

However, it has been realized that sport events are not an end, but a means (Chalip, 2004). Tensions have emerged surrounding this approach. First, there has been considerable critical debate as to whether these outcomes are actually realised (Crompton, 2001; Crompton & McKay, 1994; Kellett, Hede, & Chalip, 2008;
Victorian Auditor-General, 2007), and questions as to the appropriateness of using public funds (Chalip, 2004; Crompton, 2001; Veal, 2002; Whitson & Macintosh, 1996). Second, the notion of a packaged solution appears to have positioned economic outcomes as central, and social and environmental outcomes as ancillary. There have been arguments to broaden objectives of sport events beyond the economic focus to include social and environmental outcomes (Sherwood, 2007). By hosting an event there is no guarantee that broader benefits will be automatically realized. Instead, at every phase in the event lifecycle, including planning, implementation and post-event, broader outcomes need to be consciously addressed.

This argument is supported by Preuss’s (2007) legacy model, as shown in Figure 1. Preuss illustrates that along the different stages of the event lifecycle, there are certain considerations required to ensure that ‘obligatory measures’ are achieved to deliver the event. As well as the obligatory measures, ‘optional measures’ should be put in place to ensure there are broader outcomes or legacies realised for the host city beyond staging the sport event.

**FIGURE 1. PREUSS’S LEGACY MODEL**

By recognising the influence of government involvement in sport events (Gleeson & Low, 2000; Searle & Bounds, 1999; Veal, 2002), it may be argued that there are opportunities to engage more broadly across policy areas to encourage initiatives that target outcomes beyond only an economic focus (Chalip, 2004, 2006; Coalter, 2007; Kellett et al., 2008; Murphy & Bauman, 2007; Preuss, 2007). However, there is evidence to suggest that contemporary government involvements in event strategies are limited by a preoccupation with economic rationales.

In a recent study, O’Sullivan et al. (2009) reviewed local government policy in Wales, and found that planning and evaluation continues to be focused on the economic outcomes from events. Their surveys of local government officers outlined that although local governments claim to support events for social value, instead the economic outcomes are where government policies have been directed and evaluated.
(O'Sullivan et al., 2009). This is seen to have potential implications for the effectiveness and efficiency of outcomes achieved by staging sport events if objectives are geared towards such a narrow focus.

Within the Australian context, two studies have considered the government role in realising broader social outcomes from sport events. Misener (2007) reviewed policy approaches of three cities, Edmonton, Canada; Manchester, United Kingdom; and Melbourne, Australia; and Kellet et al. (2008) focused on State and local government policy interactions in Melbourne, Australia. Misener (2007) interviewed urban regime members who influence policymaking surrounding sport events. Misener concluded that these urban regime members perceived themselves as being attentive to social issues, however, they were conscious of needing to find more ways to maximise social outcomes to meet community needs. Kellet et al. (2008) conducted a comprehensive qualitative case study analysis and compared two cities implementing a State-based policy programme surrounding the Melbourne Commonwealth Games. They found that although there were strategies in place to leverage the social outcomes from the Melbourne Commonwealth Games, a “vague” (p.101) policy stipulation at the State policy level saw vastly different outcomes between the two cities due to the methods of strategy implementation at the local level.

These two studies have outlined the limited understanding of the role of the State and sport events in securing broader outcomes for cities. However, as argued by Chalip (2006), there is a greater need to understand the processes of planning and evaluation required to “engender value” through sport events (p.109). This research recognises that an empirical understanding of government involvement in sport events in the Australian context is limited beyond these studies.

This research aims to address the research questions outlined above through two stages, first, presenting a framework to guide the examination of the rationales for government involvement in sport events. Second, this Framework is used to determine which rationales have been incorporated and emphasised within the post-event reporting. The following sections will first, outline the research design employed to address these objectives. Second, the findings will be presented. Third, these findings will be interpreted in the discussion section. Finally, conclusions, implications and future research will be detailed.

**RESEARCH DESIGN**

This section details the research design through first, presenting the Framework to Examine Government Involvement in Sport Events as the framework for analysis. Second, detailing the research method to empirically test the Framework.

**Framework to Examine Government Involvement in Sport Events**

To address the research objectives it was necessary to develop a framework through which to examine the rationales for government involvement in sport events. Whilst there has been research conducted around rationales and government orientations in leisure and tourism, there has been limited development within a specific events context. The need to develop an event-specific framework is due to the inherent differences of events from leisure and tourism initiatives. For example, event strategies often require a significant concentration of resources during a relatively
short period of time to meet the delivery date of the event (Carrière & Demazière, 2002; MacLeod, 2002), differing to tourism or leisure initiatives which may be developed and implemented over a much longer period of time.

Therefore, as a basis to develop a Framework to Examine Government Involvement in Sport Events, two main frameworks are drawn upon, and supplemented by a broader events literature. First, Veal’s (2002) 12 rationales for government involvement in leisure and tourism are drawn as a broad starting point. This includes eight mainstream economic rationales: Public Goods and Services; Externalities; Mixed Goods; Merit Goods; Option Demand; Infant Industries; Option Demand; Infant Industries; Size of Project; Natural Monopoly, and four socio-economic justifications: Equity/Humanitarian; Economic Management; Incidental Enterprise, and Tradition. Veal has applied these rationales within a leisure and tourism context. However it was also necessary to capture the differences in event context, and to do this Gratton, Shibli’s and Coleman’s (2006) event aims model was relied upon, as well as broader rationales from the literature. Gratton et al.’s (2006) Four Event Aims were utilized, incorporating a framework that identifies four aims that governments might realise and evaluate through involvement in events. These include: Economic Impact; Media and Sponsor Evaluation; Place Marketing Effects; and Sports Development.

Additionally, there were several rationales identified through the literature review that were considered important to include when developing a framework to examine government involvement in sports events. These rationales derived from the events literature further supplemented the model, and include:

- urban renewal (Carlson & Millan, 2002; Gleeson & Low, 2000; Hall, 2004; Monclus, 2006; Ritchie, 2000);
- event legacy (Cashman, 2003; Preuss, 2003, 2006, 2007); and
- social outcomes (Brown & Massey, 2001; Coalter, 2007; Crompton, 2001; Hall, 1989; Misener & Mason, 2006; Murphy & Bauman, 2007; Ritchie, 2000).

The purpose of this Framework is to provide reference for analysis to examine why governments become involved, including what is hoped to be achieved through the events, what strategies may be utilised and what is achieved through the events. This research was interested in examining which of the rationales in the Framework have been incorporated and emphasised within the post-event reporting for events that attracted State government involvement. Analysis through this framework aims to provide an understanding of the rationales for government involvement in sport events, and how this influences subsequent event outcomes.

Table 1 presents the Framework to Examine Government Involvement in Sport Events. In the first column a listing of the rationales indicating authors from whom rationales have been derived from the literature review. The rationales that have an asterisk indicate relationships with social outcomes from sport events. The rationales that have an ^ indicate relationships with economic outcomes from sport events. The second column provides a summary of the rationale definition and the third column presents the operationalisation of the rationale. The third column formed the analytical coding frame through which to examine government involvement in sport events in this study.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rationale</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Operationalisation for Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public Good*</td>
<td>(Veal, 2002)</td>
<td>- Goods or services providing direct benefit or enjoyment</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Non-excludable &amp; Non-rival</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Govt involvement as transaction not clear cut</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Psychic benefit - indirect benefit or enjoyment, Non-excludable &amp; Non-rival (Veal, 2002), as well as civic pride, psychic benefit (Crompton, 2001) and psychological outcomes</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Common good of hosting event</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Access to the enjoyment of the event to the general public, including non-attendees, resulting in broader community benefits</td>
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<tr>
<td>Externalities*</td>
<td>(Veal, 2002)</td>
<td>- 3rd party affected positively or negatively</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>+ve needing subsidy</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-ve needing compensation</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>govt intervenes through laws and levies</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- contentious issues, eg Bondi Beach volleyball during Olympic Games</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- community consultation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed Goods*</td>
<td>(Veal, 2002)</td>
<td>- public and private characteristics, that is there is a government subsidy, but also a user-pay element</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1. engage and personal benefit</td>
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<td></td>
<td>2. become supporters and contribute to community</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3. supporting culture and society leads to social and economic spinoffs</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
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<td>4. cultural centre facilitator of civic pride inc non-users</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- All initiatives pursued that realise the broader community benefit from the event, however exhibiting an element of user-pays</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Includes some sporting and cultural aspects of the events, where the attendance has been deemed beneficial for community involvement and is subsidised</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Engagement*</td>
<td>(Kellett et al., 2008; Misener, 2007)</td>
<td>- Social Capital, ie community networks to access resources;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(Misener, 2007; Misener &amp; Mason, 2006)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Skill development and community capacity (Smith &amp; Fox, 2007);</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Bringing together diverse backgrounds (Kellett et al., 2008; Sugden &amp; Tomlinson, 2002)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Community involvement, volunteering (Smith &amp; Fox, 2007)</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Engagement of various stakeholders inc. residents, visitors, sponsors, competitors, private sector, government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Ideas of partnership, sense of ownership of event and initiatives, the experience of the event</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- includes aspects of engagement; media engagement strategies for select groups;</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘engaging the community’, ticket marketing, merchandising, hospitality packages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Eg importance of Aboriginal culture within programming and event as contributing to reconciliation, notions of multiculturalism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Educational initiatives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport Development*</td>
<td>(Gratton, Shibli, &amp; Coleman, 2005)</td>
<td>- event encourages young people to be more involved in sport &amp; physical activity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- sport development across continuum (Coalter, 2007; Murphy &amp; Bauman, 2007)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Strategic planning for grass roots participation (Kidd, 2003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Facility provision for sport development (McCloy, 2003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- inherent outcomes for sport through staging the event</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- initiatives undertaken to increase grass roots and elite sport opportunities surrounding the event</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- specific facility provision with intention for sport development outcomes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- also includes doping</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Merit Goods*</td>
<td>(Veal, 2002)</td>
<td>- Desirable goods or services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- People needing education to appreciate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Similar to public good and externalities (Henry, 2001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- ‘promotion in the public mind’, initiatives used to increase awareness and support for event bid, event attendance and support of event in general by non-attendees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Different to idea of education referred to in community engagement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Role of third sector/sponsors in promoting awareness and support for events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Option Demand</td>
<td>(Veal, 2002)</td>
<td>- govt intervene goods or services to be maintained so that the option to use them is always there, even non-use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental</td>
<td></td>
<td>- Ecological consideration for future generations (Elkington, 1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustainability</td>
<td></td>
<td>- differs to public good, as in mixed economy, legacies not always non-rival or non-excludable (Cashman, 2003; Preuss, 2003, 2006, 2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legacy**</td>
<td></td>
<td>- ecological regeneration associated with development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- environmental operations of event</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- provision of facilities for general public use post event</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- facilities, knowledge transfer, city capabilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infant Industries*</td>
<td>(Veal, 2002)</td>
<td>- new industry challenged by existing operators undercutting the market efficiencies questioned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Also seen to include notions of government involvement needed for successful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size of Project</td>
<td></td>
<td>- cost and length of projects too significant to attract private market - market failure</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| (Veal, 2002) | - capital outlays  
- market cannot benefit unless intervention | coordination of event |
| Natural Monopoly | - monopolies naturally occurring in the market place, free market could charge more than is justified  
- government intervene through regulation and policy |  |
| (Veal, 2002) |  |
| Equity/Humanitarian* | - basic quality of life to be afforded to ALL people regardless of ability to pay  
- mixed thoughts for equity incentive/disincentive, but agreement on minimum levels | - includes ideas of equity of Aboriginal issues and representation  
- respect in processes – mixed good  
- Labour Unions  
- Disability access |
| (Veal, 2002) |  |
| Economic Management/ Development ^ (Veal, 2002) | - most governments feel responsible for economic management  
- intervention for job creation common  
- economic impact | - economic impact |
|  |  |
| Urban Renewal ^ (Gleeson & Low, 2000) | - urban renewal (Carlson & Millan, 2002; Ritchie, 2000)  
- urban regeneration (Hall, 2004; Monclús, 2006) | - new facilities  
- new commercial/residential development associated  
- facility refurbishment  
- public space |
| Media and Sponsor Evaluation ^ (Gratton et al., 2005) | - value of exposure for media and sponsors from media coverage | - discussion of broadcast stakeholders/beneficiaries  
- contract negotiation  
- viewers/hours  
- goals of media & evaluation of outcomes |
| Place Marketing Effects ^ (Gratton et al., 2005) | - effects associated with hosting and broadcasting an event which may encourage visitors to return in the future | - induced tourism  
- city promotion on world scale  
- attraction of new business |
| Incidental Enterprise | - Provision of good or service incidental to another activity |  |
| (Veal, 2002) |  |
| Tradition | - In some cases the only reason governments support is because of tradition, challenges may be presented if this changes  
- Related to public good or mixed good | - City tradition of sporting achievements |
| (Veal, 2002) |  |

The second stage of the research was to empirically test the above Framework to examine
government involvement in sport events to determine which rationales have been
incorporated and emphasised through event strategies as captured in post event reporting.
Australia has been host to many large-scale sport events over the last 15 years, therefore a
sampling frame was developed which selected those events that would demonstrate
government involvement in sport events. For this research context, the events needed to
demonstrate; a competitive bid process; significant government involvement; and a capacity
to be considered as a urban project, that is a significant economic impact, demand on city
infrastructure and place marketing opportunities. It was also critical for this research design
that the researcher would have access to event evaluation documentation.

Table 2 lists the four filters and indicates stage-by-stage reduction of the sample. As a result 7
events were chosen, including World Police & Fire Games 1995 (WPFG1995), Sydney 2000
Olympics (S2000), Sydney 2000 Paralympics (P2000), World Masters Games 2002
(WMG2002), Rugby World Cup (RWC2003), Melbourne Commonwealth Games 2006
(CG2006), Commonwealth FINA Swimming Championships 2007 (F2007).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Filter</th>
<th>Sample Size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stage 1: Population of Sports Events 1993-2007</td>
<td>600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 2: Filter 1 - Formal bid process</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 3: Filter 2 - Government involvement – Bid &amp; Event</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Stage 4: Filter 3 - Best representing ‘Urban Project’
  - $10mill economic impact for the State economy;
  - refocusing the city through capital investments, or at least an event duration of 5 days;
  - place marketing - international media coverage, and/or at least 1000 domestic/international participants | 15          |
| Stage 5: Filter 4 - Access to post-event documentation | 7           |

In this research context, the event outcomes are seen as the manifestation of government
rationales, as the rationales are where policy will be directed to ensure outcomes are realised
(O'Sullivan et al., 2009; Veal, 2002). For this reason, post-event evaluation documents were
utilised. This is consistent with other research approaches, as post-event evaluations have
been identified by as being more accurate of event outcomes. The use of post-event reporting
is in contrast to pre-event projections which are criticised as being exaggerated and not
reflective of what actually occurred around the event strategy (Crompton, 1995; Getz, 1991;
Sherwood, 2007).

Content analysis was utilised as a research approach that seeks to “quantify content in terms
of predetermined categories and in a systematic and replicable manner” (Bryman, 2004, p.
181). The content analysis took the form of quantification through subjects and themes,
guided by the pre-defined rationales, definitions and operationalisations detailed in Table 1
Framework to Examine Government Involvement in Sport Events. Within this application of
content analysis, the researcher sought both manifest and latent content, with the latent
content requiring a level of interpretation “beneath the surface” of statements for
categorisation (Bryman, 2004, p. 188). The analysis coded phrases within the evaluation
documents that demonstrated the rationales defined in the Framework throughout the event
evaluation documents that indicated what was hoped to be achieved through the events, what strategies were utilised and what was achieved through the event.

NVivo Software was utilised for the coding process to support the analysis process through enabling the generation of the tabulated results which are presented for analysis in this paper. The tables generated for this paper present within-case percentages of the documents coded to the particular rationale from the Framework. The greater the percentage demonstrates the greater the emphasis for this rationale in the evaluation documents.

One of the main limitations of this study is identified as the restriction of the analysis to the post-event reporting as it limits analysis of the pre-event rhetoric. However, for this stage of the larger research project, access and accuracy, as outlined above, have determined this limitation.

RESULTS


Table 4 presents an overall summary of the content analysis with the table listing the rationales from the Framework down the right hand side and lists events across columns, indicating the documents that were available to be analysed for each event. For each of the events, the within-case percentages of the documents coded to the particular rationale from the Framework are provided. As indicated earlier, the findings represent analysis guided by the pre-defined rationales, definitions and operationalisations detailed in Table 1 Framework to Examine Government Involvement in Sport Events. As can be seen the analysis of documents through the Framework demonstrates the rationales for government involvement that were incorporated and emphasised within the post-event reporting. The findings from Table 4 will be discussed below. There were also rationales that were not evident in any of the documentation, including Infant Industries, Natural Monopolies and Incidental Enterprise.
The event documentation utilised for the analysis tells an interesting story in itself. The analysis revealed that documentation for only four of the events included a broad evaluation document and three of the seven events focused solely on the economic impact from hosting the event. As will be discussed, the varied approaches have inherent influence on outcomes for this research. In terms of the word counts dedicated to each event, there was also a significant range in text available for the analysis. In most cases, the comprehensive reporting had much larger word counts than the Economic Impact Studies. However, the Rugby World Cup document provided a comparatively high word count for an Economic Impact Study.

In Table 4 a variety of the rationales were evident within the events that have attracted government involvement, demonstrating a variety of rationales for government involvement in sport events. Of significance are Economic Management across the Commonwealth Games 2006 (28.98%), World Police and Fire Games 1995 (27.84%), FINA (14.72%), World Masters Games 2002 (13.04%), Rugby World Cup (7.38%). Community Participation demonstrated significance across the FINA 2007 (17.77%) and Paralympic Games (7.1%).

As individual rationales, there is more of an emphasis on the rationale of Economic Management in comparison to Community Participation. However, when grouping all rationales that are relevant to the broader notions of economic outcomes and social outcomes the differences are significant. The groupings of like rationales were indicated above in Table 1. The rationales that have an * indicate social outcomes from sport events. The rationales that have an ^ indicate economic outcomes from sport events.

Table 5 below provides a grouping of the economic outcome rationales.
Table 5. Economic Outcome Rationales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Economic Management</td>
<td>27.84</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>13.04</td>
<td>28.98</td>
<td>7.38</td>
<td>14.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban Renewal</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media and Sponsor Evaluation</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place Marketing Effects</td>
<td>5.36</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>5.09</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>8.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>33.2</td>
<td>2.46</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>18.35</td>
<td>34.07</td>
<td>9.53</td>
<td>23.09</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 below provides a grouping of the social outcome rationales.

Table 6. Social Outcome Rationales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public Good</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Externalities</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed Goods</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Participation</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>17.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports Development</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>7.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Merit Goods</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Option Demand - Legacy</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equity/Humanitarian</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>5.59</td>
<td>14.54</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>30.79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 includes 4 rationales as Economic Outcome Rationales, compared to Table 6 which includes 9 rationales as Social Outcome Rationales. This demonstrates that Social Outcome Rationales are more than double that of the Economic Outcome Rationales. This indicates there are more opportunities for sport events to deliver social outcomes to host cities. However, when comparing the cumulative coverage percentages of the event documentation for the two groupings, Economic Outcome Rationales (121.74%) almost double the focus on Social Outcome Rationales (61.84%).

Those events with the higher percentage of social outcome rationales are consistent with the document type. For example, FINA 2007 (30.79%) Paralympics 2000 (14.54%), Commonwealth Games 2006 (8.5%), and Sydney 2000 Olympics (5.59%) all provided some form of a post games report, which looked at the event for its totality of outcomes. It is important to note that Commonwealth Games 2006 (34.07%) and FINA 2007 (23.09%) also rate highly with economic outcomes.

DISCUSSION

With regard to the first objective to understand why governments become involved, a framework was derived from the relevant literature and presented above. This provided an event-specific framework to consider rationales for government involvement in sport events, and the influences of these on the subsequent event outcomes. The research found that a variety of the rationales identified in the Framework were evident within the events that have attracted government involvement. This demonstrated a variety of rationales for government involvement in these sport events (Gleeson & Low, 2000; Searle & Bounds, 1999; Veal, 2002). These diverse expectations of event outcomes are consistent with the notion of a sport event as a ‘packaged solution’, as defined earlier (Carrière & Demazière, 2002). Several of the rationales were not evident in the analysis of the event documentation which strengthens the earlier argument made regarding the inherent difference of events to leisure and tourism, and thus the need for an event-specific framework for analysis.
The second objective was to understand how these rationales for government involvement in sport events influence subsequent event outcomes. The findings indicate economic outcome rationales were double that of the social outcome rationales. This supports criticisms in the literature, that governments are preoccupied with the economic outcome from sport events (Carrière & Demazière, 2002; Misener & Mason, 2006; Murphy & Bauman, 2007; O'Sullivan et al., 2009; Searle, 2002).

The cases that demonstrated a higher percentage covering of social outcomes were consistent with the document type available from the event. The four sport events that indicated the highest coverage of social outcome rationales, including FINA 2007, Paralympics 2000, Commonwealth Games 2006, and Sydney 2000 Olympics, all provided some form of a post games report or triple bottom line report. These more comprehensive documents enabled the events to be considered for the totality of outcomes, rather than just the economic outcomes (Fredline et al., 2007; Sherwood, 2007). Overall, three of these events indicated the highest word counts for documents, while the FINA 2007 documentation was significantly less than the RWC 2003 documentation. In terms of the documentation utilised for the analysis, both the Commonwealth Games 2006 and FINA 2007 presented a comprehensive report evaluation of the events, and both rated highly with percentage coverage of economic outcome rationales. This demonstrates that where event organising committees have responsibility to report on the broader Triple Bottom Line impacts and outcomes of the event, the organisers are encouraged to create initiatives to address the broader event outcomes, and report accordingly.

In the Australian events context there appears to have been an inconsistent basis for comparison of event outcomes and of the events included in this study. Approximately half of the events have not been considered in their totality for subsequent outcomes for the city. While this research recognises that all events featured in this research engaged in some kind of social programming around the events, not all events were able to gauge the effectiveness of programming, or measure the social outcomes from their events due to the limited focus of the event evaluation. The reports also provided varying degrees of measurement evaluation of the social outcomes, from anecdotal accounts (P2000), to counts of outputs (P2000), to scaled measures of outcomes (Commonwealth Games TBL).

This limited conceptualisation of social outcomes from sport events inhibits further development of planning and evaluation of social outcomes (Chalip, 2006; Murphy & Bauman, 2007). However, these four events may be considered as best practise examples in terms of being conceptualised and evaluated as comprehensive urban projects that have relationships with the host cities and communities that go beyond economic outcomes to include broader social outcomes.

CONCLUSION & IMPLICATIONS

The purposes of this research were to develop an understanding of the rationales for government involvement in sport events and, to understand how these rationales influence subsequent event outcomes. This research put forth the Framework to examine Government Involvement in Sport Events, to develop an understanding for why governments become involved. The analysis revealed that government involvement in the sport events sampled in this research was justified across a range of rationales included in the Framework. This indicates that governments become involved in events not only for economic benefits, but a
range of social and environmental outcomes, reflecting the notion of a packaged solution to urban regeneration (Carrière & Demazière, 2002). However, what was realised through the empirical testing was an uneven focus across the rationales through the outcomes presented in the post-event evaluation documents.

In understanding how rationales for government involvement influenced event outcomes, the findings from this study demonstrate that a narrow policy focus reflected through rationales influences a narrow conceptualisation and measurement of event outcomes. In this study, post-event reporting was preoccupied with economic outcomes; almost double that of social outcomes. The implication of this for event conceptualisation and management is that it is not adequately understood how the social outcomes have been approached or realised. This inhibits further development of social outcomes through sport events as little is understood with regards to leveraging events and evaluating outcomes (Chalip, 2006; Kellett et al., 2008; Misener, 2007; Misener & Mason, 2006).

Moving forward, it will be important to empirically examine the four cases identified in this research in which social outcomes have been incorporated and analyse how social outcomes have been planned and evaluated. Future analysis will aim to address limitations of this paper by incorporating pre-event rhetoric for analysis. Further research in this area will contribute to enhancing the comprehensive planning and evaluation of events to realise broader outcomes through sport events.

REFERENCES


Abstract

This paper discusses the challenges associated with evaluating the social impacts of events and the difficulty in isolating lines of causality for attitudes that are susceptible to multiple influences. The discussion is illustrated by an account of the Shoreditch Trust’s journey from developing an understanding of the potential social benefits of their festival (the Shoreditch Festival) to designing and applying pragmatic methods for assessing some of these impacts. Conceptual challenges were addressed by undertaking a literature review that explored issues of social change, festival impacts and the measurement of social capital. A variety of methods were developed to gather information on aspects of social change and their association with the festival. Methods involved pre- and post-festival surveys of local residents, data gathering at the festival and post-event focus groups and interviews with participants, volunteers, attendees and local residents.

The critical appraisal of the process and results presented in this paper advance academic understanding of the research challenges inherent when isolating and evaluating the social effects of community based festivals. Whilst the outcome is not the provision of an ideal methodological tool, any evaluation undertaken of these impacts adds to a growing body of knowledge and helps to convince organisers and funders that social impacts are as important (and for many events more important) than economic measures. Secondly, the trialling and critiquing of the evaluation methods used at Shoreditch furthers the development of future robust, flexible and practical methods for identifying, defining and exploring such impacts.

Keywords:
Social impacts; festivals; evaluation; community participation

INTRODUCTION

Evidence-based policy relating to arts and cultural activity, community festivals and events remains underdeveloped mainly due to the difficulties in providing meaningful evidence. Funders and policy makers often seek reassurance and/or ‘proof’ that their contribution does ‘good’ and look to identify how limited resources can be used to the greatest effect. For this to happen there needs to be a greater focus on developing and applying appropriate methods of evidencing the impact of a variety of interventions, including festivals and events, on the somewhat ‘fuzzy’ concepts (Markusen 1999; 2003) of social capital development, cultural improvement and community well-being.
This, however, creates a number of challenges, namely: identifying what constitutes evidence of change; creating meaningful techniques for measuring change; and finally, being able to attribute any change to a particular cause (intervention or event).

This paper reflects on some of these challenges by considering a recent case-study of an evaluation of Shoreditch Festival, London, UK. The Festival is organised by Shoreditch Trust (a not-for-profit organisation) for the local community and involves nine days of arts, cultural and sporting activities and events. The complexity and variety inherent within many such community festivals suggests that it is unlikely that a uniform method could be developed but what may be possible is a standardised approach to identifying what to measure, how to measure and how to use the findings (Wood, 2009; Small 2007).

The starting point for the approach was a literature review of social capital and how this equates to social impact measurement. Social capital was the starting point because, in spite of the limitations discussed below, it has currency in policy circles. This helped to determine the focus of the evaluation for the case study festival.

SOCIAL CAPITAL AND FESTIVAL IMPACTS

In the UK, there has been a presumption for several years in policy circles that leisure and culture can contribute to neighbourhood renewal and help address social exclusion (PAT10, 1999). This represents an advancement beyond traditional understandings, that often advocated the intrinsic benefits of culture, art and sport “a notion of art for art’s sake or sport for sport’s sake” (Long, & Bramham, 2006). However, whilst this emphasises the wider social benefits of culture, sports and the arts, there is a lack of substantive evidence to support these claims, largely due to the prevalence of research work that was more accustomed in articulating the economic benefits of these areas of policy (Wood, 2004: Matterasso, 1997).

Inspired by the policy platform offered more recently, the more intangible social impacts of leisure based events and festivals are increasingly being emphasised within research and evaluation activity, with academics in particular, taking up the challenge to go beyond just quantifying the economic impacts (Fredline, Jago and Deery, 2003; Wood and Thomas, 2006: Small, Edwards and Sheridan 2005; Small, 2007:).

This growing body of knowledge has helped to convince organisers and funders that events and festivals can generate outcomes beyond those often cited intrinsic benefits. However, despite the emergence of social outcomes the relationships between the policy areas of leisure and culture are often undermined by a lack of clarity about how best to relate these potential social benefits within favoured government policy ideals, such as ‘addressing social exclusion’ and ‘building social capital’.

Social capital is a term that has become increasingly popular in policy circles. Its appeal lies in its ability to be applied across multiple disciplines and a variety of policy arenas. In particular, the cultural sector has readily embraced the term as, from a theoretical perspective, it presents an opportunity to help define some of the softer less tangible outcomes of arts and sports participation in a way that presents a demonstrable link to the wider social good. This has been described as the ‘potential to build bridges’
both conceptually and empirically to other areas of social research’ (Hemmingway, 1999).

Despite its growing prominence in policy circles the utility of the term social capital continues to be contested amongst academics (Daly, 2005) Such debates influence the way in which social capital can and should be applied, whilst introducing difficulties associated with measuring its growth and (or) existence. There is, however, some degree of consensus that two main traditions underpin the conceptualisation of social capital. The first school of thought associated with the work of Pierre Bourdieu and the second developed around the work of Robert Putnam, each represents quite different interpretations of the utility of social capital.

Much like other forms of capital Bourdieu understands social capital as a resource possessed by individuals (Daly, 2005). By adopting an understanding, framed by Marxism, that focuses on individual accumulation, Bourdieu presents social capital as the social relations that increase the ability of an actor to advance her/his own interests (Siisiainen, 2000). In so doing, Bourdieu’s work largely emphasises the way in which different endowments of social capital help to reinforce and preserve social order (Adam & Roncevic 2003).

The second school of thought advancing ideas of social capital is based on the work of Robert Putnam. Putnam emphasises collectivity and disputes that social capital is an individual asset. His perspective is that the community as well as the individuals concerned benefit from their participation (Long, 2008). ‘Social capital refers to connections amongst individuals’ social networks and the norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness that arise from them’ (Putnam, 2000). Such a stance allows the concept of social capital to be understood as something that could be nurtured and developed to the betterment of all, rather than a privileged few. Indeed, by forging associations with notions of democracy, Putnam argues for the multiple benefits that could ensue as a result of the successful accumulation of social capital amongst a community (Putnam, 1993).

One of the more useful dimensions is the distinction between bonding and bridging social capital (Putnam, 2002). ‘Bonding’ denotes ties between people in similar situations, such as family, close friends and neighbours and as a result is suggested to be more inward looking and have a tendency to reinforce exclusive identities. Bridging social capital on the other hand encompasses more distant ties of likeminded persons, such as loose friendships and workmates. As a result bridging capital is more able to generate broader identities and reciprocity (Smith, 2007).

The popularity of Putnam’s conceptualisations in the policy arena and its recognition of different types and forms of social capital provide a useful foundation for our treatment of social capital in relation to the festival impact evaluation. But even if we accept that social capital can be ‘a powerful predictor of many social goods’ (Sander, Lowney 2006), we are still left with the challenges of how to appropriately measure its existence and growth.

Work by Stone and Hughes (2002) defines social capital narrowly as the different forms and characteristics of ‘Networks in which Trust and reciprocity operate’. The measurement of these different types of social capital is considered to be dependent on,
but distinct from, a series of ‘determinants of social capital’ and will then ultimately lead to a series of ‘outcomes of social capital’. Within this framework the causal cycle is treated very carefully and the approach understands that ‘social capital, like other ‘capitals’, is argued to be both facilitated by certain factors, and in turn produces various outcomes’ (Stone and Hughes, 2002). As can be seen in Figure 1, outcomes such as empowerment, civic participation, vibrant civic life, and tolerance of diversity are considered to sit outside of a definition of social capital. Instead they are the potential products of social capital, and may serve to facilitate the further development of social capital in the future, but they do not constitute social capital itself.

**Figure 1 A narrow measurement framework for social capital (Stone and Hughes 2002)**

An alternative more pragmatic approach has been adopted by the Office of National Statistics (Harper & Kelly, 2003). This avoids any discussion of causality and prefers that social capital is treated as a multi-dimensional concept. So, as well as being underpinned by the strength and characteristics of social networks, and the norms of trust and reciprocity, the term also encapsulates factors such as participation, social engagement, self-efficacy, cohesion and perception of community.

The above discussion highlights the challenges that are associated with using a term like social capital as the central focus of social impact evaluation. The ambiguity that surrounds the term, not only presents a methodological challenge to the study team, but it also potentially makes interaction with research subjects difficult for whom understanding of social capital remains opaque.

Yet, social capital persists as a popular focus of contemporary social policy because of its appeal to multiple disciplines and the access it provides to policy development for arts, culture and sport practitioners (Arcodia and Whitford, 2006). Additionally, the characteristics associated with social capital do appear to demonstrate a consistency
with festival objectives and some of the priority indicators used by local and national government. Trust, reciprocity, bridging relationships between different community identities, self-sufficiency, participation, and empowerment align neatly with the understandings of social capital offered by Putnam. Indeed when each of these objectives is grouped together they resemble the multiple items that form the composite definition of social capital favoured by the Office of National Statistics. When treated simply as the sum of other indicators and variables it acts merely as a useful umbrella term, a stance that would facilitate measurement of social capital for the purpose of event evaluation. Consequently, whilst the ongoing debate relating to the conceptualisations and definitions of social capital is acknowledged, it is necessary to take a more pragmatic approach where community festival evaluation is underpinned by a measurement framework which facilitates practical investigation (Wood, 2009), and no differentiation is made between determinants and outcomes of social capital. At the same time, this application does not compromise our understanding of the key characteristics of the social capital concept, namely its qualities as a shared commodity, the recognition of different forms of social capital (bridging and bonding) and its properties as a composite concept.

The suggested evaluation methodology translates this conceptual stance into a list of appropriate social outcomes to which festivals can feasibly contribute. This measurement framework includes the following sub-themes:

- Trust reciprocity
- Civic pride
- Quality of life
- Strength of social networks
- Civic participation and engagement
- Self-efficacy and independence.

The above set of indicators emerged from a review of previous studies of festival social impact (Small, 2007; Wood and Thomas, 2006; Wood, 2004) and through dialogue with the case study festival stakeholders who are heavily involved in delivering the festival programme. They reflect a variety of social goods that a festival can theoretically, at least, contribute to (Arcodia and Whitford, 2006). At the same time they demonstrate a degree of alignment with aspects of the ‘social capital debate’ in a way that will facilitate a pragmatic approach to measurement.

METHODOLOGY

Background to case

In order to trial potential methods for evaluating the link between social capital creation and community festivals an in-depth case study approach was used. This was made possible by the agreement and full cooperation of Shoreditch Trust who provided access to apply a variety of evaluation techniques at the 2008 Shoreditch Festival.

The Shoreditch Trust is a partnership led not for profit organisation, established through the UK Government’s New Deal for Communities (NDC) programme. NDC Partnerships are charged with devising holistic renewal programmes over a ten year
period (2000-2010) in order to tackle a range of interconnected problems impacting on residents living in deprived neighbourhoods throughout the UK.

The Shoreditch NDC area is a community of about 24,000. Approximately 44% of the resident population is non-white, representing a diversity of ethnic groups, including significant populations of Black African, Black Caribbean, Turkish and Kurdish heritage. Geographically the NDC area spreads across three distinct neighbourhoods; Wenlock Barn, Hoxton and Haggerston and consists of residential, commercial and growing arts leisure, and retail sectors. Despite the increasingly viable and mixed local economy, the area still suffers from the persistence of high levels of deprivation. High proportions of residents are without formal qualifications, many claiming government benefits, living in poor quality housing and suffering from associated problems of poor health and well-being. According to the 2007 Index of Deprivation the boundaries of the Shoreditch NDC area comprise of four Lower Super Output Areas amongst the 5% most deprived nationally, with a further seven belonging to the 10% most deprived in the country.

The Trust has continued to deliver a programme of interventions that add value to existing mainstream services, through multi-disciplinary approaches in partnership with key agencies. A core part of this delivery programme is the Shoreditch Festival.

The Festival has several objectives. These have either been explicitly referred to in order to inform the rationale for the funding of the festival programme or have implicitly emerged from the constant shaping and readjustment of the festival programme. Primarily the festival’s objectives include;

- Providing accessible opportunities for fun and enjoyment for all Shoreditch residents;
- Tackling physical, economic and psychological barriers to arts attendance and in so doing develop audiences;
- Stimulating social inclusion through arts and cultural led regeneration, thereby generating secondary social benefits such as civic pride, community cohesion, enhanced community participation and capacity development through the provision of volunteering opportunities;
- Providing an opportunity for promoting Shoreditch Trust and its work to both Shoreditch residents, the wider Greater London community and beyond;
- Brokering stronger relations between institutions, service providers and the local community.

In recognition of the challenges inherent in evidencing the economic and social impact of cultural events, Shoreditch Trust’s approaches to evaluating the Shoreditch Festival have, in the past, predominately focused on measuring participant satisfaction, and to a lesser extent the Festival’s ability to be inclusive of marginalised social groups. However 2008 presented a timely opportunity to adopt a more robust approach to evaluating the Shoreditch Festival, due to a rapidly changing policy landscape.

The introduction by the Department for Communities and Local Government of a rationalised National Indicator Set provided a mechanism though which arts based activity can more readily demonstrate a contribution to engendering stronger communities. This is because the indicators move away from measures of service performance and towards a greater emphasis on attitudinal and perceptual indicators.
that create a ‘story of place’. A number of these national and local indicators reflect outcomes that the festival can potentially contribute to, these are;

- National Indicator 1 (NI1) % of people who believe people from different backgrounds get on well together in their local area; and
- National Indicator 5 (NI5) % of people satisfied with the local area as a place to live.
- Local Indicator 1 (also National Indicator 6) participation in regular volunteering
- Local Indicator 4 financial value of “external” funding drawn down by Third Sector organisations.

Additionally, as one of the five host boroughs for the 2012 Olympic games, Hackney has been nominated as the lead borough for Culture and Media. This providing an opportunity for Shoreditch Trust to contribute to strengthening the local knowledge base on the impacts of culture, by advancing understandings of the contributory role played by the Shoreditch Festival.

Having reviewed the Festival’s objectives prior to this evaluation it was considered that several of the social objectives of the festival appeared to be broadly consistent with the concept of ‘social capital development’. Consequently, the main focus of the evaluation is the extent to which the Shoreditch Festival assists the development of aspects of social capital within the Shoreditch community.

The 2008 Shoreditch Festival is the seventh festival programme to have been delivered by Shoreditch Trust. The content of the programme and the level of beneficiary satisfaction has been reviewed annually and this has informed the ongoing development of the Festival, meaning that some of the most well received aspects of the Festival have been replicated year on year. However, each festival year has been centred around a unique theme. The theme for 2008 was the blending of art and sport, and as such, the dates were aligned in order to correlate with the handover of the Olympic Games from Beijing to London, thereby signalling the Trust’s intention to maximise the opportunities offered to Shoreditch residents through the Cultural Olympiad between 2008-2012.

The duration of the 2008 festival programme was nine days in total from 16th to the 24th August with the final day coinciding with the Olympic handover day. The variety and scale of the Festival is illustrated in the 2008 programme which can be seen in Appendix A

**TRIALS (METHODS)**

It is acknowledged that community festivals require evaluation and assessment methods specific to their objectives and in so doing need to create a methodological approach that contains a set of suitably tailored research techniques (Wood, 2009). In order to assess the level of attribution between social capital development, and in recognition of the complex social issues likely to be encountered, the methodology needs to draw on a variety of qualitative and quantitative techniques as a means of collecting a diverse range of data.

This, of course, suggests a complexity and resource intensity which does not always sit particularly well with an organisation like Shoreditch Trust for whom research
resources are relatively scarce. The greatest challenge is, therefore, to make the application of these techniques practical whilst maintaining their integrity and rigour.

The methods trialled for the case-study festival were, therefore, developed to be cost-effective, complementary and diverse using quantitative surveys, interviews, focus groups and message boards. The main methods used are outlined below:

1. Consultation activity during the Festival

This used both self completion survey questionnaires and interactive message boards. The content of the surveys helped to build an understanding of the socio-economic profile of festival attendants, as well as illicit information about the level of satisfaction with the festival and feedback on elements of the programme that are well received or could have been improved. Most importantly however the surveys provided an opportunity for festival-goers to go beyond just commenting on their levels of enjoyment, but to also allow respondents to reflect on what they believe to be the benefits that they have derived from festival involvement. The pre-determined responses to the question relating to the benefits derived from the festival were carefully selected to align with the social capital measurement framework designed by the study team.

The three message boards were placed around the Festival space and contained the following statements;

- Is the Shoreditch Festival for Shoreditch Residents?
- The Shoreditch Festival is a ‘good thing’ because…
- The Shoreditch Festival is not a ‘good thing’ because…

In total more than 100 messages were received and the technique proved to be an extremely useful way of determining the extent to which consensus or otherwise exists on a particular topic.

2. Two-phase resident attitudes survey

The primary purpose of this method was to be able to capture the extent to which the attitudes of Shoreditch residents changed over the time. The survey was developed in order to account for any bias that may be apparent from returns collected from consultation during the Festival. Consequently the indicator statements used within the questionnaire were neutrally formed and sought to capture feelings and attitudes of that moment (Wood and Thomas, 2006). The statements were carefully selected to align with the social capital measurement framework designed by the study team whilst also reflecting upon the key themes of the 2008 festival programme. The statements themselves made no reference to the Festival.

The results of the survey could then be used to frame further enquiry into the contribution that the festival itself had made in affecting this pattern of change, when compared to other contributory forces.
1. Festival.
A total of 131 valid responses were received during phase 1 of the survey exercise which was conducted six to eight weeks prior to the commencement of the Shoreditch Festival. A pool of community researchers were used to identify residents to take part in the survey. Fieldwork included approaching residents at places where there would be significant volumes of:

2. Pedestrians, at Hoxton Market, at local parks and also through a variety of active community groups and forums.
An electronic survey template was also devised and the web address was advertised heavily through community newsletters and at Shoreditch library. However this form of engagement proved to be relatively unsuccessful as the majority of respondents completed on a face to face basis. The attitude scales used in the survey instrument can be seen in Appendix B.

The second phase of the survey work occurred during the two weeks immediately after the festival. Only those who had completed the first phase of the analysis were contacted, and a further 72 valid responses were collected. The survey content was exactly the same except to assist with the analysis of the data respondents were asked whether they attended this year’s festival as well as how many elements of the programme they attended.

3. Resident Interviews
A series of in-depth telephone interviews were undertaken with Shoreditch residents in order to supplement the results of the two-phase resident attitude survey. Whereas the resident attitude survey could only point to a correlation between variances recorded across indicator statements and the delivery of the festival, the interviews were able to unpick which factors have affected this pattern of change. In so doing better understanding of the strength of the contributory role that the Shoreditch Festival played in influencing these patterns could be achieved. Thirty one interviews in total were undertaken. Some of those who participated in the interviews had already completed the resident attitudes survey. However efforts were made to identify other individuals belonging to those groups under-represented in the initial survey sample.

The interviews were designed to capture qualitative information and the interviews proceeded in a flexible and informal fashion allowing interviewees to talk around subjects rather than answer in a linear fashion. The interview was not without structure however, and those indicator statements from the attitude survey that produced statistically significant results were utilised as key lines of enquiry for the telephone discussions and informed the structure of the questioning framework (see Appendix C).

4. Volunteer focus groups
Two focus group sessions were conducted and were attended by seven festival volunteers in total. The first group comprised predominantly of those individuals who already had an interest or previous professional experience of working within a cultural events setting, whereas the second was made up of young people local to Shoreditch who demonstrated high levels of disengagement from the labour market and other support structures.
The focus group was semi-structured, in that both facilitators shared a framework of questions which reflected more readily on issues of direct relevance to the volunteering experience but which still aligned with the social capital framework discussed earlier. The focus groups were recorded and written notes were taken. These were combined after the session finished. In relation to the ‘disengaged’ young people focus group a trusted intermediary also helped to facilitate and was useful in assisting the flow of conversation and encouraging the group to respond as articulately and as in as much depth as possible.

5. Supplier survey
Those stakeholders who could loosely be described as ‘suppliers’, artists, performers, suppliers of festival infrastructure, caterers, retailers, organisations assisting the production management, and other public or voluntary sector organisations were invited to complete an electronic survey once the festival had been complete. The survey captured information on the motivations behind ‘suppliers’ becoming involved and whether their expectations had been realised through their involvement. A sample of 39 of the estimated 150 suppliers completed the electronic survey.

Incentives to encourage participation
In order to increase the response and participation rates a number of incentives were used. Response rates were increased in the two phase survey by offering entry into a prize draw to have three chances of winning £50 of shopping vouchers. Each person interviewed over the telephone received £10 in shopping vouchers and those who attended focus groups were provided refreshments and biscuits but no additional incentive.

The methodology adopts a portfolio approach with a variety of complementary techniques being used. When judged in isolation each of the techniques can be critiqued and their respective limitations become apparent. However when considered as a collective package of activity the relationships between different aspects of the methodology contrive to create a body of work which is much more substantial and robust. In this sense many of the techniques have been designed to compensate for flaws inherent within other methods and to complement and ‘top up’ research evidence derived through the separate processes.

EVIDENCE (FINDINGS)

Although the focus of this paper is to present an overview and critique of the methods employed it is also useful to highlight some of the findings from the trialled methods and the evidence this provides on the impact of the Festival on social capital development in Shoreditch.

The majority of those consulted during the festival consider the festival to be an intrinsically good thing, and there is a high level of satisfaction with the event and the programming. When asked to describe the benefits of participation in the festival derived from the festival a ‘social capital’ narrative emerges. Consultees felt that the festival encourages community interaction and learning, as well as celebrating a tolerance of diversity and alleviating tensions between residents and visitors. This narrative is supported by data collected from the two phase survey referring to changes in the attitudes and personal circumstances of Shoreditch Residents. The results...
highlight modest improvements, with a small group of ‘social capital’ indicators demonstrating positive variances in relation to Shoreditch as ‘an exciting place’, as ‘a place that suffers from tension between different groups’ and in relation to how ‘well informed resident’s are about local affairs’. Often this is not necessarily due to positive benefits of attendance. Indeed significant positive variances in attitudes and personal circumstances tend to occur as a result of downward trends that become apparent as a result of non-attendance or are assisted by positive trends in the non-attendant alongside those within the attendant cohort.

It is however shown that contributing to these modest improvements is the fact that with the exception of ‘participation in decision making’ most aspects of social capital tended to be relatively high already amongst those Shoreditch residents who contributed. As well as limiting the opportunity for the festival to affect improvement, this in itself provides an interesting insight as to the prevalence of different aspects of social capital that exist in disadvantaged communities. It is often acknowledged that empowerment and volunteering activity in these communities are low and this research does not disprove this. However it does suggest that there are other aspects of social interaction that can contribute to community development that operate somewhat independently from more active forms of engagement.

The analysis of a series of in depth telephone interviews with over 30 Shoreditch residents enabled the evaluation to illicit a more complete understanding of how the festival might contribute to improvements in resident attitudes and personal circumstances. From this we saw how the Festival contributes to a reaffirmation of a sense of civic pride and excitement amongst residents. This is partly achieved through providing a more accurate depiction of Shoreditch to those with a ‘biased’ view of the area. By providing a programme that is inclusive and representative of Shoreditch’s diverse population the Festival complements a variety of other historical processes to enhance community cohesion and tolerance. In both cases it was difficult to determine the extent to which the Festival alone, contributes to these aspects of social capital development, but it provides an insight into the potential adverse affects associated with not having a Shoreditch Festival at all.

Some concern was expressed during the depth interviews about the ability of the Festival to sustain the social capital gains that had been witnessed, as well as enable a better contribution to other aspects of social capital development such as empowerment and influence on decision making. It was suggested that this might be best achieved through a wider programme of events and activities across the calendar, instead of a one-off event.

The experiences of a small group of volunteers who actively assisted the festival in aspects of planning, decision making and delivery of events and activities, was examined during the two focus group sessions. A number of patterns and relationships emerged from this process, illustrating how all individuals consulted benefited from personal development experiences. Whilst it was acknowledged that volunteers did not always demonstrate common characteristics a number of shared experiences emerged. The value derived from festival involvement did vary, depending on individual circumstances. Those local to Shoreditch were generally most marginalised prior to the volunteering experience. They each found the programme to be an enriching and enlightening experience helping to develop a range of generic skills and an increased
sense of civic pride. Despite this, they also commented that they would welcome opportunities for a sustained programme of structured support beyond the Festival to assist them to strengthen their contribution to local community networks.

Analysis of the responses of the Festival’s organisational stakeholders (suppliers), many of whom are local to Shoreditch, suggests that the primary motivations for becoming involved in the Festival are social rather than economic. In particular they enjoy being able to form relationships and develop a knowledge of a community such as Shoreditch. This can be seen as a form of institutional social capital that could continue to create mutually beneficial relationships between suppliers and customers outside of the boundaries of the Festival.

TRIBULATIONS (REFLECTION)

Throughout the development and application of the methods outlined above the research team reflected critically upon their suitability and practicality in the context of the Trust and the Festival and their effectiveness in evaluating the selected areas of social capital development. This reflection is summarised below for each component method and for the overall process.

Survey during the Festival

The survey was valuable as it was able to tap directly into the immediate reactions and thoughts of festival participants. However, the merits of the information collected with regard to benefits of festival involvement must be seen in context. This information relied on a form of self-diagnosis that can lead to more positive answers being elicited, due to a bias generated from being ‘surrounded’ by the Festival at the time the survey is being completed.

Message boards

By making the discussion board interactive through the use of a consultation facilitator from the study team, respondents were encouraged to reflect on the views provided of other festival goers when constructing their own response. However, the public nature of the boards meant that some festival goers may have been guarded in their comments or put-off contributing in the first place. As one part of a wider portfolio of methods though, they provided a useful contribution to the overall evaluation.

Two-phase survey

This approach effectively complemented the data collected from survey consultation and was able to counter any accusation of leading questions being asked. However the utility of the data was restricted due to the low levels of valid returns received over both phases. A sample size of 200 had been the initial target but a mixture of resident apathy, resource and time constraints meant that this target became unattainable. Four data validity tests were still applied to the information prior to the analysis being undertaken and variances considered to be of statistical significance were still achieved. However, the sample collected does not mirror that of Shoreditch as a whole and therefore does not provide an accurate representation of the Shoreditch community at
large. As a result the patterns presented provide an insight into the changes that affected a mixed yet not representative fragment of the Shoreditch population. In order for this type of quantitative pre- and post-event survey to be effective, ways of ensuring a larger and more representative sample need to be applied. This tool was used solely to track changes in aspects of social capital and on its own does not provide sufficient evidence of the causes (festival or other) of any changes identified. A larger sample would also do away with the necessity of contacting the same respondents before and after (Wood, 2006). This in itself leads to further problems with response rate and the potential biasing of responses due to their previous involvement in the survey.

**Resident interviews**

The telephone interviews played a useful role in compensating for the small sample size achieved during the two-phase residents’ attitude survey substituting the expected breadth of information with a more in depth insight into the strength of the relationship between the Shoreditch Festival and patterns of social capital development. Whereas the resident attitude survey had been entirely quantitative, with the use of pre-determined statements and ranking scale, the interviews were designed to capture qualitative information and the interviews proceeded in a flexible and informal fashion allowing interviewees to talk around subjects rather than answer in a linear fashion. The interview was not without structure however. The indicator statements from the attitude survey that produced statistically significant results were utilised as key lines of enquiry for the telephone discussions and informed the structure of the questioning framework. The interviews would have been of greater benefit if a sample could have been chosen from the survey that demonstrated the greatest degree of change. This was not possible due to the lower than expected response rate. The intention of the interviews would then have been to explore the reasons for those changes and begin to establish lines of causality.

**Volunteer focus groups**

As expected the volunteers with more experience and interest in cultural events were able to reflect on the benefits and experience of the Festival in greater depth than those new to volunteering. The decision to separate the younger, ‘disengaged’ group from the experienced volunteers helped in making them feel more at ease and able to express themselves freely. Although similar themes were followed in the two groups, the discussion was framed so that the participants of both groups were able to reflect on their feelings and experiences to the best of their abilities.

These sessions enabled the study team to appreciate the range of individual and shared experiences that festival volunteering had provided. Of most interest was the extent to which a more active level of involvement in the delivery of the programme as opposed to a more passive form of beneficiary engagement had translated into enhanced personal or social capital. Resource constraints limited the number of focus groups held but these still provided useful insights into aspects of the Festival. An issue to overcome in both the focus groups and the interviews is to employ techniques that facilitate participant reflection upon their feelings and experiences and to encourage ways for them to express these. The diversity of cultural, social and educational backgrounds within communities such as Shoreditch can make this challenging.
Supplier survey

A disappointing response rate to this survey suggests that a telephone administered survey or short interview may be more appropriate. The finding that their main motivation for being involved tended to be social rather than economic suggests that other studies of social impact should not neglect the business and other organisational stakeholders.

Although there is much that could be improved in future studies the trialling of these methods has demonstrated the importance of using a range of techniques and encompassing the views of all stakeholders. The key lessons learnt though this case-study were, firstly, the importance of reflecting on what should be evaluated and taking time to clearly define these potential outcomes. Secondly, the need to apply a combination of methods and gather views from many stakeholder groups and finally, the need to do this within the inherent resource constraints.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The approach to this evaluation is framed within a measurement framework that seeks to apply an understanding of social capital development, in a way that is practical yet does not compromise the utility of the term. The contestability of the social capital concept is examined but ultimately is treated as a useful umbrella term encapsulating an array of social benefits. The methodology used adopts a portfolio approach combining a wide range of techniques in a complementary fashion and most importantly builds on best practice techniques applied successfully in other settings. Whilst a number of research challenges were encountered, the approach can be considered to be potentially robust and comprehensive.

The conclusions to be drawn from the trialling of methods on this case are that it is vital to firstly recognise the limitations of a festival in achieving economic, social or cultural change. The focus of the evaluation can then be on the areas where there is likely to be the most significant impact. For some festivals this may be economic, for others it may be in areas of cultural participation and for some, as in Shoreditch Festival, it could be linked to defined areas of social change.

The findings and resulting report from the Shoreditch Festival evaluation have been used to inform decisions made by the Trust resulting in a changing and flexible approach to the Festival. This enables the re-shaping and re-aligning of the festival programme to ensure that it maximises its contribution to Shoreditch Trust programme outcomes partly through strengthened partnerships internally and externally. With this in mind the 2010 Festival will see clear value added relationships with a range of other events throughout the year, some of which have developed as result of the success and profile of Shoreditch Festival, others as a result of the developing partnerships gained as a result of the festivals profile.

The continuing development of robust and practical methods and the application of these to a wider range of festivals will enable us to go beyond evaluation and to make wider use of the results. The aim is to generate a more informed understanding of the potential of festivals to affect social change. This, in turn, will enable festival
programmes to be developed to maximise their impact on social capital, for example, through annual large-scale festivals or through a number of smaller more frequent events. Or, indeed, to recognise that their impact is limited and to recommend the switching of public funds to other, more effective interventions. The evaluation of events and festivals, from a policy point of view, therefore needs to be seen as a development tool rather than a measurement tool and a way of providing evidence on which to base policy decisions.

The recommendations based on this study are that methods should always be tailored to the event and to the ‘desired’ outcomes. The evaluation process then needs to identify those who may be impacted (in this case, Shoreditch residents), the likely impacts (eg social/cultural), which of those to evaluate (eg aspects of social capital development), and the best methods to evaluate them (a range of methods looking at experience and outcome). The final part of the process is to make best use of the findings in future programming, funding or policy decisions and to steer away from the tendency to use evaluation merely to celebrate a ‘great’ event.

With each application of social impact evaluation we gain a better understanding of what festivals and events can and cannot achieve, and get closer to being able to develop events policy truly based on evidence.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: 2008 Festival Programme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Day</th>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16/08</td>
<td>Welcome to the World</td>
<td>An all-day event in Shoreditch Park with two main stages offering live music, one specifically programmed for and by young people. Throughout the park stalls and activities included: • Sport Inspired Club Showcase: tennis, basketball, dance fitness, rock-climbing sailing and beach volleyball. • Shoreditch Spa’s Oasis of Calm: try out relaxation remedies from around the world. • Green Area: environmentally-friendly workshops and stalls. • Hackney City Farm’s Pets Corner. • A Dog Show – Shoreditch Bark. • Mr Wonderful’s legendary Tea Dance. • Shoreditch International Villages: a themed area of catering, stalls, performances and marquees representing the many nationalities and cultures of Shoreditch.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Boulder (Shoreditch Park)</td>
<td>Climbing lessons and demonstrations took place on a recently installed giant boulder throughout the festival.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Shoe Baby</td>
<td>An open-air puppet show adventure for under-fives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17/08</td>
<td>Tour de Hackney</td>
<td>A mass cycling event for riders through historic Hackney, taking in green spaces and routes past the Olympic Park site. The event also featured: Dr Bike workshops, Bike Polo tournament, unicycle hockey competition, Bike Ballet from local young group, a Cycle safety course, Bikes to try, hire and buy, Stunt cycling outfit Team Extreme, On-site bar and food stalls.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>K’boum Collectif AOC</td>
<td>Taking place in the Lift. K’Boum blends BMX acrobatics with contemporary dance and circus themes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18/08</td>
<td>How the Lift Was Built</td>
<td>An event to promote the creation of the unique Lift structure delivered in collaboration with students from Nottingham Trent University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19/08</td>
<td>The Lyrical Lift</td>
<td>A slam poetry evening with professional poets, including Excentral Tempest, Kayo Chingonyi and Simon Mole, performing wordplay and going head-to-head for the crown of Shoreditch Festival Grand Champion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20/08</td>
<td>Make do and Mend</td>
<td>Ragroof Theatre performance followed by a tea dance where participants have the opportunity to dance to classic tunes from the 1920s-1950s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Shoreditch Games</td>
<td>Shoreditch Games was a multi-sports event offering young people the chance to try out a range of sports that they might not otherwise get to play within the school curriculum. These taster sports included for example softball, goal ball, basket ball, cycling and rowing. Young people were also offered the chance to compete for a Shoreditch Games Trophy by registering with their local youth group in order to participate. Young people could also simply drop in to take part.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comedy Festival</td>
<td>A night of comedy, with five of the UK’s funniest acts, all handpicked by one of the country’s longest running comedy festivals, The Leicester Comedy Festival. Took place in the Lift.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date</td>
<td>Event</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
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<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21/08</td>
<td>Urban Essence</td>
<td>Local young dancers join British Indian dance company ANGIKA in a unique collaboration that blends classical Bharata Natyam with urban dance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22/08</td>
<td>Beautiful Ballet &amp; Splendid Singers</td>
<td>The English National Ballet worked with local elders and young people from the Shoreditch Community to perform a short piece of ballet on the main stage in Shoreditch Park followed by the Hoxton Singers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VIP Club Wireless</td>
<td>A music event in the Lift offering young people the chance to dance to a range of music via wireless headphones. The event took place over two evenings in the Lift.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23/08</td>
<td>The Hood in the Wood</td>
<td>A captivating piece of storytelling for all the family.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24/08</td>
<td>Proms in Shoreditch Park with the Royal Philharmonic Orchestra</td>
<td>Royal Philharmonic Orchestra concert - highlights included The Blue Danube, Nessun Dorma and Ravel’s Bolero, topped off with a rousing fireworks finale.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hackney Handover</td>
<td>An historic day with host borough Hackney officially welcoming the Olympics to London, Shoreditch Festival and London Borough of Hackney present Hackney Handover – a spectacular celebration for everyone to enjoy. In Shoreditch Park the families could take part in sports, visit art commissions, food stalls, and a big screen showing the Olympic Handover live from Beijing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1948 Hoxton Street Party</td>
<td>Hoxton Street was transformed back to 1948 as we look back to the last time the Games came to London.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Events include:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• memorabilia and vintage items on the table displays</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• see the actual 1948 Torch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• sample 1948-style cakes and home-made jam with afternoon tea.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• A themed street bar</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Dance the jitterbug outdoors</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Caribbean dance hall in Hoxton Hall;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• sing along with Lily Farthing;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• listen to BBC London’s 1948 Radio Show…a real trip down memory lane.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Shoreditch Ball Park</td>
<td>An opportunity to play games with giant balloon and balls including an exciting new team game for young and old: Big Ball Bingo!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Big band Youth Musical</td>
<td>Presented on the main stage, a new musical backed by the BBC Big Band written by Elliot Davis and Sam Brookes in partnership with young people, and directed by Phil Wilmott. Dancing the Festival out with swing and jive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Messages to me in 2012</td>
<td>An art installation created by local school children, led by Miyuki Kasahara.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix B: Excerpts from survey instrument

Attitudes towards Shoreditch as a place and a community

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Shoreditch…</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>is a neighbourly place.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is a place where people look out for each other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is unwelcoming</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is a place where people from different backgrounds get on well together</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is a place that suffers from tension between different parts of the community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is exciting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is boring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is a place that offers a good quality of life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is a place I am proud to live in</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thoughts and feelings on your own personal circumstances and experiences associated with living in Shoreditch

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I am open to new cultural opportunities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have control over the decisions that affect my life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am interested in local affairs and local politics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am well informed about local affairs in Shoreditch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel able to influence local decisions made here in Shoreditch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have confidence in the public services that serve the Shoreditch community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I expect to participate in more sporting and recreational activity in two years time?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I expect to participate in more arts and cultural based events in two years time?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(all scale items measured by a 5 point Likert scale)
Appendix C: Guidance for telephone interviews

1. What do you feel about Shoreditch as a place?’

2. What do you feel about Shoreditch as a community (the other people that live in Shoreditch)?

3. What do you feel about your personal contribution to Shoreditch as a place and a community? (active or passive)

4. What kind of things make Shoreditch a good place to live?
   a) What makes Shoreditch exciting?
   b) What makes you take a more active role in contributing to Shoreditch as a place and a community?
   c) What makes you more well informed about things in the Shoreditch community

5. What kind of things make Shoreditch a bad place to live
   a) What things help to bring people together of different backgrounds together.
   b) Are there any tensions between different parts of the community, what things help to overcome these issues.

6. Have you attended this year’s Shoreditch Festival or any Shoreditch Festivals held in the past?
   YES or NO

YES
7. What do you think about Shoreditch Festival?

8. In what ways does the Festival make Shoreditch a better place to live?

9. In what ways does the Festival Make Shoreditch a worse place to live?

10. How has attending/participating in the Festival changed the way you feel about Shoreditch?

11. How has attending/participating in the Festival changed your personally

12. How has attending/ participating in the Festival affected your level of contribution to the wider Shoreditch Community? (interest in local affairs, decision making volunteering, more cultural experiences etc)

NO
13. What do you think about Shoreditch Festival?

14. In what ways does the Festival make Shoreditch a better place to live?

15. In what ways does the Festival Make Shoreditch a worse place to live?
A COMPARISON OF STAKEHOLDER PERSPECTIVES OF THE ATTRIBUTES AFFECTING FESTIVAL VISITOR SATISFACTION IN KOREA

Kyong Mo Lee
Kyonggi University, Korea

Abstract

To accomplish festival sustainability in a region, it is vital to minimise the perceptional gaps among the festival stakeholders, particularly between the host organisation, the festival visitors and the host community. In previous research, the satisfaction of festival visitors has been researched as a key influence factor on future behavioral intention. The purpose of this study is to evaluate and compare the perceptions of importance-performance held by festival stakeholders on the attributes affecting visitor satisfaction through conducting an importance-performance analysis on a Korean food festival. To examine the gaps in stakeholder perception in more detail, this empirical research investigates the differences in the perspectives of the major festival stakeholders on the attributes affecting visitor satisfaction by employing Importance-Performance Analysis. The host organisation, the festival visitors and the host community residents of a festival in Korea have been selected as the three major stakeholders, in order to compare their perceptions of importance and performance level of attributes affecting festival visitors' satisfaction. Each stakeholder group responded to 28 attributes with different levels, which are shown on the grid of importance and performance analysis. The survey questionnaire was distributed at the festival venue, a total of 381 useful responses were collected, and the data were presented in the form of graphical IPA grids. Discrepancies were found among the festival stakeholders in terms of their perceptions of the studied attributes. The results of this study, which compared the perceptions of multiple stakeholder groups on attributes affecting festival visitor satisfaction, can provide a festival organiser with insights into areas for change and reorganisation in future festival planning and operation, and by doing so, can help the festival to reach a more competitive position.

Keywords:
Festival stakeholders, Attributes affecting festival visitor satisfaction, IPA (Importance-Performance Analysis)
INTRODUCTION

The festival and special event industry has grown rapidly in Korea over the past 15 years, particularly after the self-governance system of local governments was initiated in 1992. With the tremendous growth in the number of local festivals, the Korean government developed an approach of multi-source assessment to classify local festivals in order to make judgments regarding financial and promotional support. In their assessment method, festival visitor satisfaction has been positioned as the most highly-weighted source of evaluation. However, studies within the event and festival industry have focused mainly on the relationship of motivation, satisfaction and behavioural intention from a marketing perspective (Baker, & Crompton, 2000; Cole & Illum, 2006; Lee, Petrick & Crompton, 2007; Lee & Beeler, 2007; Yuan & Jang, 2008). However, the festival and special event industry differs from many other industries in that it is not sufficient to meet the needs of the audience alone. Festivals and special events must also embrace a plethora of other requirements, including government objectives and regulations, media requirements, sponsor needs and community expectations (Allen et al., 2008). The event experience is always at least partially dependent on the expectations and attitudes of those involved, and on one’s willingness to enter into the spirit of the occasion. In addition, different stakeholders will be directly or indirectly affected, depending on their roles (Getz, 2007). Therefore, to sustain a successful festival, the different expectations of the various stakeholders should be properly perceived by the event manager. Considering this, it will benefit the festival organiser to understand and minimise the gaps among stakeholders in the perception of the provided service attribute levels to enhance festival visitor satisfaction.

This study investigates the gaps in the perception among festival stakeholders (festival organiser, visitor and host community residents) on the attributes affecting festival visitor satisfaction, and compares their perceived levels of importance and performance by applying Importance-Performance Analysis (IPA). In the field of tourism, hospitality and event management, numerous practitioners and researchers have applied importance–performance analysis to identify the performance factors critical to visitor satisfaction, in order to facilitate the setting of priorities for improvement and resource allocation (Bruyere, Rodriguez, and Vaske, 2002; Tarrant and Smith, 2002; Baloglu and Love, 2003; Janes and Wisnom, 2003; Hunt, Scott, and Richardson, 2003; Wade and Eagles, 2003; Hendricks, Schneider, and Budruk, 2004; Kaczynski and Crompton, 2004; Lee and Lee, 2005; Breiter and Milman, 2006;
Scholl, Glanz, and Davison, 2006; Farnum and Hall, 2007; Tonge and Moore, 2007; Leong, 2008; Smith and Costello, 2009). The purpose of this study is to evaluate and compare the perceptions of importance-performance held by festival stakeholders on the attributes affecting visitor satisfaction. By applying the findings of this study, festival and event managers may appropriately balance their resources in order to maximise the level of festival visitor satisfaction. Thus, the findings of this study will benefit, for their detailed planning, the festival organisers and host community who aim to host a successful festival by attracting repeat visitors.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

**Festival Stakeholders**

Since Freeman (1984) conceptualised the theory of the stakeholder, his definition of “any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organization’s objectives” has been widely cited. In the ongoing dialogue on the current state and future of stakeholder thinking (Agle, Donaldson, Freeman, Jensen, Mitchell & Wood, 2008), stakeholder theory has been focused on the stakeholder attributes of power, legitimacy and urgency (Agle, Mitchell & Sonnenfeld, 1999; Mitchell, Agle & Wood, 1997). Stakeholder theory helps to explain the origins, operation and evolution of events, and provides direction to owners and managers for the management of their internal and external stakeholder relationships (Getz, 2007). For successful festivals, the importance of the role of key stakeholders has been gradually highlighted (Andersson & Getz, 2008; Getz, Andersson & Larson, 2007; Spiropoulos, Gargalianos & Sotiriadou, 2006; Mossberg & Getz, 2006). Thus, the successful event manager must be able to identify the range of stakeholders for an event, and manage their individual needs, which will sometimes overlap and conflict (Allen, O’Toole, Harris & McDonnell, 2008).

Getz (1997) defined stakeholders as “those people and groups with a stake in the event and its outcomes, including all groups participating in the event production, sponsors and grant-givers, community representatives, and anyone impacted by the event”, while Allen et al. (2008) described “people and organizations with a legitimate interest in the outcomes of an event”. Getz, Andersson & Larson (2007) identified the major stakeholder types and roles in festival networks, classifying stakeholders as the festival organisation, facilitators, suppliers and venues, the audience and those affected by the festival, regulators, allies and collaborators and co-
producers. Allen et al. (2008) described the relationship among the event stakeholders of host organisation, host community, sponsors, media, co-workers, participants and spectators. Spiropoulos et al. (2006), in their case study of Sydney’s Greek Festival, categorised stakeholders according to their functional role, into the fields of marketing, production and administration. By employing the classification of Allen et al. (2008) and Spiropoulos et al. (2006), the major festival stakeholder types in this study were extracted as host organisation, visitors and host community, and those stakeholder groups were surveyed to compare their perception on the importance and performance of attributes affecting festival visitor satisfaction.

Attributes Affecting Festival Visitor Satisfaction

Recently, festival visitor satisfaction has been researched for its crucial role between quality and behavioural intention (Cole & Illum, 2006; Lee, Petrick & Crompton, 2007; Baker & Crompton, 2000; Yuan and Jang, 2008; Lee and Beeler, 2007). Through a study of previous literature and discussions with event organisers, Cole and Illum (2006) developed 17 items of performance quality in the three dimensions of activities, amenities and entertainment, and 19 items of experience quality in the three dimensions of history appreciation, socialisation and enjoyment, arriving at a total of 36 quality items affecting festival visitor satisfaction. Lee et al. (2007) measured a total of 10 items as perceived attributes for festival service quality, with four dimensions of generic features, specific entertainment features, information sources and comfort amenities. These dimensions were also observed by Baker and Crompton (2000), who confirmed that on the whole, the perceived performance quality has a stronger effect than satisfaction on behavioural intentions. To measure the manner in which the quality of a wine festival affected visitor behavioural intentions, Yuan and Jang (2008) developed a total of 11 items with the three factors of facilities, wine and organisation, while Lee and Beeler (2007) used 15 items in the three dimensions of general features, specific features and comfort amenities to measure service quality characteristics affecting festival visitor satisfaction and future intention. Accordingly, by referring to previous studies, the most common factors affecting festival visitor satisfaction have been included in this research, which are general features, specific features, entertainment, comfort amenities, information and related activities.
Importance-Performance Analysis

Importance-performance analysis (IPA) has been used extensively by researchers in various disciplines because of its applicability to diverse marketing areas, such as defining target customers, implementing market segmentation, and creating promotion strategies (Baloglu & Love, 2003). Over the past three decades, IPA has been used to evaluate a variety of hospitality-related experiences. IPA has been used in recreation, tourism, and hospitality settings (Janes & Wisnom, 2003). Qu & Sit (2007) employed IPA to measure hotel service quality and customer satisfaction in Hong Kong, Chu & Choi (2000) compared the perceived importance and performance of hotel selection factors among business and leisure travellers, while Kim & Oh (2002) applied an extended IPA framework to measure the attributes of restaurants. Tarrant and Smith (2002) explored a modified importance-performance framework to evaluate visitor satisfaction with the attributes of outdoor recreation settings, and Tonge & Moore (2007) modified two methods of importance performance analysis to determine the service quality gap, which they applied in the hinterland of Swan Estuary Marine Park in Western Australia. Scholl, Glanz & Davison (2006) employed 20 inclusion service attributes for IPA to analyse supportive recreation inclusion services. In the area of Leisure, Parks and Recreation, IPA has also been widely used along with segmentation and positioning (Kaczynski & Crompton, 2004; Bruyere, Rodriguez & Vaske, 2002; Farnum & Hall, 2007; Hendricks, Schneider & Buduruk, 2004; Hunt, Scott & Richardson, 2003; Wade & Eagles, 2003).

In the tourism and travel research area, IPA has been frequently utilised to reveal the customer’s perceived level of performance in relation to their satisfaction (Smith & Costello, 2009; Deng, 2007; Hudson, Hudson & Miller, 2004; Leong, 2008; Zhang & Chow, 2004; Tam & Lam, 2004). Not surprisingly, IPA has also been used in the area of event and convention tourism. The use of importance-performance analysis has become a common practice among convention researchers, because it provides a visual representation of which convention attributes are important, the relative importance of each attribute, and how well the convention destinations performed in terms of each attribute (Lee & Back, 2005). Choi and Boger (2000) extended their research efforts to State Association meeting planners, and evaluated their satisfaction through the attributes importance-performance analysis. Baloglu & Love (2003) examined the manner in which a region meets the preferences of association meeting planners as a convention city by applying IPA. Lee & Lee (2005) explored association members’ perceived importance and performance of convention destination attributes.
Breiter & Milman (2006) measured facility features and facility services of a large convention center by employing IPA. Unfortunately, however, all of these studies were focused on the meeting industry and convention tourism, rather than on festivals.

**METHODOLOGY**

**Instrument Development**

The attributes affecting festival visitor satisfaction were identified primarily based on previous research (Cole & Illum, 2006; Lee, Petrick & Crompton, 2007; Baker & Crompton, 2000; Yuan and Jang, 2008; Lee and Beeler, 2007), and were also collaterally extracted from the criteria of the government assessment system that is applied to festivals. Since 1999, the Korean government has conducted a multi-source assessment system to classify local festivals in order to make decisions regarding their financial and promotional support to the host communities. MCST (Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism) operates assessment teams for each major festival to obtain the level of visitor satisfaction and impact, and this information is reflected in the judgment of festival class on an annual basis. MCST has derived 18 items that influence the satisfaction of festival visitors, including the domains of the festival program, accessibility, information and guidance, comfort amenities, food and souvenirs (MCST, 2005).

The questionnaire that was used for this research consists of two sections. The first section was designed to gather data about the demographic characteristics of respondents, such as age, sex, education level and occupation. The second section measured the respondents’ perceived importance and performance of attributes affecting festival visitor satisfaction. A total of 28 items were identified in the six dimensions of festival program, accessibility, information and guidance, comfort amenities, food and beverages and local craft products and souvenirs, based on the relevant literature and MCST assessment attributes. Respondents were asked to rate the importance of each attribute using a five-point Likert scale that ranged from 1 “Very unimportant” to 5 “Very important.” Respondents were also asked to indicate the level of perceived performance of the same attributes by using a five-point Likert scale, on which 1 was “Very dissatisfied” and 5 was “Very satisfied.”
Data Collection

The survey was conducted in the fall of 2008 during a five-day special event, The 15th Gwangju Kimchi Festival, which is held annually in the southwest of Korea. Over 400,000 people visit this event every year to experience the unique attributes of Kimchi, the traditional Korean food. The festival includes recipe demonstration programs, exhibitions, experiential programs, music and other live entertainment, and cooking competitions (Gwangju Metropolitan City, 2008). As this research was focused on a comparison of the perceptions held by different stakeholder groups on the attributes affecting festival visitor satisfaction, the target population was composed of the three stakeholder groups, being the host organisation (including co-workers and volunteers directly involved in festival operation), festival visitors from remote areas, and host community residents. Questionnaires were handed out at rest areas and at the festival exit. Respondents were approached by survey interviewers, who were college students majoring in event management who had been trained in advance, who invited them to complete the questionnaire on site. The college students were instructed to approach respondents representing different ages, to approach both males and females, and in particular to approach different stakeholders including members of the festival organisation, festival visitors and host community residents. Interviewers collected 39 responses from the host organisation, including responses from managers and operation staff, 260 responses from festival visitors, and 97 responses from host community residents. In total, 396 questionnaires were completed by respondents from all stakeholder groups. After eliminating 15 unusable responses, including 12 from the festival visitor group and 3 from the host community group, a total of 381 responses were deemed useful for data analysis.

Data Analysis

Data analysis in this study took place in two stages. First, descriptive statistics were used to compare the mean values of the perceptions of three different festival stakeholders on the 28 attributes affecting festival visitor satisfaction. Secondly, importance-performance analysis (IPA) was employed to compare the perceived importance and performance level among the various festival stakeholders. Importance and performance means were calculated and plotted on a four-quadrant grid, to depict which areas festival organisers should improve to maximise festival visitor satisfaction, and which areas can be ignored.
The upper left quadrant (Concentrate here) has both a high importance level and a low performance level, i.e. below average. As it has the most meaningful implication for satisfaction, the attributes in this quadrant require the most attention. The upper right quadrant (Keep up the good work) is filled with attributes that have both high importance and high performance, as perceived by each of the stakeholders. Accordingly, festival organisers need to ensure that these attributes remain in this quadrant. The lower left quadrant (Low priority) shows the attributes to which each stakeholder gave low marks, both for importance and performance level. In this quadrant, the festival organiser may make improvements, but should not put forth an excessive amount of effort to do so. The lower right quadrant (Possible overkill) illustrates attributes that received both low importance and high performance ratings. The resources allocated for this quadrant may need to be shifted to the “Concentrate Here” quadrant to improve visitor satisfaction.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Descriptive Profile of Respondents

Demographically, the typical festival visitor and local resident attending this regional food festival was a married female, 30 to 49 years old, with a college education. Table 1 shows the descriptive profile of respondents. Of 248 respondents of festival visitors, females accounted for 54%. Specifically, among the respondents from the host community, 70% were females.

This reflects the fact that females are more interested in the surveyed festival. On the other hand, respondents from the host organisation were almost equally split between males (49%) and females (51%). Age distribution illustrates that more than 86% (N=328) of the respondents were less than 49 years of age, while most of the respondents had achieved a college degree (57.5%).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Host Organisation (%)</th>
<th>Festival Visitors (%)</th>
<th>Host Community (%)</th>
<th>Cumulative (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>19(49)</td>
<td>113(46)</td>
<td>28(30)</td>
<td>160(42)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>20(51)</td>
<td>135(54)</td>
<td>66(70)</td>
<td>221(58)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>39(100)</td>
<td>248(100)</td>
<td>94(100)</td>
<td>381(100)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Stakeholder Groups’ Importance-Performance

A descriptive comparison of the importance-performance mean values of 28 attributes among festival stakeholders is presented in Table 2. Despite the highly-perceived importance of the cleanliness of the venue and facilities, the performance levels for this attribute are relatively lower than for others, resulting in bigger gaps (items 16, 18, 19, 20) of importance and performance. This was shown particularly in the host organisation and festival visitors groups. On the other hand, host community residents perceived the biggest gap in terms of food-related attributes (items 23, 24, 25) such as price, authenticity and diversity.

### Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attributes Affecting Festival Visitor Satisfaction</th>
<th>Overall</th>
<th>Host Organisation</th>
<th>Festival Visitor</th>
<th>Host Community</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>I-P</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Program diversity</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>3.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Entertainment &amp; fun</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>4.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Performance programs</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>3.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Experiential programs</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>4.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Exhibitions &amp; demonstrations</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>4.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Experience of culture &amp; tradition</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Local tourist attractions</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>3.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Accessibility</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>3.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Guidance system to venue</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>3.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Internet information</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>3.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Knowledge of staff</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>3.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Kindness of staff</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>4.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Adequate number of staff</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Information signage &amp; facilities</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>4.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Information brochures</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Venue size &amp; spaciousness</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>4.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Facility arrangement</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>3.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The importance and performance central tendency scores were then plotted on a two-dimensional, four-quadrant grid. In Figures 1, 2, 3 and 4, crosshairs were respectively positioned in accordance with the analysed result of each stakeholder group around the grand mean of importance and performance scores. As suggested in previous research (Choi and Boger, 2002; Baloglu and Love, 2003; Lee and Lee, 2005; Scholl, Glanz, and Davison, 2006), each of the four quadrants was conceptually labelled as “Keep up the good work,” “Possible overkill,” “Low priority,” and “Concentrate here,” respectively. The components of the results were then positioned into one of the four quadrants.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.06 3.34 0.72 4.10 3.38 0.72 4.09 3.35 0.74 3.95 3.31 0.64</td>
<td>4.09 3.38 0.71 4.33 3.10 1.23 4.10 3.43 0.67 3.98 3.27 0.71</td>
<td>4.19 3.35 0.84 4.62 3.28 1.34 4.18 3.40 0.78 4.05 3.24 0.81</td>
<td>4.00 3.50 0.50 3.95 3.46 0.49 4.03 3.56 0.47 3.93 3.35 0.58</td>
<td>3.98 3.19 0.79 4.03 3.26 0.77 4.00 3.23 0.77 4.35 2.74 1.61</td>
<td>3.94 3.35 0.59 3.92 3.44 0.48 3.94 3.42 0.52 4.06 2.91 1.15</td>
<td>4.00 3.29 0.71 4.13 3.54 0.59 4.02 3.33 0.69 4.14 3.04 1.10</td>
<td>3.76 3.31 0.45 3.90 3.13 0.77 3.72 3.37 0.35 4.19 3.16 1.03</td>
<td>3.69 3.30 0.39 3.72 3.15 0.57 3.69 3.34 0.35 3.67 3.24 0.43</td>
<td>3.79 3.23 0.56 4.00 2.97 1.03 3.77 3.30 0.47 3.94 2.90 1.04</td>
<td>3.76 3.32 0.44 3.87 3.18 0.69 3.77 3.36 0.41 4.04 3.26 0.78</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As shown in Figures 1, 2, 3 and 4, most of the attributes are placed in the upper right and lower left quadrant. In the upper right quadrant *(Keep up the good work)*, among each different set of a total of 16 attributes given by respondent groups, the experiential programs and the kindness of staff were repeatedly included by all stakeholders, which were valued as high importance and high performance. The findings indicate that these attributes were perceived as very important by each stakeholder, and that the festival organiser performed relatively well in these areas. Thus, the festival organiser should keep up the good work with the necessary resources in these categories. In the lower left quadrant *(Low priority)*, the overlapped attributes perceived by all stakeholders were local tourist attractions, quality and diversity of local products and souvenirs among each different set of the 16 total attributes, which deserve the least attention from the festival organiser. For festival stakeholders, attributes in this quadrant were a matter of least importance. Performance perception for these attributes was not positive, either. Therefore, the festival organiser can safely ignore this aspect. As shown in the lower right quadrant *(Possible overkill)*, the surveyed festival received high performance ratings with low importance perception from stakeholders for various attributes. The results indicate that these attributes outperformed their importance, and therefore, the festival
resources that are committed to these attributes could perhaps be more effectively allocated elsewhere.

On the other hand, the most meaningful quadrant for the festival organiser seeking to improve the level of visitor satisfaction, which is the upper left (Concentrate Here) quadrant, is filled with a range of attributes according to the stakeholder type. This result shows meaningful differences to festival organiser for their future planning and operation of the festival.

Table 3
Attributes perceived by each stakeholder group for the “Concentrate Here” quadrant

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Host organization</th>
<th>Festival visitors</th>
<th>Host Community</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>22. Price of food</td>
<td>22. Price of food</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. Price of local products/souvenirs</td>
<td>24. Food diversity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To examine the most significant implication for the improvement of the festival, Table 3 highlighted the perceived differences between stakeholders in terms of the attributes bracketed in the upper left quadrant. As shown in the upper left quadrant of Figure 2, the host organisation perceived five attributes (venue size and spaciousness, rest area and facilities, bathroom cleanliness, price of food, price of local product and souvenirs) as being of relatively high importance and having low performance. Regardless of the host organisation’s perception, as presented in Figure 3, festival visitors significantly indicated the five attributes of entertainment and fun, guidance system to venue, parking facilities, price of food and food diversity. The result showed that host community residents have a similar perception of high importance with low performance for the 3 attributes of price of food, authenticity of local food and food diversity, as presented in Figure 4, showing a similar perception to that of festival visitors for the price and diversity of food. This result indicates significant perception discrepancies among festival stakeholders in the “Concentrate here” quadrant, particularly in the comparatively isolated composition of the host organisation from other stakeholder groups. This indicates that it is imperative for the host organisation to understand the perceptions of festival visitors and host community residents in order to enhance their satisfaction level. In addition, as the
surveyed festival was a food-related event that is widely known throughout the country, the meaningful perception of festival visitors and host community residents on food-related attributes, such as price and diversity of food, may generate continuous dissatisfaction. However, there were more attributes overall in the “Keep up the good work” and “Low priority” quadrants, which may imply that the festival was positively perceived as an event worth visiting by the stakeholder groups.

CONCLUSION

This study investigates the differences in the perception level of festival stakeholders regarding attributes affecting festival visitor satisfaction. To achieve the goal of this study, 28 pertinent attributes affecting festival visitor satisfaction were identified, and the importance-performance framework was employed to compare perceptions among the stakeholder groups.

Discrepancies were found among the various festival stakeholders in terms of their perceptions of the importance and performance of attributes affecting festival visitor satisfaction. In particular, in the upper left quadrant, the host organisation responded with a comparatively isolated list of attributes, most of which were not shared by either of the other groups. Therefore, it is imperative for a host organisation to regularly gauge the perceptions of other stakeholders in order to enhance the festival visitor satisfaction level. If the attributes in the “Concentrate here” quadrant accurately reflect the current festival situation, the festival organiser needs to make it a priority to improve the performance of the attributes identified by both the festival visitors and host community residents in this quadrant, such as price and diversity of food.

The results of this study, which compared the perceptions of multiple stakeholder groups on attributes affecting festival visitor satisfaction, can provide a festival organiser with insights into areas for change and reorganisation in future festival planning and operation, and by doing so, can help the festival to reach a more competitive position. Although the results of this study provide valuable insights into the improvement of festival visitor’s satisfaction and marketing strategies for the festival organiser, the study has a number of limitations, which include: (a) the findings pertained to a single food festival only, which leads to a lack of generalisation to the total population; (b) the number of responses gathered from host organisation was low, and thus a larger sample size is required for results that are
more representative of the population.

REFERENCES


THEATRICAL EVENTS:
MEGAMUSICALS IN THE CULTURAL TOURISM LANDSCAPE

Elspeth A. Frew
La Trobe University

Abstract

Musicals such as *Cats*, *Les Misérables*, *Miss Saigon* and *Phantom of the Opera* have been named ‘megamusicals’ because of their spectacular sets, special effects, long running nature and subsequent potential for huge profits. Producing musicals is now a global business with composers, directors, and producers designing megamusicals as franchise operations which can simultaneously run for years in major cities around the world. Megamusicals are very popular with tourists and, because they provide an exciting addition to any destination’s portfolio of cultural tourism attractions, they are generally welcomed by the host city. However, megamusicals have been criticised because the franchised shows have become commodified to mirror the original Broadway and West End shows, with little adaptation to the local environment. In addition, because megamusicals often have very long runs, less expensive and less spectacular shows cannot compete, leading to less arts diversity in a local region. The paper discusses the correlation between arts, events and tourism in the context of commoditisation, authenticity and cultural tourism.

Keywords

Megamusicals; theatre; performing arts; tourism; events

INTRODUCTION

Getz (2008) notes that events which encompass aspects of arts and entertainment (such as concerts and theatrical productions) are often subsumed in the literature on cultural tourism (see, for example, McKercher & du Cros, 2002; Richards, 2007) and suggests there will always be tension between arts and tourism, particularly because tourism is seen as an agent of change, such as giving rise to ‘declining cultural authenticity’. Several authors have considered aspects of commoditisation and authenticity in tourism (see, for example, Cohen, 1998; Richards, 2007; Taylor, 2001; Wang, 1999). Cohen (1998) suggests that commoditisation does not necessarily destroy the meaning of cultural products, although it may change it or add new meanings to old ones. Cole (2007) suggests that a common view in the literature is that tourism turns culture such as crafts, performance, photography, hospitality, and identity into a commodity, which is packaged and sold to tourists, resulting in a loss of authenticity. This paper examines the relationship between events, arts and tourism by considering the phenomenon of megamusicals, the commodification of these Broadway and West End shows, and their positive and negative impacts on the local cultural tourism landscape.
LITERATURE REVIEW

The relationship between tourism and the arts has been examined by a range of authors (see, for example, Gilbert & Lizotte, 1998; Hughes, 2000; Tighe, 1986; Zeppel & Hall, 1991) and they considered whether tourism and the performing arts form a supportive or destructive relationship. The relationship between arts and tourism has also been considered through the examination of arts festivals in particular. Quinn (2005) found that arts festivals contribute substantially to the local economy because of increased visitation to the city and surrounds during the period of the festival with the added potential for the animation of communities and improvement of quality of life. In addition, the existence of such arts festivals helps to increase revenue flows and increased arts activity in the region, with associated improved venue infrastructure (Quinn, 2006). However, some cities such as Glasgow, Sydney and Barcelona have failed to reach their full potential to aid urban regeneration through arts festivals (Garcia, 2004). Other researchers have considered various aspects of arts festivals such as who attends such events by considering visitor behavioural attributes (Saayman & Saayman, 2006), while other authors found there are a range of motivations of local residents to attend a national arts festival (Van Zyl & Botha 2003). Waterman (1998) suggests one of the benefits of annual arts festivals is that they transform places from being everyday settings into temporary environments that contribute to the production, processing and consumption of culture, concentrated in time and place. However, he suggests that tourism organisations tend to transform arts and culture into arts and culture ‘industries’ to promote the destination and this encourages ‘safe’ art forms. Thus, on the one hand, arts festivals and arts events are mostly beneficial for the host destination, but on the other hand, art forms which appeal to tourists are often regarded as being mainstream and lacking creativity.

A handful of authors (see, for example, Bennet, 2005; Hughes, 1989, 1998; Mitchell, 1993) have examined the relationship between various aspects of the theatre and tourism. Bennett (2005) considered the link between the commercial theatre and tourism by using the illustrative examples of Las Vegas and New York to demonstrate the close symbiotic relationship between the two entities. She argued that the presence of a flourishing theatre district contributes to a city’s cultural capital and creates a positive economic impact that spreads beyond the box office to encompass other activities such as pre- and post-theatre dining and drinking, taxis and retail outlets. Similarly, Hughes (1998) considered the relationship between tourism and theatre in London and found that theatre appears to be a significant factor in the choice of the city as a tourist destination. However, he also found that tourism has had an unfavourable effect on theatre due to the dominance of musicals in London’s West End and, due to the concentrated ownership and production of these shows. He suggested this may inhibit the stimulation and survival of a more diverse, adventurous and innovative theatrical scene.

Tourism and theatre can be conceptually linked with tourism entertainment whereby the entertainment is provided predominantly for tourists, which holds their attention in a social context and includes populist forms of entertainment (Pearce, 2008). For tourism entertainment to exist, Pearce (2008) suggests there must be: managers and producers of the entertainment; performers or a performance constituting the entertainment; and the
audiences are largely comprised of tourists who have usually paid for the privilege of
being the spectators. Thus, various theatrical events such as musicals fulfill these aspects
of tourism entertainment, particularly when tourists have fun and enjoyment at the event;
where the passive filling of time through entertainment is a sufficient and valid reason to
travel; and, where entertainment can generate “deep feelings of group identity, offer
challenges to the mentally alert, and help brand and define destinations” (Pearce, 2008,
p.129). A theatrical show such as a musical is an example of tourism entertainment, as it
offers the audience member a luxury or discretionary product and provides “an indulgent
act that provides fun and creates fantasies and enjoyment” where the consumption
experience is an end in itself (Reddy et al., 1998, p.371). Since the theatre is an
experiential good (one that people choose and use solely for the experience of pleasure)
and, may be typically limited to one (or few) experiences, potential audiences may seek
to minimise risk by obtaining information from external sources before attendance.
Critics therefore provide information via their theatrical reviews on such aspects as
information about the cast, the plot and the genre of the show. If the critic is viewed as
unbiased, his or her opinions can be persuasive (Simonoff & Ma, 2003). Reddy et al
(1998) provide a conceptual framework of the key factors that influence the success of a
theatrical production namely, (1) information sources (critics’ reviews, previews and
advertising) and (2) objective characteristics (ticket prices, show type, talent
characteristics, and timing of opening). However, the success of a theatrical show may
also be linked to its ability to be a spectacle. The concept of the “society of the spectacle”
developed by French theorist Guy Debord (1967), describes a media and consumer
society organised around the production and consumption of images, commodities, and
staged events. Kellner (2003) notes that theatre is a fertile field of the spectacle, with the
contemporary stage exploiting society’s interest in the spectacle by creating attractive
theatre for large audiences. Hughes (1998) suggested that the dominance by musicals in
society is an example of audiences demonstrating their desire for symbol and spectacle
whether at home or on holiday.

Event tourism studies and related research are still in the early stage of development and
there is great scope for theoretical advances (Getz, 2008), so this paper considers one
particular aspect of the relationship between events, the arts and tourism, namely the
phenomenon of the megamusical, and explores the positive and negative contribution of
megamusicals to the cultural tourism landscape. In particular, the paper attempts to
answer a question recently posed by Getz (2008, p.420) namely, “Under what
circumstances are events commodified and authenticity lost, versus traditions renewed
and culture revitalised?” To attempt to answer this question, reference is made to a range
of secondary sources which deal with aspects of the megamusical.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The Megamusical

A musical is described by Kenrick (2008, p.14) as a:

“stage, television or film production utilizing popular style songs to either tell
a story or to showcase the talents of writers and/or performers, with dialogue
optional…[and the]…blend of song, dance and the visual arts entertains, evoking an intellectual as well as an emotional response…[and it] must tell a compelling story in a compelling way”.

An extension of the musical is the phenomenon known as the ‘megamusical’ which became established in the 1980s and continues to play a role in contemporary musical theatre. Megamusicals are described as “through-composed popular operas” (whereby all the dialogue is sung with music accompanying all aspects of the show) or “poperas” where “set design, choreography and special effects are at least as important as the music” (Prece & Everett, 2008, p.250). Other terms used to describe megamusicals are “spectacle show”, “blockbuster musical”, “extravaganza” (Sternfeld, 2006, p.3) and “visually spectacular, quasi-operatic musical theatre productions” (Rebellato, 2006, p.98), with lavish sets and a strong emphasis on choreography and other visual elements (Prece & Everett, 2008). Many of these megamusicals have run for years, even decades in New York on Broadway, in the West End of London, and in many major cities around the world. These megamusicals draw mass audiences and have become “veritable institutions on Broadway” (Sternfeld, 2006, p.3). Burston (1998) suggests that megamusicals share a number of essential criteria which set them apart from other music theatre productions, namely:

- markets characterised by rapid global expansion and marked internal growth since 1980;
- produced and controlled by a select and specific group of highly capitalised, globally competent and now often transnational players, e.g., Disney, Andrew Lloyd Weber, Cameron Mackintosh; and,
- reflect the cultivation of specific commercial, technical, and aesthetic models of production.

Thus, musicals such as *Cats, Les Misérables, Miss Saigon* and *Phantom of the Opera* are examples of megamusicals because of their spectacular sets, special effects, long running nature and subsequent potential for huge profits.

### Popularity and success of megamusicals

The plots of megamusicals are big in scope with “epic, sweeping tales of romance, war, religion, redemption, life and death, or some combination of these and other lofty sentiments” (Sternfeld, 2006, p.2). Although the story is often set in the distant past, broad, universal issues such as loyalty and true love are addressed so that audiences in any culture can relate to these concepts, more so than the setting of the story (Sternfeld, 2006, p.2). Thus, the themes of the megamusicals tend to relate to aspects of the human condition, from the power of forgiveness in *Les Miserables*; the personal consequences of war in *Miss Saigon*; a hope for a future free from oppression in *Les Miserables*; and, unrequited and inaccessible love in *Phantom of the Opera* (Prece & Everett, 2008). Thus, megamusicals are often “overtly romantic and sentimental in nature, meant to create strong emotional reactions from the audience where stories of human suffering and redemption merge with matters of social consciousness” (Prece & Everett, 2008, p.250). As a result, emotions run high and “the tears tend to flow both onstage and in the
audience” (Sternfeld, 2006, p.2). On the other hand, some critics believe that the reason megamusicals are incredibly successful is because they have very little plot, and focus instead on spectacle, to suit “dimwitted audiences” (Sternfeld, 2006, p.2). Thus, with limited plots, the visual appeal and the impressive music and dance, megamusicals are accessible to the more casual theatre-goer, and to international audiences, particularly because they require “little or no accumulated cultural capital for them to be enjoyed” (Hughes, 1998, p.449).

Since the music carries the story in the megamusical, this eases potential language barriers for international audiences, even when the lyrics are translated into the local language (Sternfeld, 2006). Frost (2008) notes that music may exert a more powerful emotional influence than other popular culture such as film, as the music can be heard many times via the radio and compact disc. The music featured in megamusicals, either a song or the entire score, is often well known before the audience attends the theatre as it has been previously been made available in recorded form before being heard on stage. The amplification used during the performance helps to enhance the live experience and also “to more exactly replicate the recording” (Rebellato, 2006, p.100). When a song from a megamusical becomes a hit before the show has even premiered, the aura of ‘hit’ surrounds the show in general (Sternfeld, 2006) which helps ensure the show is a success.

The marketing that accompanies megamusicals makes the shows relatively easy to sell due to their clever use of recognisable logos and theme songs and, the care taken to ensure that they resemble their Broadway or West End incarnation as closely as possible (Sternfeld, 2006). For example, the recognisable images representing particular megamusicals are: for Cats, the two yellow cats’ eyes on a black background; for Phantom of the Opera, a plain white mask and a red rose on a black background; and, for Les Misérables, a sad-faced waif in a beret, each of which are associated with vast amounts of merchandising such as t-shirts, posters and coffee mugs (Sternfeld, 2006). Sternfeld (2006, p.4) describes the megamusicals, especially in the 1980s, as “cultural events marketed with unprecedented force” which are sold like any other product with a logo, theme songs, and advertisements saturating newspapers, radio and television. By the time each new megamusical opened in the 1980s and 1990s the massive advance ticket sales testified to the effectiveness of the intense pre-opening marketing campaigns. For example, the Phantom’s white mask became as familiar to audiences as any other corporate logo (Kendrick, 2008) and helped encourage over 80 million people to attend the show in 124 cities, earning over $US5 billion in box office takings (Leitch, 2008).

The audience for the megamusicals

Even in a city the size of London, local audiences cannot sustain the marathon runs of megamusicals such as The Phantom of the Opera and Les Miserables (Bennett, 2005) so thousands of tourists are needed to visit the host city each week to fill the theatres. In the 1980s, roughly 60 percent of spectators for Broadway shows came from the New York metropolitan area, but by 2000, around 56 percent of the audience came from elsewhere, and the total theatre-going population had increased by nearly two million people in 20 years. By 2005, the League of American Theaters and Producers found that a typical
Broadway audience consisted of: Tourists: 60%, Suburbanites: 22.9%; and, New Yorkers: 16.7% (Kendrick, 2008). During the 2000-2001 seasons, theatre in the Times Square area generated about $4.4 billion for the city’s economy, including production costs, theatre expenses and estimated visitor spending, reflecting a new and expanding niche of audience members (Zarelli et al, 2006). Following the attack on the World Trade Center on September 11th 2001, tourism to New York took a sharp plunge for several months and ticket sales to Broadway shows dropped, providing a strong reminder of how heavily Broadway relies on the tourist dollar. From a production company's perspective, the tourist audience is an attractive one as the market renews itself every few days or weeks, which is an ideal scenario for large-scale shows such as megamusicals (Hughes, 1998). However, tourists often receive disparaging comments from commentators who characterise the tourist audience as a “singular and undiscriminating entity, marked only by its antithesis to a committed and cultured spectatorship” (Bennett, 2005, p.409). Indeed, Hughes (1998, p.449) suggests that tourists are often described as not being particularly discerning and want little more than a ‘glitzy night out’ (Hughes, 1998, p.449). Kendrick (2008, p.357) goes further and suggests that to enjoy a musical an individual does not need any previous theatre-going experience, or a particular cultural background, “one merely had to show up, just as at any other tourist attraction…[and then] …lie back while the show does all the work”. He suggests that the plots can be followed by someone with a child’s I.Q., as the good characters are always tenors, the bad characters always sing with a harsh edge to their voices, and the attractive melodies are all love songs. Thus, as a result, the language of the audience members is no barrier as all nationalities can follow the on-stage activities.

**Criticism of megamusicals**

Criticism has been levelled at megamusicals and their potential impact on the destination and the local cultural landscape. For example, in 2000 there were five Lloyd Webber musicals playing simultaneously in London, namely *The Beautiful Game*, *Cats*, *Starlight Express*, *The Phantom of the Opera*, and *Whistle Down the Wind*, and these powerful, long running shows had the potential to: overshadow other productions; limit the reputations of the creators of new shows; squeeze out the so-called serious plays; and, restrict the turnover of new plays (Prece & Everett, 2008). Zarelli et al (2006) note that in 2000, a mega-musical in New York cost about $10 million to produce and roughly $400,000 per week to run. With a possible weekly gross of around $800,000, most musicals must play for a year and a half before they break even so there is a need for these megamusicals to be long running to be commercially viable. Similarly, Reddy et al (1998) found that the high production cost of megamusicals, combined with the limited seating capacity of a theatre, suggests that the commercial success of a show depends on the length of the run. However, access to theatres, to finance and to artistic talent becomes restricted for the non-musical and the new play in a city hosting a megamusical. The crowding-out of the non megamusical forms of theatre and new productions reduces the opportunity for theatre-goers to experience ‘plays’, which in turn leads to the musical remaining the dominant form (Prece & Everett, 2008). If other theatre forms and new plays are not available to the public, then the appreciation and understanding of these types of theatre by the local population does not occur and the demand for other theatre
forms gradually disappears (Hughes, 1998). Thus, with the establishment of long running megamusicals in particular cities, the less expensive and less spectacular shows cannot compete (Sternfeld, 2006), resulting in reduced diversity of artistic offerings (Hughes, 1998).

Producing musicals is now a global business undertaken by transnational entertainment corporations, such as Disney, Clear Channel Entertainment and Cameron Mackintosh, Inc. These companies develop the megamusicals to become franchise operations which can then simultaneously run for years in major cities around the world (Zarelli et al., 2006). Under the franchise system, when a megamusical moves to a different location, the new production is acquired with the entire original production: the set, costumes, direction, posters and all associated merchandising. However, the disadvantage of this is that the director of each ‘new’ production has no freedom to reinterpret the production as their role is to remount the original (Rebellato, 2006) and, due to the automated sets and lighting design, if an actor tries to make the part their own they risk injury, or singing in darkness (Burston, 2000). Interestingly, the famous logos used to brand the shows worldwide never feature cast members because actors are difficult to duplicate around the world so “the sets become the stars and the actors are endlessly replaceable” (Rebellato, 2006, p.99). Indeed, the quality control model used by megamusicals replicates technical and artistic production details of the original show to such an extent that it reduces the “interpretative agency of performers to a significant new degree” (Burston, 1998, p. 206). As a result, the creation of these standardised and organised products has lead arts critics to use terms such as ‘cloning’, ‘franchising’, and ‘McTheatre’ to describe the megamusical business (Rebellato, 2006, p.100) whereby such a phenomenon reflects the “transnationalisation of cultural production” (Burston, 1998, p.206) and, where any pretence at cultural value or artistic worth, is crowded out by sheer reverence at the statistical scale involved in producing these megamusicals (Rebellato, 2006). With the production process of the megamusical thus becoming more automated, what began for each franchised show as a “guarantee of quality, ends as guarantee of predictability” (Rebellato, 2006 p.101) with the show becoming a commodity and reflecting capital accumulation.

The megamusicals also demonstrate little adaptation to a local audience. Rebellato (2006, p.102) notes there is an occasional node to the local audience but there is little serious attempt to reinvent the shows to appeal to local taste which demonstrates a “profound disregard, even contempt for space and particularity”. Other commentators have described the global community of the megamusicals as a “cultural monopoly” which commodifies cultures and cultural forms, with Andrew Lloyd-Webber’s production company, the Really Useful Group (which produced the megamusicals Cats, Phantom of the Opera and others), offering a “McDonald’s style uniformity of consumption in musical theatre across cultures and continents” (Daboo, 2005, p.330). Rebellato & Harvie (2006) suggest that the megamusical, with its system of global franchising, is as close as the theatre has reached in becoming a global commodity with a homogenisation of theatrical product and a disregard for local difference.
CONCLUSION

This paper aimed to address the question posed by Getz (2008) namely, in what circumstances are events commodified and authenticity lost, versus traditions renewed and culture revitalised? Based on the discussion above, in the case of megamusicals, when these shows are franchised and are staged around the world, they become commodified, standardised and are not adapted in any way for the local environment. However, the authenticity of the show remains because the franchised show is as near as possible to an “authentic” original Broadway or West End megamusical. By staging long running megamusicals, the arts industries at the local destination may be stifled, so rather than megamusicals revitalising a local area, the dominance of these musicals may inhibit local arts creativity. Thus, from the perspective of the local arts council, supporting the staging of a megamusical can add to the local vitality of their arts offerings, but a balance is needed to allow smaller, less commercial productions to develop as a means of ensuring the long term health of the local performing arts industries.

From a tourism perspective, since megamusicals are “crowd pleasing” and, are designed to create strong emotional reactions from the audience (Prece & Everett, 2008), they are an exciting addition to any destination’s portfolio of cultural tourism attractions, and so are generally welcomed by the host city. Performing arts traditionally generate more psychic than pecuniary income (Vogel, 2007) but successful megamusicals often defy this trend by generating income to the production company and the host city, due to increased tourist visitation from the masses who find the megamusical as “accessible as any other tourist attraction” (Kendrick, 2008, p.378). In addition, the megamusical is arguably the most influential musical genre of the late twentieth century since the pioneering megamusicals of the 1980s created a strong progeny, namely, creating breathtaking effects for theatrical audiences which has now become an expected part of the art of the musical theatre (Prece & Everett, 2008). A secondary benefit of the establishment of the megamusical has been that the quality and duration of theatre jobs in these long running productions has provided sought after security in the insecure theatre business (Bennett, 2005). To further explore Getz’s (2008) question regarding the extent to which events are commodified and authenticity lost versus their potential to renew traditions and revitalise culture, further research should examine the particular cities where one or more franchised megamusicals have been staged as a means of examining in more detail the impact the megamusicals have had on the local cultural tourism landscape. For example, the extent to which the downtown area plays a role in arts attendance from both the local and visitor perspective could be examined and, how the ‘nature’ of the local population influences the popularity of a particular style of musical. Future research could also examine the support provided by the local arts council in balancing the demands of these large, long running shows versus supporting local emerging artists as a means of maintaining and encouraging a cosmopolitan and vibrant local arts culture.
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SPORTING EVENTS, DISTANCE RUNNING AND THE ‘THIRD PLACE’

Richard Shipway
Bournemouth University

Abstract

The experiences of those attending sporting events as active participants remains an area that has received limited scholarly coverage. Existing sports event studies are largely rooted in the positivist tradition, and have been subject to claims of lacking theoretical underpinning and empirical support (Shipway and Jones, 2008a; Shipway and Kirkup, 2009). This paper adds to this limited body of knowledge by exploring the social world of active sports event participants. In the domain of consumer behaviour within the sport and event industries it is argued (cf. Gibson, 2004; Weed, 2005) that it is fundamental to explore the motivations, behaviour patterns and experiences of sporting event participants. In the context of this paper, the experiences of active sports event participants are explored at a selection of international distance running events. Preliminary results suggest that a key aspect of the sports event experience is that the event provides access to a social environment of like-minded people, especially within the event setting. Within these research results, the key emerging theme and direction of this study is to explore the role of sporting events as a ‘third place’ outside of the home and work environment.

Research for this paper was undertaken over a two year period, using a variety of flexible qualitative methods of enquiry, most notably observation, participant observation, and life history interviews. In doing so, the findings seek to provide an insight into the consumer behaviour of one specific market, the distance runner as sport event participant. The aim is to understand the social meanings and activities of people in the sporting event ‘field’. The paper investigates whether the ‘event actors’ (distance runners) involved have different social constructions of outcomes than many positivist studies might predict. Thus there is a need to critically examine much of the existing body of sports event research and set out a challenge to many of the underlying assumptions, through more detailed qualitative methodologies.

Data collection for the events studied usually involved engaging in both semi structured interviews, participant observation and observational studies. Participant observation focused upon physical feelings, thoughts, emotions and emotional recall to try to understand the experience (Ellis and Bochner, 2000). Extensive field notes were taken, and subsequent data were coded, both in terms of open and axial coding (Miles & Huberman, 1994), but also in terms of what Stebbins (2006) refers to as the six ‘W’s’ (who, what, whom, when, where and – most importantly – why). Data were not quantified at any stage, as the intention was to explore the issues of ‘why’, and ‘how’. A qualitative approach was used because qualitative methods are associated with an interpretive view, exploring the way people make sense of their social worlds, and to understand social reality from the point of view of participants engaging in sporting event activity at a series of international distance running events. It was important for this paper to study sports event participants in their natural settings,
attempting to make sense of, or interpret, this phenomenon in terms of the meanings people bring to them (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998:3). This methodological approach leads to a personal, firsthand, enquiry into the lived experience of the sports event participants, and as such represented an interpretive approach, rather than a more scientific or positivist stance.

THE SPORTING EVENT ‘THIRD PLACE’

The ‘Third Place’ was a term introduced by Oldenburg (1989) to describe places where people could meet for social interaction, most notably in the form of conversation, to consolidate or develop a sense of identity, and contribute strongly to social capital and citizenship. They are located away from the first (home) and second (work or school) places. According to Oldenburg (1989), the loss of such third places has been a key factor in changing leisure behaviour away from being socially based, and towards a culture of home centred consumption of TV, video, and the Internet. Although nearly all of the limited literature on 'third places' refers to their apparent decline, this paper investigates the growth in one particular leisure activity, sporting events, and investigates the extent to which the growth in the popularity of sport-related events, and specifically more ‘serious distance running’ (Shipway and Jones, 2008b), could be seen as fulfilling the need for a third place for sporting event participants. The paper also examines how meaning (i.e. identity) is created through engagement within the sports event world.

The contention in this paper therefore is not that third places are necessarily in decline, but rather it is the traditional third places, such as pubs, or cafes that are in decline. It is suggested that sporting events and activities, like distance running, provide alternative third places that reflect the changing demands of modern 21st century society. This paper suggests that the wider social context of the third place would be an important motivation for people embarking on attendance at sporting events. If such sporting events are fulfilling the needs of the third place, then the implications are important both in terms of the wider social benefits that occur from third places in terms of increased social capital and citizenship. It is proposed that sporting event third places are a common meeting ground for people with diverse backgrounds and experiences. Social problems and personal problems can often be left at home or work, which is often the attraction of sporting events, be it as a spectator at a Twenty-20 cricket match or regular physical activity at a private sector health club. Today’s society is highly scheduled and structured, and we often forget that the most enjoyable and memorable moments of our lives are never really planned. For example, the opportunity to observe friends set personal best times at the iconic Athens Classic Marathon in Greece; to complete an overseas Half Marathon such as the recent Gold Coast Marathon held prior to this Conference; or to meet the challenge of ascending ‘Heartbreak Hill’ on the Sydney City to Surf 14km run; all provide unplanned and often enjoyable extraordinary event experiences (Morgan and Watson, 2007).

Linked to the emerging identification of the distance running events setting and the ‘third place’ concept, some sub themes have also emerged. These include the role of the ‘running community’, a sense of community and affiliation with the running
environment, a place to train and prepare for the event, and the importance of running internet chat rooms and forums as a place to immerse oneself in the running environment. As a ‘Third Place’, the running environment is a place to learn new skills as an integral part of developing a ‘running career’ (Shipway and Jones, 2007), a place to embark on group runs with likeminded individuals, and face the challenge of balancing the act of running with the demands and challenges of work and family life. It is argued that for some, participating or even attending running events can also provide a place for ‘escape’ from the often mundane routines of everyday life. Important sub themes of the findings are the important social aspects associated with visits to these ‘Distance Running Third Places’, including fun and happiness, the opportunity to meet people, social status, and group affiliation amongst the running community.

This paper argues that continuous involvement in the distance running event social world (as an active participant) does provide individuals with social experiences and relationships that are increasingly unavailable in today’s modern society. This has a close alignment with another underlying key theme of this emerging working paper, identity and sporting events. Increasingly, experience is pre-planned, scheduled, organised, goal oriented, rationally defended, overly controlled and commercially packaged (Oldenburg and Brissett, 1982). The third place in distance running events (be it on the finish line of the Boston Marathon or the atmosphere in the Olympic Stadium at the finish of the Stockholm Marathon) is often a forum for high intensity and excitement. Too often, we ignore the vital area of human experience, an active involvement in a third place – in this case, it is demonstrated through the active involvement in the social world of the sporting event.

In the context of the ‘active’ sports event participant, additional major linked themes emerged from the data, and are reported in other previous distance running event studies, some of which are mentioned above. These include the strength of identification that participants have with the activity of distance running whilst within a sports event setting, an enthusiasm for participation in running events; the need to train and prepare in advance for running events; the concept of ‘serious sport’, and participants’ desire to embrace a healthy lifestyle as an integral part of their sporting event experience. In summary, this paper examines the role of the sporting event setting as a ‘third place’ outside of the home and work environment, and argues that in order to really understand the experiences and social worlds of active sports event participants, future research needs to be qualitative in nature.

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ENVIRONMENTAL EDUCATION THROUGH A BIG, SPORT, MEDIA EVENT:
THE OLYMPIC GAMES

Constantina Skanavis and Maria Sakellari
University of the Aegean

Abstract

The Olympic Games, a big, sport and media event, recently incorporated environmental operations, venue management and environmental briefing of the spectators and introduced the audience in the environmental debate. The fact that big, sporting events attract by far the largest audiences may further suggest that this particular media event may contribute to citizen’s participation in the environmental decision making process, thus dissemination of environmental information, a critical component of citizen participation, is a fundamental goal of Environmental Education. Future research is important to look more closely at gender differences as they interact with other demographic factors such as age and education level, in order to measure the impact of an environmentally themed, media sport event on the environmental perceptions of the audience.

INTRODUCTION

The 4th International Conference on Environmental Education, held in India, in 2007, calls for new opportunities for participation in sustainability practices through integrated communication between the educators, media, communities, men and women, youth groups and other stakeholders.¹

Events are related to leisure, business, and tourism, target both residents and visitors and event management is been argued to adopt strategies to take into control the environmental impacts (Hall, 1992, King and Jago, 2003). Planned events are spatial–temporal phenomena, and each is unique because of interactions among the setting, people, and management systems (Getz, 2008). If festive viewing is to ordinary viewing what holidays are to everyday life, media events are the high holidays of mass communication (Dayan and Katz, 1992:1). In addition, mass media influence environmental behaviours, attitudes and perceptions of the public (Tsampoukou-Skanavis, 2004). So, a strong indication exists that environmentally themed media events may influence environmental perceptions of the viewers. Dayan and Katz (1992) distinguish three levels of actors concerning media events: organisers, broadcasters, and spectators. Audiences (viewers, spectators) are the actors who receive the transmission, in whose eyes it is an event (Dayan and Katz, 1992).

Live transmissions of sporting events attract by far the largest audiences and they are mainly international contests, e.g., the Olympics, World Cups and European Championships (Raunsbjerg and Sand, 1998).

The Olympics are an example of a big, sport media event that recently adopted an environment-friendly operation. This study will examine the hypothesis of a big, sport, media event as the Olympics, to be a vehicle of enforcement of citizen participation in the environmental decision-making process. In this framework, the role of Environmental Education towards citizen participation and the importance of the dissemination of environmental information through major sport media events, such as the Olympics, will be examined.

ENVIRONMENTAL EDUCATION AND CITIZEN PARTICIPATION

Since the late 1960s and 1970s, the most significant change in Environmental Education (EE) has been an emphasis on citizenship, problem solving, and issues identification. Most EE programs focus on developing programs that will enable citizens to behave in environmentally desirable ways. All these educational attempts focus on promoting responsible citizenship behaviour - arming citizens with the appropriate skills for critical thinking and with the ability to actively participate in the environmental decision-making processes. Since the state of the environment affects our quality of life, environmental education is an essential part of every society’s agenda. Environmental education improves everyday life by protecting human health and encouraging stewardship of natural resources (Tsaboukou – Skanavis, 2004).

The Belgrade Charter and the Tbilisi Declaration resulted from two United Nations conferences held in the 1970s. They established the definition, goals, and objectives for the field of environmental education, which are still widely accepted. "Environmental education is a process aimed at developing a world population that is aware of and concerned about the total environment and its associated problems, and which has the knowledge, attitudes, motivations, commitments, and skills to work individually and collectively toward solutions of current problems and the prevention of new ones" (UNESCO-UNEP, 1976). The 1977 Tbilisi Intergovernmental Conference on EE objectives (awareness, sensitivity, attitude, skills, participation) serves as a major guidance for working on building an environmentally effective human behaviour. By using these objectives an environmentally responsible citizen could be portrayed as one who has 1) an awareness and sensitivity to the total environment and its allied problems and/or issues, 2) a basic understanding of the environment and its allied problems and/or issues, 3) feelings of concern for the environment and motivation for actively participating in environmental improvement and protection, 4) skills for identifying and solving environmental problems and/or issues and 5) active involvement at all levels in working toward resolution of environmental problems and or issues (Hungerford and Volk, 1990).
At the 2002 World Summit on Sustainable Development in Johannesburg, environmental education’s importance is justified due to the Summit’s general agreement on the need for action, which basically is the outcome of successful EE programs (Skanavis and Sarri, 2004). The basic principles of EE mandate that:

a) Environmental education should be a life long process and accessible to people of all age groups and cultural backgrounds. It should be extended well beyond school systems covered by means of non-formal and informal educational procedures.

b) Environmental education has to be interdisciplinary, employing concepts from natural, social, political sciences and economics.

c) Environmental education should be as holistic as possible, emphasising the interdependence of humans and nature.

d) Environmental education should empower students with the necessary tools to critically analyse environmental issues and exercise the right to choose the best-case scenario.

e) Environmental education should invest in the technological based instruction, which allows through simulations from computer based programs, the analysis of environmental conditions, prediction of side effects and understanding of the importance of our active participation in the environmental decision making process.

Environmental educators face the hard task of developing programs that will sufficiently respond to the socio-economic and natural environments of the diverse communities they are called to serve. The environmental programs must relate to the experiences and perceptions of the students who usually come from a variety of ethnic and social backgrounds. The traditional formal academic-oriented school based syllabus does not extend beyond the mere acquisition of cognitive information and EE requires practical skills and active participation in protecting and preserving the environment (Tsaboukou-Skanavis, 2004).

Citizen participation constitutes a fundamental goal of EE. Going back to the international conferences on EE, environmental participation is presented intensely. In 1975, the declaration of the conference on EE, organised in Belgrade, proclaimed that one of the EE objectives is participation (UNESCO-UNEP, 1976). In 1977, the Tbilisi Declaration noted that citizen participation continues to be the main objective of EE providing social groups and citizens with the possibility to participate actively at all levels towards the resolution of environmental problems (UNESCO, 1978). In 1987, in Moscow it was agreed that EE should simultaneously attempt to increase the awareness, transmit information, disseminate knowledge, develop customs and skills, promote values, and provide criteria and directives for decision-making and resolution of environmental problems (UNESCO-UNEP, 1987). In 1992, at the Rio Conference it was formulated that the environmental issues are better resolved with the participation of all interested citizens, in a relative level (UNCED, 1992). In the World Summit of United Nations for Sustainable Development, which was organised in Johannesburg in 2002, it
was characteristically reported that sustainable development requires a wide participation in policy planning, in the decision-making and in their application at all levels (UN, 2002). In 2007 the 4th International Conference on Environmental Education was held in Ahmedabad, India. The conference recommended changes in several areas of thinking and practice, among them to change participation patterns and practices, and also recommend the use of education to empower and encourage people to actively participate in civil society and the development of capacity for democratic participation in earth governance.  

Citizen participation in environmental decision-making is of extreme importance in securing a good quality of life. Local communities know best what alternate solutions should be implemented for appropriate management of their area (Skanavis et al., 2005). Citizen participation is usually defined as the involvement of people, outside the official governmental mechanism, in the decision-making process (Fiorino, 1996, Fulop, 1999, Siouti, 1998, Brohman, 1996, Osler, 1997) with any possible intervention in the processes of decision-making by the Administration, from juridical affairs up to letters of protest, mobilisations of organised groups or the direct action of citizens (Fiorino, 1996). The complexity of environmental problems has elected the process and the methods of citizen participation as important tools for the solution of environmental problems (Beierle, 1999, Monroe et al, 2000). However, although science and available technologies for the solution of environmental problems have presented important progress, citizen participation in the decisions that concern environmental issues is limited (Fiorino, 1996).

According to Beierle (1998, 1999) the outcome of citizen participation is reported in the final main decisions that have been taken and evaluated based on how citizen’s participation has achieved the social goals, which surpass the immediate interests of the groups that are involved in the process of decision-making (Beirle, 1998, 1999, Beirle and Cayford, 1999, 2001, 2002, Davies, 1998). Social goals (Beirle, 1998, 1999) such as education and public information, the incorporation of the values of citizenship in the process of decision-making, the improvement of the essential quality of decisions, the strengthening of confidence in institutions, the alleviation of conflicts, and cost-effectiveness, can lead to the improvement of public programs of participation, support the evaluation of innovative methods, and promote the theoretical comprehension of citizen participation.

The dissemination of information facilitates the collective knowledge; thus the local societies comprehend better controversial issues and are able to resolve the problems that they face (Comfort, 1999). When all the members of a local society are allocated the essential tools and skills so that they can collect the information that they need in order to work towards their preferred change, their role in the decision-making process is strengthened (Chopyak, 2001).

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ENVIRONMENTAL INFORMATION THROUGH TELEVISED EVENTS

Goldblatt (2002) introduces events as planned culture, sport, political, and business occasions: from mega-events like the Olympics and World Fairs to community festivals; from programs of events at parks and attractions to visits by dignitaries and intergovernmental assembles; from small meetings and parties to huge conventions and competitions. Virtual events, communicated through various media, also offer something of interest and value to consumers and the tourism industry; they are different kinds of event experiences (Getz, 2008).

But, the event organisers do not take the social and environmental impact into consideration. Sherwood (2007) specifically examined 85 event economic impact studies prepared in Australia. He found that economic impact assessment was inconsistent but well established, and that social and cultural event impacts were being given more and more attention, but there was still a great need for advancing environmental impact assessment. According to Sherwood, only two published papers by May (1995) and Harris and Huyskens (2002) had dealt explicitly with the environmental impacts of events.

It is argued that there is a clear need to adopt a holistic approach (Raj, 2003). The impacts of events can greatly affect the quality of life of the local residents. Therefore, it has been argued to adopt strategies to take into control the social and environmental impacts of festivals when carrying out an economic impact analysis of each individual event. The event organisers only take into consideration the economic implications and ignore the resident perceptions, which provide important non-economic dimension for gauging how events benefit or impinge on the host community (Hall, 1992). Economic analysis of events provides one aspect of why events are held and the effects that they have on a region. However, while many of the economics impacts of events are quite tangible many of the social impacts are not.

Dayan and Katz (1992) specify the definition of a media event in terms of a series of criteria regarding conditions that must be present in the event itself:

1) A media event is never routine; it breaks the routine and “pre-empts” the ordinary programme tableau. The biggest media events are those which occupy all channels simultaneously.
2) The event is transmitted “live” and takes place in remote locations. The event occurs, furthermore, independent of the media organisation.
3) In contrast to a news event, the media event is planned in advance.

Olympic broadcasts fulfil most of the characteristics of the definition of media events (Puijk, 2000). Real (1989) sees the Olympics as a global ceremony. Basing his views on a study of the Summer and Winter Olympics in 1984 (Real, 1986) he uses the following
metaphor: ‘Olympic media coverage provides a single event in which seemingly everyone in the world can share. The super media Olympics is the international tribal fire around which we gather to celebrate events and values’ (Real, 1989: 240). The Olympics, according to Real (1989), have not only an integrative function, they also provide information about others and make people from different nations work together.

In addition, the growth in media sports has been prodigious (Rowe, 1999, Boyle & Haynes, 2000, 2004, Sage, 2002). Gary Whannel (1992) proposes a triangular model of television genres, the points of which are labelled drama, journalism and light entertainment. Television sport contains elements of all three, and this is the reason why television sport is so popular (Whannel, 1992, Morse, 1983). Raunbjerg and Sand (1998) develop a new conception of television sport in relation to other genres, a distinction in which the definitive criteria are a specific form and aesthetics of production: the live transmission.

Popular televised spectacles generate social capital, bonding people together by offering them the chance of a common televised experience that can be used to generate conversation and ultimately longer-lasting relationships (Fleischer and Felsenstein, 2002). Conversation may involve environmental issues if the televised spectacles include dissemination of environmental information (Skanavis and Sakellari, 2007).

Media events offer a unique opportunity to broadcast social messages to the public. Mass media can influence personal behaviours, attitudes and perceptions, constitute the main source of environmental information and an educational tool of informal Environmental Education (Skanavis and Sakellari, 2008). Mass media influence the environmental perception and actions of the public (CEIA, 2000, Nitz, 2000) and raise the environmental awareness of the audience (Tsampoukou-Skanavis, 2004). Dissemination of environmental information through the mass media can lead to a social change with regards to the environmental awareness, attitude and participation skills of the audience (Skanavis and Sakellari, 2008).

However, no significant research exist that correlates big sport media events, such as the Olympics, environmental issues and environmental education. In general, research in event management, special events and environmental education is limited (Skanavis and Sakellari, 2007).

THE GREEN OLYMPIC GAMES

De Coubertin intended the modern Olympic Games to be on a global scale (Whitson and Macintosh, 1996). Over the years, the games transformed into “the most prominent regular global event of our times” (Whannel, 1992, p. 173), most of the transformation taking place in the past 20 years (Bernstein, 2000). The current global status of the Olympics has been attributed to its media coverage, especially that of television (Tomlinson, 1996).
In 1991, the International Olympic Committee (IOC) amended its Charter to include the requirement that the Olympics be held under conditions that demonstrate a responsible concern for environmental issues. In 1994, environment became the third pillar of the Olympic Movement along with sport and culture. In 1995, the Sport and Environment Commission was established by IOC.

In 1996, the Olympic Charter was amended and the 13th paragraph in Rule 2 says: "...the IOC sees that the Olympic Games are held in conditions which demonstrate a responsible concern for environmental issues and encourages the Olympic Movement to demonstrate a responsible concern for environmental issues, takes measures to reflect such concern in its activities and educates all those connected with the Olympic Movement as to the importance of sustainable development."

Lillehammer, the host city of the 1994 Winter Olympics was praised for introducing the concept of the ‘Green Games’. However, the image of a ‘Green Games’ was not included in the original plan of the 1994 Winter Olympics and a key aspect of constructing this ‘green’ profile was the cooptation of the environmental movement (Lesjo, 2000).

In Atlanta, the host city of 1996 Summer Olympic Games, attention was given to the environment as a result of policy changes on the part of the IOC. The Atlanta Committee for the Olympic Games developed a Waste and Recycling Strategy, while special focus was given to spectator education to fine-tune their recycling techniques. IOC commitments to environmentalism together with the Sydney 2000 Summer Olympic Games served to bring environmental issues to greater attention within the Olympic movement. Environmental Operations Venue Management, Waste and Recycling Strategy and spectator’s education were developed during the Athens 2004 and Beijing 2008 Olympic Games, giving a chance for all parties involved, the athletes, staff and spectators to participate and experience the creation of a green Olympic Games.

The Olympic Games, a big, sport and media event, recently incorporated environmental operations venue management and environmental briefing of the spectators and introduced the audience in the environmental debate. The fact that big, sporting events attract by far the largest audiences may further suggest that this particular televised event may contribute to citizen’s participation in the environmental decision making process. Consequently, an evaluation of the impact of Green Games on the environmental attitudes, values and perceptions of viewers is needed.

**CONCLUSION**

Environmental Education is particularly important as it can educate and increase environmental awareness of local populations. Citizen participation in the environmental decision-making process constitutes a fundamental goal of Environmental Education. This study contributes to an understanding of the significance of large scale, media sport
events, such as the Green Olympic Games, as agents of environmental information in order to promote citizen participation in the environmental decision making process. Future research is important to look more closely at gender differences as they interact with other demographic factors such as age and education level in order to measure the impact of environmentally themed, media sport events on the environmental perceptions of the audience.

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THE FUTURE OF A MARATHON AS PERCEIVED BY ITS STAKEHOLDERS

Caroline Jackson, Miguel Moital and Jenna Le Couilliard
Bournemouth University

Abstract

Meeting the challenges of sustainable development not only includes the environmental issues involved with greening events or the triple bottom line of emerging standards, but also with the basics of maintaining events themselves. This paper focuses on one community-based sport event, the Marathon, held on an island in Europe and organised by the main sponsor who is no longer willing to continue with this role. The survival of the event is therefore unclear. The aim of this research was to identify if the continuation of the event was supported by its stakeholders and what their objectives were for its future. The research attempted to understand if the stakeholders desired event growth, and if so, in which areas and to what level.

Shoemaker’s (1995) scenario planning process was adapted to suit the research. Three scenarios were presented to the stakeholders; a small scale event, medium scale event and large scale event and within these scenarios a range of event features were covered. The overall finding was that the stakeholders wanted to maintain the event and to support its growth. They viewed the Marathon as currently being a small scale event with elements of a medium scale event and saw it growing to become a medium scale event with elements of a large scale event. A key finding was that the stakeholders had conflicting views throughout and this was due to their varying backgrounds and objectives for the event. These potential differences will need to be carefully managed by the event organisers if the future development of the event is to be successful.

Keywords:
Events, Stakeholder, Growth, Scenarios, Marathon

INTRODUCTION

Meeting the challenges of sustainable development not only includes the environmental issues involved with greening events or the triple bottom line of emerging standards, but also with the basics of maintaining events themselves. This paper focuses on one community-based sport event held on an island in Europe and organised by the main sponsor. Using theories that have been developed to better understand the firm in society such as stakeholder analysis and scenario planning, it asks whether and how this event should continue to develop over the next three years. The Marathon, the case study in this paper, was started by its title sponsor for marketing purposes in 2006 but they feel no longer able to continue with its management. Even though the future organiser of the Marathon is unclear, there are no plans to discontinue the event. The title sponsors will remain the organiser until an alternative is found. The event has proven to be a success but it needs to be decided whether the event should remain with
its current size and components, or reduce, or grow. At present the event comprises three races; marathon, relay race and the 3k fun run.

Deciding on the future of an event becomes more complex when one accepts Larson and Wikström’s (2001) ‘political market square’ analogy that rejects “the notion of the organization as an independent actor that can produce events, and by depicting it as a dependent co producer of a festival within a network of organizations and other stakeholder groups” (Getz, Andersson & Larson, 2007, p.104). Therefore, stakeholders have to be taken into consideration when deciding the future of an organisation and in this case, an event. Most literature and models on stakeholders assume that there is an organisation and manager at the nexus of a network of relationships (Mitchell et al, 1997; Ferrand & McCarthy, 2009). In this case it is two people in a non-events organisation with the support of “a group of enthusiastic volunteers”.

Using both scenario planning and stakeholder theory, this paper attempts to further develop the application of stakeholder theory and to do this in an area that has been little explored, the dynamic nature of organisational growth in the field of events. The specific objectives of the paper are:

- To investigate whether the Marathon should continue to be organised or not and why;
- To examine the extent to which the event should grow and the nature of this growth for the next three years.

STAKEHOLDER THEORY

Stakeholder theory has been written about for the past few decades but little has actually been applied in practice and rarely to the organisation of an event. Stakeholder authors have focused on four main facets of the theory: descriptive accuracy, normative theory of stakeholder identification; understanding instrumental power and finally the managerial issues (Mitchell et al, 1997; Friedman & Miles, 2002; Ferrand & McCarthy, 2009). These will be further discussed below in the context of this research. Ferrand & McCarthy (2009) take an interesting relationship marketing approach to sports organisations and their stakeholders (and therefore, implicitly, sports events). They identify that most sports are by their nature part of the community and rely upon a plethora of stakeholders for sport itself to exist, whether it is the need for a public venue or a governing body that stipulates the rules and regulations that have to be adhered to. The providers of these ‘resources’ should therefore be part of the decision-making process for any event.

Descriptive accuracy

As identified by Freeman (1984), one has to first of all identify and describe who the stakeholders are, so one has to define what they are. In an events context, Goldblatt and Nelson (2001) and Bowdin et al. (2006, p.98) say that stakeholders are “people with a legitimate interest in the outcomes of an event”. Alternatively, Reid and Arcodia (2002 cited Masterman & Wood 2006) say event stakeholders are individuals or groups that
are affected or could be affected by the by event existing. So, as Goldblatt (2008, p.14) says:

“Stakeholders are people or organizations who have invested in an event.... A stakeholder does not have to invest money in an event to be considered for this role. Emotional, political, or personal interest in a cause is evidence of investment in an event”.

One therefore has to identify what their ‘stake’ is in the event, because this would help to devise strategies aimed at fostering support and avoiding opposition (Westerbeek et al 2006). A broad or a narrow definition of stakeholders can be taken, in this research, the latter was taken, whereby only those that could affect the organisation’s strategic objectives, were considered (Mitchell et al, 1997; Ferrand & McCarthy, 2009).

**Normative theory of stakeholder identification**

As the term describes, using ‘norm’ references to identify who stakeholders are is based upon what is currently acceptable in society and therefore has an ethical context. It is recognised by Ferrand & McCarthy (2009) that stakeholder and corporate social responsibility have the same theoretical roots. They state that it is, “an organisation’s duty to define and take into account the philosophical and moral frameworks in which it operates” (Ferrand & McCarthy 2009, p.31). An event organisation is therefore not operating responsibly if it does not take a positive position in identifying all stakeholders, be it those that could benefit the organisation like its funders or those that could offer resistance to the event such as local residents who could be adversely affected by the congestion and controls caused by the event. However, to consider all potential stakeholders may not be an efficient or effective process for an event organiser, especially if this is a voluntary activity.

**Instrumental power**

Just identifying who potential stakeholders are, is insufficient and not necessarily effective when considering them as part of decision-making, as in this context. As identified by Mitchell et al (1997), the power that a stakeholder may have over the decisions an organisation makes is relevant to how they treat and therefore manage their relationship with them. This is related to the instrumental performance identified by Ferrand & McCarthy (2009) and the relative performance of the network of stakeholders created to support, in their case, the sports organisation. The power of a stakeholder as identified in the literature, is focused more on how you manage the relationship of the organisation with the power that the stakeholder has over the organisation, rather than their intrinsic or extrinsic interest in the organisation, in this case, the event, itself.

Johnson et al (2005) recognise both these factors as important and created a power/interest matrix which was employed in this research to select the stakeholders to interview. The power/interest matrix categorises stakeholders with regards to the amount of interest they have in supporting or opposing a particular strategy and in relation to how much power they have over supporting or opposing the strategy
(Johnson et al. 2005). In the context of this research, the ‘strategy’ is the future direction of the Marathon.

**Managerial issues in events management**

This area of stakeholder theory focuses on how you manage the stakeholders for your own interest and in the case of a community sports event it is important to understand how and why they are involved. Stakeholder theory has been researched in the events field, mainly by Larson and Getz and the dynamic growth and development of festival organisations particularly discovered in the comparative work done on festivals in Calgary and Sweden. Getz, Andersson and Larson (2007) conceptualised the development and maturity of festival organisations as the ‘institutionalisation’ and legitimacy of the event itself. They emphasised the importance of managing the many diverse stakeholder relationships within an event, with a view to developing a supportive network that could lead to a sustainable event. However, they did not investigate how and whether stakeholders were directly engaged with the growth or demise of the festivals that they researched.

What is applicable to this research is how the events became ‘legitimate’ in terms of their acceptance to the community. This could be related to the rationale and objectives for the event and therefore whether the stakeholders even saw a future for the event and a development of an explanation as to why they want it to continue. This relates to the overall objectives for events in general of which there has been limited research. The main emphasis of research in this field has been predominantly focused on the impacts of events, which themselves are not objectives. Ferrand and McCarthy (2009) contend that the strategic analysis should consider the objectives of stakeholders involved in the event, which may be commercial, social or environmental. The event must, therefore, take into account the desires and goals of the stakeholders. If one stakeholder perceived the event not to fulfil their own objectives, they could feel alienated, potentially leading to apathy or in a more extreme case, to opposition to the event. This, in turn, influences the sustainability of the event, notably if the opposing stakeholder(s) are ones with large power and interest in the event. Ferrand and McCarthy’s research is more about the nature of the relationship that is established between stakeholders. In contrast, this research is more interested in gathering stakeholders’ views about the future of the event and what their personal objectives behind that view are.

Depending on whether the event meets stakeholders’ objectives, they will adopt a stance of support or opposition. Larson and Wikström (2001) explain that relationships can be understood from a consensus perspective and a conflict perspective. According to the authors, the conflict perspective, associated with the opposition, results from a different (and often incompatible) interest, leading to conflict and tension, power games, individual commitment and distrust. Stakeholders have individual interests based on their commitment to achieving their goals. Conflict can occur when stakeholders’ goals are inconsistent and when one stakeholder tries to stop the goal fulfilment of another stakeholder in order to increase their likelihood of achieving their goal (Larson & Wikström 2001).
The stakeholder with the most authority and resources will use their power to maximise their own goal fulfilment, at the expense of the other stakeholders, thus resulting in conflict. Conflict and tension between stakeholders could lead to power games. Abma (2000) study is an example of conflict leading to negative outcomes. Conflict threatened the working relationships, used a lot of energy, generated a feeling of frustration and powerlessness and negatively affected the project. This research demonstrated that when conflict arises, it could negatively impact the success of the event.

Alternatively the stakeholder would not use power games; they would trust each other leading to cooperation instead (Larson & Wikström 2001). If they have the same view, which is mutual interest, then there should be harmony. Thus, the consensus perspective tends to foster support for the event. Mallen and Adams (2008) would identify this as the need for ‘collaborative individualism’. The collaborative components of the concept emphasise the need for individuals to work together with others with a view to attain common objectives. The individual component stresses independence from the organisation, the freedom to break from groups, organisations and social institutions (Limerick, Cunnington & Crowther, 2002). This bringing together of individuals is in essence part of stakeholder and network theory.

Recently, Ferrand and McCarthy (2009) have employed collaborative individualism in the context of relationship marketing, which is a new and interesting development. Ferrand and McCarthy (2009) further argue that the relationships between stakeholders evolve and go through the four stages of the product life cycle (similar to the event cycle): start, development, established relationship and decline. They identify that decline can sometimes be caused by stakeholder conflict or lack of engagement with stakeholders due to limited identification with the current objectives or profile of the event. In other words, the individual component overtakes the collaborative one, resulting in potential problems for the organisation. Therefore, growth needs to be monitored and agreed so that the established relationship stage is extended and the sustainability of the event maintained over time. The relationship between two parties is maintained based on the perceived common benefits (Ferrand & McCarthy, 2009).

Most event management texts (e.g. Bowdin et al 2006) discuss what an event is and do this in terms of their size and scale and their form and content. The event experience may well be different for the race participants and the spectators (stakeholders not questioned in this research) and therefore this needs to be taken into consideration but it is assumed that the core focus is on the races and the primary race is the marathon. The event is also made up of facilitating and supporting services/goods that can be described as the content and programme and the software/service (Jackson, 2006). Some of these are essential because without them the event would not exist. For example the course signage and marshals are facilitating services because without them the runners would get lost and the event would collapse. Some are not essential but increase the value of the service offering (Storey & Easingwood, 1998). For example it is not necessary to provide each participant with a goody bag but it increases the value of the service offered.

To grow, an event needs to look at the core event experience, in this case the races, but it will also look at the addition of facilitating, supporting and augmented
products/services. This may encourage current customers to come back and contribute to attracting new customers. The organisers cannot themselves make the decision regarding what changes should be made over time, whether in terms of the objectives (e.g. number of participants) or in terms of the means (such as the marketing of the event). They need to do this with those that have a stake in the event, the stakeholders.

In summary, there appears to be a belief that once stakeholders are identified, different stakeholder experiences can be ‘managed’ (Getz, 2007). However, as Getz recognises, there are potential difficulties of getting stakeholder consensus on core values, which can lead to conflict. Managing conflict can be achieved through identifying ways to manage stakeholders competing interests and goals (Derrett, 2004). For this to take place, it is important to understand what are the stakeholders’ objectives and goals, and how they should be met, which is what this paper seeks to address.

**METHODOLOGY**

**Shoemaker’s scenario planning**

Since there was no ready approach that would fit the purposes of this research, Shoemaker’s (1995) scenario planning process was used as the methodological underpinning. Scenario planning is a strategic management tool whereby businesses speculate about possible futures with a view to formulating strategies that could be implemented should one of these scenarios occur (Gummesson, 2000; Yeoman & McMahon-Beattie, 2005). This involves looking at external factors that could impact on the organisation. The scenario planning process was adapted as explained in the right hand column of table 1, which sets the steps involved in researching the stakeholders’ perceptions of the future of an event. However, while the scenario planning emphasises the changes in the external environmental that could affect the organisation, the process for this research focused on where the event should be in the future as perceived by its stakeholders. Thus, the research process is centred on issues internal to the organisation (i.e. the event).
Table 1
Shoemaker’s Scenario Planning Process and its application to this research

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Shoemaker’s (1995) scenario planning process</th>
<th>The application to the Marathon research</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stage 1: Defining the scope</strong></td>
<td><strong>Stage 1: Defining the scope</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This involves defining the scope of analysis in terms of market, products, geographic areas and technologies, as well as setting a time frame for the analysis.</td>
<td>Whether the Marathon should continue to be organised or not; if yes, whether it should maintain its existing size and content, or whether the event should grow and the nature of this growth for the next three years.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stage 2: Identifying the major stakeholders</strong></td>
<td><strong>Stage 2: Identifying the major stakeholders</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This requires the following questions to be considered: Who will be interested in these issues? Who will be affected by these issues? Who could influence these issues? This will enable the stakeholders to be identified. After this identify their current roles, power positions and interests and ask how they have changed over time and why.</td>
<td>Stakeholder theory was reviewed and concept maps used to identify the stakeholders and their current roles using Shoemaker’s three questions. Johnson et al.’s (2005) power/interest matrix was used to identify the stakeholders’ power positions and amount of interest that they have in the event. This informed the choice of stakeholders that were sampled.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stage 3: Identify basic trends</strong></td>
<td><strong>Stage 3: Identifying key uncertainties</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This entails looking at the economic, political, technological, legal, societal and industrial trends that will affect the issues identified in step 1.</td>
<td>The key uncertainties that related to the event itself were identified. This was related to the future of the event and specifically, the number of participants that are desired in each race and the product components.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stage 4: Identify key uncertainties</strong></td>
<td><strong>Stage 4: Constructing initial scenarios</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The stage again requires the economic, political, technological, legal, societal and industrial trends that are uncertain to be considered and those that will affect the issues identified. For each uncertainty decide a few possible simple outcomes.</td>
<td>Once the key uncertainties were identified they were constructed into scenarios. Three scenarios were defined (small, medium and large event), and their characteristics defined for each scenario in relation to each of the key uncertainties. See table 3.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stage 5: Constructing initial scenario themes</strong></td>
<td><strong>Stage 5: Checking for consistency and plausibility</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The trends and key uncertainties have been identified and these are the main ingredients for constructing scenarios. Shoemaker describes two methods, a positive scenario and negative scenario or a matrix format in order to produce four varying scenarios.</td>
<td>The scenarios were reviewed to ensure they were consistent and plausible. The table of scenarios was checked for internal consistency and plausibility, something that the first set of scenarios (based on matrices) did not have. The use of a table allowed a number of questions to be brought together in a format that the interviewees were able to understand and also it saved save time during the interview as not as many questions needed to be asked in order to obtain the desired type of information.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stage 6: Check for consistency and plausibility</strong></td>
<td><strong>Stage 6: Pilot Study</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The scenarios that have just been made will be looked at for internal inconsistencies and whether or not there is a compelling story line.</td>
<td>A pilot study was conducted to ensure that the interview questions had been written appropriately to gain the required data (Jennings, 2001). The pilot study was carried out with a person that had been involved with the organisation of the event since the beginning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stage 7: Develop learning scenarios</strong></td>
<td><strong>Stage 7: Primary data collection</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This involves naming the scenarios as each scenario is a story.</td>
<td>The views of each stakeholder were obtained through semi-structured interviews.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stage 8: Identify research needs</strong></td>
<td><strong>Stage 8: Analysing the data and reporting the findings</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This step involves doing further research into understanding the key trends and uncertainties.</td>
<td>Analysis of the interview transcripts to identify the stakeholders’ views regarding each key uncertainty and the reasons for that view, as well as potential similarities and differences in the views regarding the future of the event.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stage 9: Develop Quantitative Models</strong></td>
<td><strong>Stage 9: Discussion and conclusion of findings</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scenarios need to be checked again for consistency and plausibility. It needs to be assessed whether quantitative models need to be developed in order for interactions to be formalised.</td>
<td>The findings are discussed in relation to the objectives of the research and conclusions drawn regarding the stakeholders’ views on the future of the event.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stage 10: Evolve Towards Decision Scenarios</strong></td>
<td><strong>Stage 10: Evolve Towards Decision Scenarios</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This is the final stage. Retrace steps 1-8 to see if the learning scenarios and quantitative model from step 9 actually address the real issues that the company is facing.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Sample

Twenty five stakeholders were identified as having an interest in the Marathon. These were plotted on the power/interest matrix, as seen in figure 1.

Figure 1
Power/Interest Matrix for the Marathon

depending on the quadrant that a stakeholder is assigned, the matrix implies a prioritisation of stakeholders and suggests the key management activities leading to an effective stakeholder management. The four quadrants are:

A: Minimal Effort - These stakeholders require minimal effort. Nothing specific needs to be done to keep these stakeholders happy, if they have any questions
B: Keep Informed - These stakeholders need to be kept informed, for example through community groups as they can be key due to having the power to influence the attitudes of more powerful
C: Keep Satisfied - These are rather quiet stakeholders, however if they feel their level of interest is underrated they will reposition themselves to segment D.
D: Key Players - These are the most important stakeholders who will accept or reject the strategies used.
Data collection

As the adapted scenario planning process postulates, identifying key uncertainties and developing scenarios (i.e. the desirable features of the event in the future) is a critical stage in researching the future of events. Originally the key uncertainties were developed into scenario matrices, this being step 4 of the adapted scenario planning process. In a scenario matrix, two uncertainties are combined, resulting in four possible scenarios. However, presenting the information to respondents using matrices was considered complex and therefore inappropriate given the time available for each interview (maximum 1 hour). Therefore a simpler approach was adopted, that involved an individual analysis of each key uncertainty. This analysis involved defining three types of event (small, medium and large) and specifying the features of each type of event in relation to each key uncertainty (Table 3).

Table 2
Growth Scenarios

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key uncertainties</th>
<th>Small Scale Event</th>
<th>Medium Scale Event</th>
<th>Large Scale Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of participants in the Marathon</td>
<td>Under 1,000</td>
<td>Under 5,000</td>
<td>Under 8,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of participants in the Relay Race (teams made up of 5 participants)</td>
<td>Under 1,000</td>
<td>Under 5,000</td>
<td>Under 8,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of participants in the 3k fun run</td>
<td>Under 1,000</td>
<td>Under 5,000</td>
<td>Under 8,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant mix in the Marathon</td>
<td>Majority are local participants with a few exceptions A mixture of local and national participants A mixture of local, national and international participants</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant mix in the Relay race</td>
<td>Majority are local participants with a few exceptions A mixture of local and national participants A mixture of local, national and international participants</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant mix in the 3k fun run</td>
<td>Majority are local participants with a few exceptions A mixture of local and national participants A mixture of local, national and international participants</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of spectators physically present on race day</td>
<td>Under 1,000</td>
<td>Under 5,000</td>
<td>Under 8,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spectator mix physically present on race day</td>
<td>Local spectators with a few exceptions A mixture of local and national spectators A mixture of local, national and international spectators</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of media coverage in terms of television</td>
<td>Local TV coverage Local and national TV coverage Local, national and international TV coverage</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amount of prize money</td>
<td>Small amount, if any Medium amount Large amount</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of sponsor of events</td>
<td>Local sponsors Local and national sponsors Local, national and international sponsors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of community involvement</td>
<td>low</td>
<td>medium</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A structured face-to-face interview with some open-ended questions was employed to collect the data regarding the stakeholders’ views of the future of the Marathon. They were initially asked whether they thought the event should continue and why. They were then shown the scenario tables to illicit their views on where they currently perceived the Marathon to be in terms of size and components.
In order to identify how the stakeholders view the event in 2012, they were asked to express their opinion regarding what race mix should exist by then and what additional features the event should contain. In addition to the current race mix (marathon, relay race and 3k fun run) respondents were asked about the desirability of introducing other usual running distances: ½ marathon, 10k and 5k. As far as the additional (non-race) features is concerned, these included an exhibition, fairground rides, food and beverage stalls, a post-event party, as well as exercise classes and warm up sessions. A 4-point ‘probability’ scale was employed. In addition, there were also some open questions that mainly focused on probing the respondent as to why a certain answer was given. This allowed the development of a deeper understanding regarding the stakeholders’ views.

Data analysis

The analysis was centred on the extent to which stakeholders share a similar view on the future of the event, as well as an attempt to understand the possible reasons for similarities and discrepancies. To facilitate the understanding of the results, some of the data were tabled to consolidate it, which will allow emerging patterns to be recognised (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Implicit in the tables summarising some of the findings is a frequency analysis: how many people favoured each type of event (small, medium and large). For each key uncertainty, respondents were probed with a view to understand why a respondent favoured a certain type of event. The open-ended question responses were initially analysed using content analysis and emerging themes were identified. It was found that these related to the objectives and impacts of events and were therefore more directly related to these as a second stage to the analysis (Denzin, 2005; Veal, 2006).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Event objectives

The first question that stakeholders were asked, was whether they would like the Marathon to continue in the future or not. All respondents supported the continuation of the Marathon. When asked about why they would like it to continue, a variety of reasons were expressed. As demonstrated below in table 4, where the shaded cell indicates an unsolicited stakeholder response, some emphasise the social aspect (e.g. Stakeholder 7), others mainly the economic benefits (Stakeholders 3 and 6) and others both social and economic benefits (e.g. Stakeholders 1 and 2). This suggests that stakeholders may have different agendas and objectives for supporting the continuation of the event. With the exception of SH (Stakeholder) 6, all respondents provided more than one reason to explain why the event should continue. SH5 explained their support for the event by emphasising 6 benefits, covering benefits to the residents, to the local economy and to the sponsor. The fact that the event attracts people to the host island was mentioned by most of the stakeholders.
### Table 3
**Stakeholders Reasoning for the Marathon to Continue**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasoning</th>
<th>Stakeholder</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Community participation and involvement whether it be participating, volunteering or spectating</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creates a community atmosphere</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The community like the event</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provides people with something to aim for</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encourages sport participation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good for the health of the Island</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The hosting island once again has its own marathon for local residents to compete in</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Title sponsor benefits from the publicity of the event</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand builder for the title sponsor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raises money for charity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attracts people to the hosting island for the event</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People spend time in the hosting island before and after the event</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourists who have visited for a past Marathon may return to the hosting island for a holiday</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotes the hosting island</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It has been made apparent that each stakeholder has their own reasons for the event to continue which is influenced by their backgrounds. SH3 and SH6 reasons for supporting the event are focused on attracting tourists. This is not surprising because they both work within the hospitality and tourism industries in the island. Alternatively SH7, who represents past runners, provided reasons that are centred on their passion for running. SH4 (association of volunteers) works within the community which was reflected in their identifying mainly community objectives. SH1, SH2 and SH5 saw the ‘bigger picture’, recognising 4-5 different reasons. Crespi-Vallbona and Richards (2007) would recognise this as being more strategic and instrumental because of the stakeholders’ involvement in policy-making and their distance from the production of the event itself.

Larson and Wikström (2001) explain that differing interests can lead to conflict, which Abma (2000) has shown can affect the event’s success. The Marathon stakeholders have differing interests as their objectives of the event differ. According to the literature, conflict would most likely have occurred because of these differing interests which could have affected the Marathon’s success. Yet to date the event has been successful regardless of the stakeholders differing interests. This may not be the case if the stakeholders do desire event growth because their views of how the event should grow may potentially result in conflicting ideas. The significance of this is whether differing objectives may lead to different visions for an event rather than the current consensus.
**Event growth**

All respondents believed that the Marathon should grow in some way. With the purpose of understanding the stakeholders’ view of the future of the marathon, interviewees were presented with a table containing a number of uncertainties and the three scenarios (small, medium and large event). For each key uncertainty, they were asked whether they think the Marathon was currently most like (small, medium or large) and where they would like the Marathon to be in 2012. Table 5 details the results, with the left column showing what they perceive it to currently be and the right one what they hope for by 2012.

**Table 5**

**Current (a) and Future (b) Characteristics of the Marathon Event**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Uncertainties</th>
<th>1a</th>
<th>1b</th>
<th>2a</th>
<th>2b</th>
<th>3a</th>
<th>3b</th>
<th>4a</th>
<th>4b</th>
<th>5a</th>
<th>5b</th>
<th>6a</th>
<th>6b</th>
<th>7a</th>
<th>7b</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Amount of participants in the Marathon</td>
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<tr>
<td>Amount of participants in the Relay Race</td>
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<tr>
<td>Amount of participants in the 3k fun run</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mixture of local, national and/or international participants in the Marathon</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mixture of local, national and international participants in the Relay Race</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mixture of local, national and/or international participants in the 3k fun run</td>
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<tr>
<td>Number of spectators physically present on race day</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mixture of local, national and/or international spectators physically present on race day</td>
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<tr>
<td>Amount of media coverage in terms of television</td>
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<tr>
<td>Amount of prize money</td>
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<tr>
<td>Level of sponsors of events</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Legend: ![Small](image) ![Medium](image) ![Large](image)

An analysis of the table shows that stakeholders have different perceptions regarding where the event is at present. Stakeholders 2, 3, 5 and 6 viewed the event as an essentially small one, while SH1, SH4 and SH7 appeared to perceive the event to be of a small to medium size (at least four or more of the 11 key uncertainties at the medium level). There were also noticeable differences regarding where the event should be in 2012. SH 2, 4 and 7 appear to favour a larger event than the remaining stakeholders (as shown by the bolder squares).

As far as the specific key uncertainties are concerned, all stakeholders support growth in the number of marathon runners. The results further suggest that there is more support for certain aspects of running to grow (Marathon) than others (3K fun run).
Still in relation to the running characteristics of the event, there is a consensus regarding the type of event in relation to the relay race (medium size event). In addition, growth is also supported in relation to the number of spectators that physically attend the event. However, some stakeholders favoured a mix that involved mainly locals and nationals (SH3, SH5 and SH6), while others aspired for a mix that also involved international attendees (SH2, SH4 and SH7). A similar pattern emerged for the amount of media coverage in terms of television, with some stakeholders more ambitious than others. The future organisers of the event will need to reinforce the event as primarily a Marathon with events that enable a development process from the competitive relay event rather than a one-off fun run. In terms of spectators, it will be important to manage the expectations of different stakeholders to ensure that all groups are catered for so that local and national spectators are not displaced by the economic benefits, desired by some stakeholders, from encouraging a more international tourism base.

Virtually all stakeholders perceived the event to currently be small as far as the nature of the sponsors is concerned (mainly local) and supported the expansion of sponsorship. Yet, while the majority viewed the event as encompassing national sponsors at most, two stakeholders (SH2 and SH7) would like to see international organisations sponsoring the event in 2012. This is interesting, given that the originator and current title sponsor, although with a base on the island, is an international company operating in over seventy countries and already sponsoring over ten marathons worldwide.

The Marathon product in 2012

The stakeholders were presented with a table containing a range of actual and potential Marathon features and asked how they felt about keeping/adding them to the event by 2012. The results are shown in Table 6. All stakeholders fully support the continuation of the three races: marathon, relay race and 3k fun run. The introduction of other distances was less consensual. While no stakeholder rejected other distances outright (i.e. said ‘definitely not’), there was less support for the inclusion of different distances. The 5k and 10k races received little support from a majority of stakeholders, while the ½ marathon received contradictory support. Five of the seven stakeholders appeared to support it (i.e. yes), while two appear not to support it (SH6 and SH7). The main justification for this was that the ½ marathon might detract from demand for the marathon. However, SH7 further mentioned that their opinion could be subject to change if the need to additional races was to be demonstrated, thus keeping an open mind regarding the issue.

Interviewees were also asked to explain why they preferred the race mix that they described. The lack of support for including new races was explained by the logistical requirements that this could involve. In addition, interviewees pointed out that it was uncertain that more participants would be attracted by adding more races. Increasing the number of races without growing the number of participants would lead to fewer people participating in each race as they would be spread through different distances. These diverted and substitute demand concerns focused on impacts within the races offered at this event (people who currently run the 3k fun run moving to the 5k) or the impacts on other different events taking place in the hosting island (they already have a 10k so a new one is not needed). One stakeholder argued that no change was
required because a niche had been carved (with the three existing races) and therefore the event should stick with the existing product, although they had earlier argued for market growth.

Those who supported the introduction of new distances based their opinion on the ability to appeal to a different group of people. One respondent said that half marathons have a different appeal and enjoy loyal followers around the world and therefore could prove successful. A different stakeholder acknowledged that all offered races could be included. However, they emphasised that this would require a longer event (i.e. a weekend) to accommodate all the races.

As far as the non-running features of the event, the results indicate that there was good support for new components to be added to the event. However some stakeholders were more supportive than others. For example, SH2, SH3 and SH5 fully supported the introduction of the majority of the features suggested, while the remaining stakeholders appeared to be less certain of their support for the inclusion of new features. SH 5 was not particularly supportive of the introduction of four of the 9 non-race features. The table also illustrates which features are least and more supported. The least supported feature was the introduction of fairground rides and stalls (6 of the 7 stakeholders answered probably not), while food and beverage stalls offering a variety of cuisines was fully supported by all stakeholders.

Table 6
Race Mix and Additional Features that Could be Added by 2012

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Event Features</th>
<th>Stakeholders</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marathon *</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>½ Marathon</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10K Race</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5K Race</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relay Race *</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3k Fun Run *</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warm up sessions for the runners before the races begin.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An exercise class held in the marathon village for anyone to participate in</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>whilst waiting for the first marathon runner to cross the finish line.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Live music performances of a variety of genre</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairground rides and stalls</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food and beverage stalls offering a variety of cuisines</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An area in the Marathon Village for local sport shops such as Wheways and</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sport brands such Nike to showcase and sell their products and services</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An area in the Marathon Village for sport brands to showcase and sell their</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>products and services</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marathon Exhibition that runs for 1 or 2 days before race day. This could be</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the location where the runners collect their race packs and ask questions.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisations that could feature at the exhibition are: local sport shops,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sport brands, sport nutritionalists/physiotherapists offering advice, main</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>benefiting charities of the event</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An after party on the evening of race day for people such as the runners,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>their supporters and the volunteers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Legend:  

* Current race
CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The resources and contributions required to successfully run an event in the long term requires the involvement, cooperation and goodwill of different stakeholders. These stakeholders are often associated to the event for different reasons, which results in different (and potentially conflicting) views regarding how the event should be run, notably the format of the event. This paper put forward a methodology to investigate whether the stakeholders of a marathon want the event to grow, as well as what characteristics need to be considered as part of that growth. Not only the level of growth desired was investigated, but the research also investigated whether there was agreement in relation to the product that should be offered by 2012.

The overall conclusion of this research was that all stakeholders wanted the Marathon to continue and for it to grow. However, there were differences in the views of how this growth should be achieved, both in the number and type of participants and spectators and product features. The views of the different stakeholders can be directly related to who they are in terms of their stake in the event and therefore their objectives for the event itself. Unsurprisingly, the economic stakeholders tended to desire a more ambitious event, whereas those from a sport or community background appear to favour a smaller event, with a strong sport component involving mainly the local community.

Implications for practice

Although the Marathon is inevitably going to go through a change of organisational structure, it should be recognised that the power-influence matrix may change, depending on who becomes the organiser in the nexus of the network, but the stakeholders of the event will remain the same. The research will therefore still be relevant to the new organisers and other event managers who are interested in growing their current community events. The methods applied in this research demonstrate how views of different stakeholders could be elicited through a potentially more democratic process than round-table meetings where results are more dependent on negotiation skills or dealing with stakeholders where the power-influence becomes more significant. It may be the first stage of achieving mutual commitment (Larson & Wikström, 2001) which is when the stakeholders strive to find agreement that represents all stakeholders rather than the most dominant ones.

Implications for future research and theoretical developments

Although one small case study, this research is more significant for its further development of our understanding of events management and more specifically that of the strategic development of events. With further research, it could be found that events have a more unique setting than that of the traditional ‘firm in society’ basis that began stakeholder theory. This research demonstrates an original methodology in engaging stakeholders in the process of strategic decision-making, in deciding whether and how an event should develop in the future. Understanding why stakeholders think a particular event should be organised is part of the process of identifying the potential stakeholders but not necessarily their legitimacy and specific
stakeholders they have in the event. It does however help to understand the stakeholders’ view of the objectives for the event. From this the event organisers can better understand the dynamics between the stakeholders as illustrated by the tables that reported feedback from them, whether solicited through open-ended questions or the structured process of the scenario options.

Future research could go beyond the stages identified by Shoemaker (1995) and adapted in this research. Once stakeholders, their event objectives and their views for growth have been identified, one needs to know how to agree upon and implement a future scenario. In this research the diversity of stakeholder interests and their views for the future of the Marathon have been elicited. A future scenario can be devised from the results and potential contentious issues identified. What has not been resolved is how these can be best managed. The results of this research could also form the content for a broader stakeholder quantitative survey that could include the residents, participants and spectators of the event.

REFERENCES


MEGA EVENTS AS A VEHICLE FOR SOCIAL INCLUSION: A CASE STUDY FROM INDIA

Chris Ruthnaswamy

Abstract

The purpose or aim of this paper is to show how Event Management of this scale can be used to effectively harness the creative output of artisans in handicrafts and give them the much needed exposure using the Surajkund Mela (Fair) as an exercise in marketing effort. This fair, organised by the State (Province of Haryana) bordering Delhi is also Central (Federal) government funded, in short this is one way that the government can come to the aid of the weaker members of the society who have little or no access to market their produce to the world at large (who want to purchase their produce)

The methodology used for this paper is direct interaction with the artisans; interviews with people connected with the Surajkund Mela and published literature on the subject.

The results of the Fair has been heartening as more and more artisans are coming in contact with direct buyers and are getting the benefit of better price for their products, more sales and meeting committed buyers. With the Fair being near New Delhi the artisans are able to meet some of the interested buyers located in the metro (New Delhi) after the Fair and also discuss in detail with potential buyers as a post Fair exercise.

Implications are there for all to see – state intervention is essential for helping the weaker people in the society who in this case are artisans, sometimes this is a one-man show, he or she can either produce or do marketing, either one is essential.

INTRODUCTION

Many studies in event management concentrate on the cultural aspect of bringing people together for one common purpose and in developing a sense of community pride. However only a few studies are focused on the diminishing role of crafts and the craftsperson, many of whom find themselves in a hopeless peripheral cul-de-sac situation and are faced with unemployment. Mega events like the Surajkund Mela (Fair) near New Delhi which is the only one of its kind in the scale of its operation, provide a vast showcase for these crafts persons and their crafts. It is a public private partnership that uses suave marketing techniques, large scale publicity and a careful selection of high quality low value crafts to attract up to 750,000 regional and international visitors during a 15 day period. It provides crafts persons with an outlet for their products, furthers their livelihood and increases their sustainability.
Crafts appreciation of what’s on hand and nurturing crafts on the verge of disappearing are equally important. In India traditionally maharajas were patrons of the arts and crafts in the country that several hundreds of them ruled in different areas in the country helped in fostering crafts to a large extent. Undoubtedly without their patronage it is highly possible that some of the crafts that we see today would have long disappeared. With the maharajas fast fading away, the government of that time found it expedient to step into their shoes to quickly fill the void to sustain and develop crafts in the country. It is no small matter that the father of the nation Mahatma Gandhi, made hand – production central to India’s freedom struggle In one instance machine made cloth from Manchester was discarded by the nationalists in favour of the local hand spun cloth *khaddar*.

What we need to recognise is that crafts offer a valid, time tested alternative and ecologically sustainable industry; an engine for poverty alleviation and the empowerment of the poor; and a livelihood as close it can be to the place of residence in a country where at times it is a thin line between where the house and workshop begin.

India has perhaps experienced the world’s largest effort at integrating crafts into national development. The Surajkund Mela focuses on developmental activities by holding buyer-seller meetings and marketing workshops among others.

The government’s broad based initiative was to cover as large a canvas as possible. The event at Surajkund has as one of its objectives to not only help the artisans but to promote languishing traditional crafts. These crafts were languishing either due to a lack of marketing knowledge or a lack of direct contact with buyers. Such crafts in remote villages, with little or no access to the right buying sources coupled with the educational limitations of the craftsmen themselves, who are brought up from a very young age to follow the traditional crafts of the elders with the secrets of the craft being handed down from father to son. This coupled with the inherent apathy of the financial institutions like banks, the only access to finance for most of these crafts persons is the middle man who is readily at hand to lend, but the price paid for such benevolence is high. The products are usually bought at low prices to be sold at a very high gain.

**SURAJKUND MELA OR FAIR**

Fairs or Melas have been a part of the Indian ethos for centuries. One of the biggest Melas is the Kumbh Mela at Varanasi or Benares, which is held every 12 years on a day when there is a confluence of several planetary bodies. It is religious in nature and draws more than a million people attend. Since its inception in 1986 the Surajkund Mela has epitomised the State’s involvement helping ancient endangered crafts survive.

The Surajkund Mela is organised by the Ministry of Tourism. The Secretary to the Ministry is the most senior bureaucrat and is the Chairperson. The other members are from the Department of Handicrafts and Textiles and the local government in Haryana. The government agencies justify staging such events as beneficial to the
crafts persons by way of eliminating layers of middlemen and opening a direct access to buyers such as exporters or wholesalers.

An event as categorised by Getz is a visitor attraction with fixed opening and closing dates, is open to everyone, has a central theme and is not of a frequent nature. Surajkund Mela is one such.

The Surajkund Mela has two main objectives - first by creating a rural ambience for domestic as well as foreign tourists it introduces them to the skills involved in the product and leads to a direct appreciation of the craft. This in turn results in pride in workmanship by the crafts person and ultimately benefits them by way of sales. This year (in 2009) the focus was on rural and responsible tourism.

The present location is situated close to Delhi and has been in continuous existence for a millennium. A local ruler chose this place as his stronghold and a sun temple with its pool was built. The Sun Pond - Suraj (sun) and Kund (pond) - is still in existence. Several tourism services such as hotels have developed around the Sun Pond.

The hundreds of artisans who exhibit in Surajkund for the 15 day Mela (Fair) are mostly from rural India and have little or no access to marketing or designing products tailored to modern trends.

In Surajkund their crafts are showcased to a wider audience including exporters, connoisseurs of artistic handmade products and the man in the street who appreciates things of value at a price devoid of the middleman’s commission. The crafts person is able to deal with the customer on a one to one basis - marketing their own handloom and handicraft products.

Surajkund Mela provides a platform for many of the languishing and lesser known crafts of India. It has a rural ambience with mud plastered walls, an unhurried pace for visitors and the eagerness of the crafts person to explain the intricacies of their products making this Mela unique. It stands apart in the league of crafts exhibitions in India.

The visitor has the convenience of seeing the wide range products, watching the product under manufacture and getting to know the process of production. The costlier and time consuming alternative for the visitor would be to travel into the deep interiors of the country as very few artisans work in metros or towns because it is too expensive.

My experience in promoting handlooms and handicrafts from eastern India has been that the artisan seeks comfortable and familiar surroundings in the workplace. My initial misplaced ideas on nearness to markets took a beating when half a dozen craft persons from a tribal area were brought over, given sufficient credit, with a convenient workplace-cum-residence, and put in touch with potential buyers. After a few weeks, not months, everything unraveled as the artisans wanted to go back to
their village being unfamiliar with the fast pace of the city and unable to devote quality to their work.

The government has stepped in following the Gandhian principle of giving importance to the village and its crafts where 75% of the population resides, preventing displacement of craft persons from their homes leading to mass exodus into nearby cities. The government plays a pivotal role in sustaining and rejuvenating the languishing crafts of artisan communities and ensuring their role in the community’s economic development by organising such events.

Mega Events like the Surajkund Mela go a long way in developing a sense of appreciation by the community at large and in giving them a sense of place. This also helps in restricting the hemorrhaging of artisan’s skills in the face of the onslaught of modern day mechanically mass produced products not prevalent in village crafts.

On a practical and personal note my experience as the head of a government export agency promoting crafts in the eastern state of Orissa an area covering 155,707 kilometres, is that the crafts community in general are not exposed to the exacting requirements of the outside world.. Ancient palm leaf craft measuring 7 inches by 1 and half inches produced with local religious themes remained unchanged over a millennium, a suggestion was made to take up Yuletide themes, this saw a fair amount of success in the manger theme in the first year itself and in the ensuing years, luckily this product could not be machine made and its survival for the time being was assured. Bringing in the de rigueur of both artistic values as well as utility a fair degree of success was achieved. This unfortunately was not the case with some other crafts.

In India events of this nature have existed since ancient times this is still being carried on even today in weekly markets or haats that sells craft items together with farm produce. A strong sense of individualism and a quest for excellence in craftsmanship still goes on but at a fast reducing level. Need for quality craft was kept alive by the maharajas with some of these fabulously wealthy individuals patronising not only Cartier but also the local crafts persons of excellence.

Events like the Surajkund Mela held in the National Capital region of Delhi have over the years been able to improve the image of the annual mega event which in turn has brought greater footfalls and as a consequence, economic benefits to the craft community. Its success in turn has attracted political benefits not only for the host State of Haryana but also for the government at the Centre who both see it as expedient to showcase their achievements on this platform. Events of this nature are also an exercise to showcase cultural diversity.

Event management of this nature is much older than the industry as we know today. The first Surajkund Mela was held in 1986 and has been in continuous existence for the past 23 years. Mela brings together diverse crafts from all over the country on a single platform to display their crafts, exchange views and also give vent to their problems and difficulties. Language can be a problem in certain cases as the diversity
of languages that one encounters is substantial, but this has not proved a hindrance for the craft persons in selling their product.

Talking to the organisers of the Mela one got the impression that profit motive was not the main consideration. The Mela is generally viewed as a no-profit no-loss exercise by the stakeholders - Haryana the host state, Departments of Handicrafts and Handlooms and the main stakeholder – Central Ministry of Tourism was to give as much exposure to languishing crafts, the funds received from the government and other sources are utilised in constructing stalls temporary in nature at the Mela, and by providing free accommodation and subsidised food to the craft persons in each stall.

The Mela authorities have tried to address two major lacunae - marketing and consumer orientation of the products, by putting the artisans in touch with the exporters and also with designers, both parties being stakeholders. “Exporters and Craft Persons Meet” was one such, bringing together craft persons and exposing them to more than 40 leading exporters registered with the Export Promotion Council of India. It is a unique experiment to place 3 important agencies-craft persons, designers and exporters together. In “Designers and Artisans Meet” well known designers come collectively to the Mela to suggest ways and means to match traditional craft with modern trends.

Opportunities exist for product awareness by the attending visitors and the resultant increase in craft sales. Local and overseas visitors are usually surprised to see the wealth of handicrafts that are available at the Mela such as everyday articles like ladies handbags from Kolkata or ethnic carpets from Hyderabad.

Surajkund Mela gets visitors from the nearby city of Delhi, as well as regional visitors and overseas visitors. The nearby cities of Jaipur and Agra (home to the world famous Taj Mahal) also get visitors as a result of the spillover. Coaches bring in visitors at a half hourly interval from various parts of Delhi directly to the Mela with a designated parking area for 15,000 cars. Visitors are then ferried from the car park to the Mela gates. The physically disabled are provided with wheelchairs. Nearing the Mela the visitor comes across clear signage and regular announcements link the visitor to the Mela. The Mela is off the arterial highway linking Delhi to Agra - close by is the ancient fort of Tuglakabad and one of the seven ancient cities of Delhi. Students of catering institutes in Delhi and Haryana are given an opportunity to exhibit their culinary skills during this mega event.

Surajkund Mela contributes to the purposeful and gainful event management especially when the participating craft persons interact between themselves and with the visitors. Such events bring people together to work indirectly in conformity with the social objective of enriching the weaker groups in society. The development of events cannot be viewed in isolation, the success or failure of such events depends on the extent of community involvement, the total participation of the craft persons and the visitor’s facility to attend and spend in such events.
VISITOR LEVELS

There seemed to be no discernable effect of the recent economic slowdown on the visitor arrivals with the level of attendance reaching 750,000 in 2009 up from 175,000 visitors in 1989 with a total participation of 452 stall holders - more than double that of 1989.

Apart from its growing popularity, expanding the Mela timing from 5.30 to 7.30 in the evening was partly responsible for increased footfalls. Improved lighting and enhanced levels of security also contributed to greater visitor participation. 1500 policemen and policewomen were on the beat including 70 persons who were given specialised training on visitor handling. Some of the visitors have been in regular attendance for more than a decade.

To cover the expenditure costs, entry tickets to the Mela for both domestic and foreign visitors was priced at US$1. Tickets are easily available in Delhi through numerous milk dispensing outlets, the branches of a well known bank and at Metro (underground) stations.

CRAFTS & TOURISM

Stalls were given to each craft person; leather work for instance had 15 separate stalls. On display were wallets, ladies hand bags and purses. One of the leather craft persons informed our team that his products were popular in his area but exhibiting at Surajkund Mela gave a wider audience. The revenue generated by sales at the Mela would go a long way in his mission to train unemployed youth in his town to lead a better life.

This year the theme state was the Madhya Pradesh which is located in the middle of the country. They occupied a large space mainly with craft stalls but also showcased their tourism products in a mobile exhibition coach equipped with LCD projectors, exhibition panels and publicity material. This is the first tourism exhibition coach of its kind in India.

PROMOTION

Promotion for the Mela was undertaken by the organisers in both the local and regional media. Wide coverage was also given in local papers and on national television. Entertainment included several shows and activities for the whole family such as folk dance performances, puppet shows from India and Egypt, an Armenian ballet, a photography competition, sculpture workshop and theatre. Many activities involved children like the drawing and painting competition involving 150 children from 30 different schools, camel safaris, face painting competition, kite flying competition and an amusement park.

A wide variety of foods was on offer from Indian to Egyptian. Students from 2 major nearby food craft institutes were given an opportunity to display their culinary skills.
Regional and international cuisines, together with promotion of tourism products and cultural exposition on an extensive scale brought in greater footfalls.

The mobile phone service provider Vodafone, provided excellent promotional support for the event, with frequent radio announcements, posters and cloth banners placed at various locations in around Delhi.

This year there were five overseas participating countries - Sri Lanka, Bangladesh, Afghanistan, Bhutan and partner country Egypt. This was the first time a partner country concept was introduced. This is to give a forum for local crafts persons to interact with artisans from the partner country and improve the product quality. A study team comprising of senior officers from Sri Lanka lead by Chairman, National Crafts Council came to explore organising with the Mela authorities a similar arts and crafts event in Sihiriya in central Sri Lanka to be held later this year. China also has expressed interest in future participation in the Mela.

SURVEY

A team of 3 people undertook the survey during the Mela to look into the leveraging strategies that were put into action to maximise its outcome and to analyze the participating crafts person’s responses.

The team contacted 28 persons participating in the Mela of which 19 were craft persons. To avoid the weekend and holiday rush of crowds which would interfere with the responses, two particular weekdays were singled out so that the craft person had sufficient time on his or her hands to answer our questions in detail.

Although the Mela has been in existence for 23 years there has been limited monitoring of the event to date. As a matter of fact the survey was probably first such kind conducted with the authorisation of the Authorities.

Method

The study was conducted on two different weekdays in February. The sample of 28 participating in the survey of which male respondents were 80% and female respondents 20% The respondents were asked to answer open ended questions, an average of 30 minutes to 45 minutes was spent with each craft person in eliciting replies.

Questionnaire

The respondents were asked a series of questions to elicit focused replies like
1. Frequency of their attendance at Surajkund Mela
2. Whether National Award winners or not
3. Sales turnover during the Surajkund Mela
4. Profitability by attending the event
5. Overall problems faced by them
6. If this was the only crafts event participated by them during the year 2009
Results

The National Awards are a prestigious recognition given by the Central Government each year to the top crafts person in their respective field and selected by a jury who are experts in their own right. The crafts covered in the survey includes handlooms like tie and dye work, wood carving, durries or traditional carpets, reed mats, tribal paintings and silk paintings, puppets made of cloth, goat skin and horn work among others

Of the nineteen crafts persons surveyed nine of them were National Awardees for the best craftsperson in their field of craftmanship.

The Study found that in the case of four crafts persons, the craft had been handed down from father to son for more than 5 generations and in the case of another craft person crafts person the craft had been in the family for 6 generations. Of the 400 odd crafts persons exhibiting almost 85 % had either won National or State awards for their excellent workmanship.

Out of the nineteen craft persons two of them had been regularly participating for the last 20 years and 7 had participated for the first time in 2009. Five were National Award winners, five others had participated for the 2nd time and the other five had participated three, four, six, nine and twelve times respectively. Fifteen of the nineteen crafts persons had exhibited their products at events other than the Mela and two had held exhibitions abroad under government patronage - one in New York and the other in both the United Kingdom and Switzerland.

The basic product price for the majority of the thirteen crafts surveyed came to less than US$2; the second largest segment of five craft work had a price range between US$5 to US$30. The remaining one craft work saw a very wide gap in the price range which started at US$3000.

Giving information about sales and profits to third parties was a touchy subject for the crafts persons as they were under the misapprehension that it would lead to tax enquiries and as a result only a few of the crafts persons were forthcoming. Being tight lipped could also possibly be due to the presence of a Mela representative accompanying us. What surprised the team was that within the 14 day Mela period, most of the craft persons surveyed indicated that they had already reached a target of 10% of their total annual sales. One of the participants went even further and indicated that he had achieved 50% of his annual sales!

Although each of the participants mentioned that it was a profitable venture to exhibit their products at the Mela none wanted to elaborate on this. Nearly all of them had exhibited at some time or the other in the Dilli Haat the well known crafts bazaar located in New Delhi.

Except for a single dissenting voice the rest of the craft persons agreed that by participating at the Mela they benefited with bigger sales and profits.
PROBLEMS

Grievances included location, transportation and the weather.

- One of the stall holders mentioned that they were getting less visitors as the stall was not located in an area attracting as many footfalls therefore the number of buyers was much less than anticipated.
- The second grievance was that expenses increased as the cost of the transporting material had to be borne by the craft persons themselves with some of the products having to be sent over distances of several thousand kilometres. Only a handful of States provided a transportation subsidy. To the surprise of the team in one instance delicate and highly fragile terracotta’s had been transported over several hundred kilometres without breakages. No subsidy was given to this particular craftsperson.
- The last grievance was that inclement rainy weather during certain days had driven customers away.

CONCLUSIONS

The Surajkund Mela is an exposition of craftwork, tourism products and culture. It is an event that provides a forum for shared purpose to be manifest but it falls short on four counts.

- Firstly, there is the tendency to include well known craft persons (mostly national or regional awardees) at the expense of lesser known ones who are in dire need of exposure in such events as acknowledged peers the craft is also high on the value cycle
- Secondly each State should be given a free hand in selecting the crafts person to be sent to the Mela, which at present rests with the Development Commissioner for Handicrafts and Handlooms..
- Thirdly different yardsticks are applied in different States such as in subsidising the transportation cost of the goods
- Fourthly events of this nature have insufficient follow up as Surajkund Mela is predominately tourism directed with the Chairperson of the Mela as the senior most bureaucrat in the central Tourism Ministry the same applies for the host state of Haryana.

Threats also persist both in the present and the future to the Surajkund Mela as for example there is a similar but a smaller version which is open all year long in Delhi the Central government in India has plans to develop four other similar Melas in different regions of the country.
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Diwaker Sharma Event Planning and Management published by Deep & Deep Publications Pvt. Ltd

APPENDIX

Pictures from the Surajkund Mela
State Award for Master Craftsman

V. China Anganayulu
Village: Ayyar, Mandal: Narsampet, District: Guntur

has been selected for the State Award for his high level craftsmanship and for his contribution to the development of Craft in ‘Dried Vegetable’ for the year 2007 organized by A.P. Handicraft Development Corporation Ltd, Handicraft Bhavan, Muthurabadi, Hyderabad.

Managing Director
THE LEGACY-FACTOR: TOWARDS CONCEPTUAL CLARIFICATION IN THE SPORT EVENT CONTEXT

Alana Thomson, Katie Schlenker and Nico Schulenkorf
University of Technology, Sydney

Abstract

Public policy planners and event organisers are increasingly promoting potential economic, tourism, social, and/or environmental legacies to justify significant investments required to host special events. Within the context of special events, legacy is recognised as the long-term outcomes for a host city from staging an event (Hiller, 2003; Preuss, 2007). The notion of legacy has emerged in the events field surrounding the strategic use of events in achieving outcomes for host cities. However, this is complicated by inconsistent conceptualisations of legacy across academic and industry practice.

This paper puts forth a comprehensive review of current legacy definitions, from 1991-2008, drawing on event management, sport management, and urban planning contexts. An inductive iterative analysis of definitions was undertaken, in which key themes were identified and definitions assessed against these. While numerous definitions were reviewed, it was concluded that none adequately clarify what legacy entails for strategic management application.

The major contribution that the paper makes through definitional review, is to identify the key elements of legacy for application to strategic sport event management. In doing so, this paper contributes to both theoretical debate and strategic practice surrounding the emergence of ‘legacy’ as justification for staging sport events. The authors argue that for legacy to continue as a major policy justification, clarity of legacy conceptualisation must be developed. The paper concludes by suggesting further research surrounding the notion of legacy in the sport event context.

Key words
Legacy; Sport Events; Strategic Management; Event policy

INTRODUCTION

Public policy planners and event organisers are increasingly promoting potential economic, tourism, social, and/or environmental legacies to justify significant public investments required to host special events. Many studies of sport events have presented economic impact evaluations, which have found that in the short-term, the events have not necessarily provided the positive economic outcomes as originally anticipated (Crompton, 1995; Crompton & McKay, 1994). Researchers and policy makers have thus called for a longer-term focus on a holistic evaluation of economic, social and environmental outcomes, suggesting that real and justifiable economic returns cannot be realised around the short-term event life cycle.
Over the last two decades, the notion of event legacies has emerged as the rationalisation behind this longer-term focus (Bianchi, 2003; McIntosh, 2003). Allen, O’Toole, Harris and McDonnell (2008) argue the increased importance of legacy within the event management context, noting that “for some events, particularly large-scale public events, the issue of legacy has become central to the decision to host or create them” (p.115). However, this legacy justification is complicated by an inconsistency of conceptualisations of legacy across academic and industry practice (Moragas, 2003). Available legacy literature outlines the problems involved with defining legacy as “a matter of debate and controversy” (Essex & Chalkley 2003, p.95). Legacy is regarded as multifaceted (Chalip 2003), multidimensional (McCloy, 2003; Moragas, Kennett, & Puig, 2003), and elusive (Cashman 2003).

However, if this is so, how can the concept and its inherent benefits continue to be promoted as a policy justification? This paper contributes to both theoretical debate and strategic practice surrounding the emergence of ‘legacy’ as justification for staging sport events through definitional review and identification of key considerations of legacy for application to strategic sport event management.

METHODODOLOGY AND RESULTS:

The following section provides a review of contemporary definitions of legacy within the sport event context, through which an understanding of the broad conceptualisation of legacy is achieved. These definitions come from the broad tourism, events, sports and urban planning literature and are presented in chronological order.

This definitional review is the result of undertaking an inductive iterative analysis of current legacy definitions. From a broad review of the literature, articles that featured a definition of legacy were focused upon for an in-depth analysis of the key considerations inherent to legacy within a sport event context. 14 articles were identified over a period from 1991-2007. Preliminary reviews of the definitions led to the construction of a matrix, which identified the main themes used in the definitions to conceptualise legacy. Five key elements of legacy were identified, and are summarised as:

1. Terminology - use of ‘legacy’ as opposed to another term;
2. Legacy as automatically bestowed or needing to be planned;
3. Temporal nature of legacy - permanent or long-term;
4. Legacy as positive and/or negative; and
5. Legacy as a local and global concept.

Each of the 14 definitions was analysed within the matrix and assessed against these five key elements, the results of which are summarised in a definitional matrix, presented in Table 1 below. The first column lists the author and year of the article publication. The second column indicates the paradigm or context of the author’s approach to defining sport event legacy. The remaining five columns present the main themes identified in the definitional review.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author &amp; Year</th>
<th>Paradigm/Context</th>
<th>Terminology</th>
<th>Legacy as: Planned or Bestowed</th>
<th>Legacy as: Long-term or Permanent</th>
<th>Legacy as: Positive and/or Negative</th>
<th>Legacy as Local and Global</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Getz, 1991)</td>
<td>Tourism - economic and infrastructure focus</td>
<td>Legacy</td>
<td>Bestowed</td>
<td>Permanent</td>
<td>+ve &amp; -ve</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>(Hiller, 2000)</td>
<td>Urban sociology</td>
<td>Outcomes</td>
<td>Planned; Integrated</td>
<td>Long-term; Permanent</td>
<td>+ve &amp; -ve</td>
<td>Local &amp; Global; Local planning &amp; development spread</td>
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<tr>
<td>(Moragas et al., 2003)</td>
<td>Olympic Symposium conclusion</td>
<td>Legacy</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Local &amp; Global</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Barney, 2003)</td>
<td>Micro-economic</td>
<td>Legacy</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Long term; Past, present &amp; future</td>
<td>‘Something of value’ +ve</td>
<td>Local &amp; Global; Multi-layered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Chappelet, 2003)</td>
<td>Broad view, Winter Olympics, comparison to Summer Games</td>
<td>Legacy</td>
<td>Planned</td>
<td>Long-term</td>
<td>+ve &amp; less +ve</td>
<td>Local &amp; Global; Local, region &amp; country; Contextual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Essex &amp; Chalkley, 2003)</td>
<td>Urban planning; Infrastructural focus, both summer and winter Olympics</td>
<td>Legacy</td>
<td>Planned; Integrated</td>
<td>Long-term</td>
<td>+ve &amp; -ve</td>
<td>Local &amp; Global’ OCOG vs City goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Kidd, 2003)</td>
<td>Sports development perspective</td>
<td>Legacy</td>
<td>Planned</td>
<td>Long-term; Permanent; ‘Lasting’</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Local &amp; Global</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(McCloy, 2003)</td>
<td>Sports Development perspective; Facilities focus</td>
<td>Legacy</td>
<td>Planned</td>
<td>Long-term</td>
<td>+ve</td>
<td>Local &amp; Global; Host cities &amp; ‘host regions’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Author &amp; Year</td>
<td>Paradigm/Context</td>
<td>Terminology</td>
<td>Legacy as: Planned or Bestowed</td>
<td>Legacy as: Long-term or Permanent</td>
<td>Legacy as: Positive and/or Negative</td>
<td>Legacy as: Local and Global</td>
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<tr>
<td>(Chalip, 2003)</td>
<td>Tourism</td>
<td>Legacy</td>
<td>Planned; 'Leveraged'</td>
<td>Short term &amp; Long term; Before and after</td>
<td>+ve</td>
<td>Local &amp; Global; Host city, region &amp; country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Preuss, 2003)</td>
<td>Economic</td>
<td>Legacy</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Long term; Permanent &amp; Transitory</td>
<td>'all effects’ +ve &amp; -ve</td>
<td>Local &amp; Global</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Roche, 2003)</td>
<td>Olympic Games</td>
<td>Legacy</td>
<td>Potential</td>
<td>Future &amp; past</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Local &amp; Global; ‘Glocal’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Getz, 2005)</td>
<td>Tourism - Economic &amp; infrastructure focus</td>
<td>Legacy</td>
<td>Planned</td>
<td>Permanent</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Preuss, 2007)</td>
<td>Economics</td>
<td>Structure</td>
<td>Planned &amp; unplanned</td>
<td>Permanent</td>
<td>+ve &amp; -ve</td>
<td>Local, Region &amp; Nation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The articles are now assessed in turn

1991-2000

Getz’s (1991) exploration of events and their legacies is largely based in a tourism paradigm. Getz outlines that “part of the justification for enormous capital investment in events is the promise of legacy for the host community or nation” (p.30). He does not commit to a definition of legacy, but generally includes legacy areas such as: ‘Profits and Investments’; ‘Social and Cultural Legacies’; and ‘A Legitimate Payback for Grants’ (p.30-31). Within the glossary, Getz includes a definition of legacy to be:

“The physical, financial, psychological, or social benefits that are permanently bestowed on a community or region by virtue of hosting an event. The term can also be used to describe negative impact, such as debt, displacement of people, pollution, and so on” (p.340)

Getz focuses on the tourism legacies with an essential focus on economic outcomes from tourism development including infrastructural and physical improvements or
additions. He acknowledges that there may be both positive and negative outcomes, and suggests that by hosting an event, a community will experience legacies as permanent and bestowed, or automatic. However, this early definition lacks consideration across many of the other matrix cells compiled through the iterative analysis.

Hiller (2000) argues from an urban sociology perspective that event-related development must be incorporated within localised urban planning with a long-term focus rather than as a one-off occurrence. Within his discussion he outlines the possible benefits and costs that the hosting of a sport event may offer a city in terms of urban development. Hiller (2000) prefers to use the term ‘outcomes’ instead of legacies, and defines this as:

“permanent improvements to the built environment. Social improvements, of course, may benefit some people more than others” (p. 195).

Hiller outlines negatives through associated costs instilled by urban development, such as displacement of people living in localities earmarked for gentrification. He also notes the need to plan for legacies, and the permanent nature of legacy

2003

A significant contribution to legacy literature was the publication of Symposium papers from “The Legacy of the Olympic Games 1984-2000 International Symposium Lausanne 2002”. The Symposium conclusion inferred that the multidimensional nature of legacy evaded a clear definition, instead romanticising the notion that Olympic legacy is both a local and global phenomenon. As Moragas et al. (Moragas et al., 2003, p. 495) explain, “it seems clear that the legacy of the Games is not exclusively the property of the former Olympic host cities: rather it should be understood in global and universal terms as the legacy of the Olympic Games”. Although dealing with the local and global concept of legacy, this definition did not fulfil any other cells in the definitional matrix.

Barney (2003) considers the symbolic capital of the Olympics that has influenced the financial viability of the Olympic Movement since the 1980s as a legacy. He outlines the five-ring symbol as concreting legacies through economic potential as well as symbolism, and also discusses television and the increased corporatisation of the Games pursuit of advertising dollars. Barney (2003) describes legacy to be:

“something received from the past, most often of value to the present, and, indeed, most certainly to the future” (p. 43), and “something to build on for the future” (p. 45).

Whilst Barney’s perspective is narrowly focused, the definition adds a temporal dimension to the concept of legacy. This is presented through an understanding that legacy is built through the event lifecycle, before, during and after events, and is not something that is automatically bestowed at the end of an event.

Chappelet (2003) focuses on legacies from the Winter Olympics, outlining that the nature of two editions of the Games requires very different planning and resources,
and that each event context offers very different long-term impacts for host communities. Chappelet defines legacy in the case of the Winter Games as;

“a long-term impact on the Olympic city and its nearby region and possibly on the host country. Although the term “legacy” has positive connotations, the value of an impact can be both favourable and less so” (p. 55).

Chappelet’s definition was the first to address all cells in the definitional matrix, recognising the nature of legacy as planned, long-term, having both positive and less positive outcomes, and existing as a local and global phenomenon.

Essex and Chalkley (2003) also discuss legacy from an urban planning perspective. They caution against common overstatements of legacy outcomes and attribution issues associated with the Games accelerating urban development, rather than instigating it. Essex and Chalkley (2003) consider the possibilities of realising both positive and negative legacies. Consistent with Hiller (2000), they argue that the successful urban developments surrounding Olympic Games have been those which are long-term and embedded in the needs of the host city. Essex and Chalkley (2003) define legacy to be:

“any development that was created as part of the preparations for staging the Olympic Games, even if there is evidence that the development may have emerged in the fullness of time irrespective of the event” (p.95)

Essex and Chalkley’s definition addresses all cells in the definitional matrix and contributes to an understanding of the local and global concept. This is achieved through outlining the need to balance organising committees' goals and long-term host city goals for both successful Games staging and realisation of urban development legacies.

Kidd (2003) presents a sport development perspective for legacy. He criticises existing approaches to sport development which focus on infrastructural legacies as opposed to social legacies of sport development. Kidd suggests that the Olympic legacy has been:

“a lasting legacy of new opportunities for participation, and stirring examples of human achievement, inspiring wider and wider circles of men, women and children to train, clubs to be formed, and public and private sporting investments to be made” (p.135).

This definition addresses most cells in the definitional matrix, and emphasises the notion of planning, although in a different context to the previous definitions. Kidd argues that not enough attention has been given to maximising sporting legacies, as infrastructural legacies have had the greatest focus.

McCloy (2003) supports Kidd’s notion of sporting legacies, through an infrastructure and facilities focus. McCloy outlines that although an event is short in duration, it has significant impacts across a host region. He argues that facilities provision should be embedded in local communities and regions to ensure the legacies of sport development and recreation are maximised. McCloy defines legacy as:
“a post-Games long-term well-planned usage of sporting facilities that can positively impact on the health and well-being of citizens in the Olympic host region” (p.155).

McCloy states only that legacies are positive, and does not refer to negative outcomes. This definition also recognises legacy as being realised only post-Games, rather than existing throughout the event lifecycle. McCloy’s definition also provides further strength to the local and global concept with the use of region-specific infrastructure development for legacy outcomes.

Chalip’s (2003) definition of legacy has a tourism focus:

“the tourism legacy of an Olympic Games is multi-faceted and widely based. Its effects are both short-term and long lasting. It encompasses visitation to the host city and country for many years before and after the Games. It is a legacy whose benefits reach beyond the host city to the host region and country. Indeed, its benefits go beyond sport. It represents more than an economic gain; it can provide a substantial increase in social capital. For these reasons, Olympic hosts can benefit greatly from a well-planned and well-coordinated tourism leveraging strategy” (p.204).

Although Chalip does not refer to the potential negative outcomes in this definition, there is an emphasis placed on planning and implementing leveraging strategies in accordance with the event that will maximise the tourism legacy outcomes locally, regionally and nationally. This planning emphasis is consistent with Hiller (2000) and Essex and Chalkley’s (2003) definitions.

Preuss (2003) views legacy from an economic perspective and defines economic legacies to be:

“all economic effects that are related to the Olympic Games after the closing ceremonies that would not have occurred without the Games. The transitory benefits have to be distinguished from the permanent benefits. The most famous transitory benefit is the “economic impact” which occurs through investments in infrastructure and tourist expenditure during the Olympic Games” (p.244)

Preuss’s definition does not address notions of planning, but does identify the dynamic impacts from the sport event, being both short-term or ‘transitory’ benefits, and longer-term outcomes. This is an important contribution to outline the temporal dynamics of economic impact surrounding the event, and the longer term impacts or legacies. Preuss’s notion of ‘permanency’ is outlined, and is consistent with the permanent nature of legacies as discussed by Hiller (2000).

Roche (2003) presented a discussion of Olympic Games, global civility and postmodernity, defining legacy as:

“future-oriented as well as past-oriented, and which attempts to recognise the adaptive potential as well as the traditional-conserving potential of the Olympic Movement” (p.302).
Similarly to Barney (2003) and Chalip’s (2003) work, Roche recognises the temporal element of legacy as not just occurring post-Games. While not referring to the positive or negative nature of legacy, he outlines the local nature of the Games (city not nation) and the relationship with globalisation, contributing to an understanding of legacy as ‘glocal’. Roche refers to the Olympic legacy by way of its significance in acting as a catalyst for change within a host city, whilst the Olympic Movement continues to instil Olympic values and traditions.

**2005-2007**

Getz (2005) built on his 1991 definition to include the notion of ‘leveraging’ benefits to create a legacy in a number of areas including:

“nontourism benefits (e.g., business and trade), promoting the destination (branding, image enhancement, media management), and developing a permanent legacy (money, facilities, other infrastructure, enhanced capabilities, etc.)” (p.144).

This definition does not address the notions of positive or negative legacies, or notions of local and global effects, and maintains the notion of permanency from his earlier definition. However, Getz (2005) now recognises the importance of planning to achieve legacies.

Preuss (2007) in his more recent work, attempts to refine the definition of legacy as:

“Irrespective of the time of production and space, legacy is all planned and unplanned, positive and negative, tangible and intangible structures created for and by a sport event that remain longer than the event itself” (2007; p.211).

Further, Preuss indicates that these dimensions of legacy may operate locally, regionally and nationally. He put forward this definition in an attempt to provide a more comprehensive definition for application to sport management. Whilst the definition does address all cells in the definitional matrix, Preuss moves away from the use of the term legacy, and instead, prefers the term ‘structure’.

**DISCUSSION: KEY CONSIDERATIONS OF LEGACY**

The analysis of current legacy definitions, as reported above and portrayed in the definitional matrix, helps provide an understanding of the key considerations that are inherent to legacy within a sport event context.

Whilst the definitions reviewed in the previous section have provided the basis to identify the key considerations of legacy, in this section, broader events literature is reviewed to provide an in-depth understanding of each of the five identified characteristics. First, the issue of terminology is discussed, focusing on use of the term ‘legacy’, as opposed to other terminology such as ‘impact’. Second, a discussion is presented addressing the need for strategic legacy planning as opposed to legacies being ‘bestowed’. Third, the temporal dimensions of legacy are explored, considering the ‘long-term’, ‘sustained’ or ‘permanent’ nature of legacies. Fourth, the positive and negative outcomes of legacy are presented. Finally, the local and global
dimensions of legacy are explored, with consideration of the many levels at which legacy exists.

1. Terminology

As has been discussed in the definitional review and indicated in the definitional matrix, while the majority of authors use the term ‘legacy’, Hiller (2000) prefers the term ‘outcome’ and Preuss (2007) prefers ‘structure’ when conceptualising ‘legacy’. Cashman (2003) has put forward several arguments regarding the inadequacy of the term ‘legacy’. First, there are different meanings of the concept in the English language. As Cashman (2003) explains, English definitions of legacy allude to anything that is left over from an event. Second, there is an absence of a direct translation in European languages and problematic translation to non-European languages (Cashman, 2003). This is important due to the international nature of events, and the associated need for universally understood terminology for strategic management and policy development and evaluation.

In line with Cashman’s (2003) argument, Preuss (2007) also believes that generic definitions are not suited to how the term ‘legacy’ is used in the sport event context. Preuss (2007) highlights three key assumptions of the generic definition of legacy, which assumes that: 1). legacy is something owned; 2). legacy is something passed on by will; and 3). legacy is inherently positive. By addressing each of these three definitional assumptions, Preuss goes on to offer reasons why these do not translate to a sport event context. First, the assumption that legacies are owned is disputed, given that the legacies from sporting events are often not owned by any particular entity, but instead exist as a public good. For example, public amenities, infrastructure and the psychic capital of the city’s residents are non-rival and non-excludable, meaning everyone has the opportunity to enjoy the legacy. Second, within the sport event context, negative legacies, such as inefficient sporting arenas often exist, and were not intended to be left by will. This also supports critique of the third assumption, which sees legacies as inherently positive, when in fact, in the sport event context, there are often negative legacies left behind.

While there are valid arguments as to why a term other than legacy could be used, as Cashman (2003) has previously argued, to avoid using the term legacy is problematic considering the wide usage and acceptance that the term legacy now has in both academic and industry arenas.

2. Legacy as bestowed or planned

A theme that was evident through the definitional review was whether authors referred to legacies as bestowed (Getz, 1991), or planned (Chalip, 2003; Essex & Chalkley, 2003; Preuss, 2007). Those who view legacies as bestowed consider legacies to be automatic endowments for the city as a result of simply hosting a sport event. The assumption of bestowed legacies may be accurate to a certain extent. For example, a sport event that requires infrastructure and attracts tourists will likely leave a legacy of sporting facilities and urban infrastructure, and some degree of enhanced tourism industries (Carvalhado, 2003; Castellani, 2003; Westerbeek, Turner, & Ingerson, 2002).
However, the staging of a sport event does not guarantee that a city or region will automatically experience positive legacies (Garcia, 2003; Heinemann, 2003; Spilling, 1996). For example, many cities have been left with significant debts from infrastructure costs, and some infrastructures have not continued to be used for the public good due to the cost of maintenance (Gold & Gold, 2007). In these instances, to ensure legacies are positive and not negative, they need to be strategically planned (Chalip, 2003; Essex & Chalkley, 2003; Preuss, 2007).

Unfortunately, recent studies reveal that planners focus more so on staging Games, and then legacy considerations follow (Cashman, 2003; Guala & Scamuzzi, 2003). As Castellani (2003) outlines, “without a clear vision and firm strategy of implementation, the results could be erratic or even negative with budget deficits and poor outcomes” (p.419). Instead, what is needed is to realise that sport events are not a means to an ends (Chalip, 2004, 2006). Many authors argue that planning for an event needs to be embedded in the broader plans of the host city and communities (Carvalheido, 2003; Dansero, Segre, & Mela, 2003; Essex & Chalkley, 2003; Gardiner & Chalip, 2006; Hiller, 2000; Masterman, 2003; Preuss, 2007). This integration and strategic use of events enables the event to be leveraged for broader economic, social or environmental objectives that stakeholders hope to achieve as event legacies (Chalip, 2003, 2004, 2006; Getz, 2005; Spilling, 1996).

3. Temporal nature of legacy

Throughout the definitional review there was found to be limited consensus regarding the temporal dimension of legacy. Some authors described the temporal dimension of legacy using labels such as long-term, permanent, or lasting (Getz, 1991, 2005; Hiller, 2000; Kidd, 2003; Preuss, 2007), while others described legacies as existing before, during and after an event, either in the short-term or long-term (Barney, 2003; Chalip, 2003; Preuss, 2003).

The nature of legacies as a permanent outcome for host cities and their regions is suggested by a number of authors (Getz, 1991, 2005; Hiller, 2000; Kidd, 2003; Preuss, 2007). Typically, these authors argue legacy from an economic, tourism or urban development perspective, in which the infrastructure legacies of sport events, such as permanent facilities and amenities, tend to be the focus of legacy. However, caution must be taken when referring to the permanency of legacies from hosting a sport event. In the sport event context, there are cases where existing infrastructure is under utilised and commonly referred to as a white elephant. Also, a trend that is increasingly common, is the use of temporary infrastructure as a significant contributor to venue management practices for staging sport events (Taylor & Edmondson, 2007), as was recently observed in the Beijing Olympics (Hall & Callick, 2008). Thus the notion of permanent legacies will not necessarily apply to all types of legacies that are potentially gained by hosting sport events.

The importance of clarifying the temporal dimension of legacy is consistent with the strategic management application of the concept of legacy to the sport event context. In particular, understanding of the temporal dimension of legacy is critical in setting boundaries and time lines for evaluation, and to be able to attribute certain legacy outcomes to an event.
4. Legacy as positive and/or negative

The fourth key consideration is the positive and negative potential of legacies. This consideration is understood through the varied legacies that a city or region and its population may experience. There is an acknowledgement that outcomes may not always be positive, and that there are many examples of negative legacies from hosting sport events. It is important to address this consideration of legacy as poor planning may result in a host city or region experiencing the negative fall out from an event for many years after, including financial implications, environmental impacts, and social impacts.

To manage the positive/negative legacy consideration, there is a need to maximise positive and limit negative outcomes for sport event legacies, as has been previously highlighted in this discussion (Dubi, Hug, & Griethuysen, 2003; Preuss, 2007). However, planning to maximise positive outcomes and limit negative outcomes is complicated by the fact that the legacies may be subject to perception, and that two stakeholders may take very different viewpoints on the same legacy outcome. As an example, from one perspective, policy makers and business elites may perceive a rejuvenated public space and business precinct as a positive legacy. Yet, from another perspective, there may be lower socio-economic groups who become displaced from their homes and communities as a result of rezoning legislation, increased land values and rental prices (Garcia, 2003; Searle, 2003).

5. Legacy as local and global

The definitional review found an important consideration to be the local and global concept of legacy. The literature revealed a contextual and dynamic nature of sport events, reflecting a relationship between local and global interests. The definitions reviewed indicated that a range of legacies can potentially be achieved for the host city, region and country through the hosting of a sport event. As Roche (2003) explains, given that a sporting event is awarded to a host city, and not a host country, in turn, the host city becomes almost a ‘world city’. Roche coined the term ‘glocal’ to describe the nature of contemporary sport events, where they operate on various levels, within a local community as well as in the global community. This so, there is consistently significant expectation that a city-based event can be leveraged so that the city, region and nation can experience long-term benefits, including those related to sport (McCloy 2003) and tourism (Chalip 2003).

In addition to identifying the continuum of legacies achievable for the host city, region and country, the literature also suggests that legacies can be conceptualised differently depending on the stakeholders, be it the host city, or the organisations that govern the rights to a particular sport event. Each stakeholder has different purposes and interests in staging the event and different expectations as to what will constitute their legacy. The challenge of the local and global concept is to balance the differing objectives so that all stakeholders maximise their positive outcomes and limit negatives outcomes.

As a key consideration of legacy, it is critical to balance the local and global dynamic of sport events. A strategic approach is necessary to ensure that legacies can be realised not only for the host city, but the wider region and nation. There also needs
to be recognition that while each event stakeholder has its own agenda, they need to work cooperatively to achieve the desired legacy outcomes.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS:

This paper has reviewed 14 definitions of legacy and identified through iterative analysis, five key considerations of legacy with the purpose of critically analysing current conceptualisations. While there has been an increase in the use of legacy as a justification for intervention in sport events, this review demonstrates that a limited consensus exists around the conceptualisation of legacy. It is important that a strategic management approach is taken to legacy promises and planning, as there remains a certain sense of ambiguity around the term, for example, what it means to various stakeholders and what are management implications for legacy planning and evaluation.

The first key consideration of using the term ‘legacy’ as opposed to other terminology is an important factor in this growing area of sport event management. As authors have argued, it is important that common terminology and conceptual understanding is established (Cashman, 2003; Getz, 2002; Preuss, 2007).

The second key consideration of legacy as bestowed or planned is important, and is an area that has received a significant amount of attention in recent years. The majority of authors would argue that legacies cannot be left to chance, with an anticipation of bestowal, but rather that leveraging strategies need to be put in place around the event to ensure the desired outcomes are achieved.

The third key consideration was the temporal dimension of legacy, and the need for boundaries to be set within the specific event or organisational context to allow strategic planning, implementation and evaluation to be carried out.

The fourth key consideration discussed was the need to acknowledge the positive and negative nature of legacies, with a view to maximise positive, and limit negative legacy outcomes. In doing so, it also needs to be realised that the legacies may be subject to perception, and that two stakeholders may take very different view points on the same legacy outcome.

The fifth key consideration was the local and global concept of legacy. Once again, this consideration reveals the importance of defining and bounding legacies within their context in order to establish strategic frameworks, considering what each of the stakeholders wants to achieve and setting down strategies to balance objectives and maximise outcomes.

There is a definite need for further research and conceptual development in the area of legacy management for special events, and sport events specifically. As the literature has argued, legacy has evaded strategic management applications through romanticised notions of the elusive nature of legacy. However, as other authors have argued, there is a need for defining, planning and evaluating legacy within specific contexts due to the significant investments of public funds (Chalip, 2004; Hiller, 2000; Preuss, 2007).
The authors argue that for legacy to continue as a major policy justification, clarity of legacy conceptualisation must be further developed. Furthermore, the authors will look to build on this current contribution by empirically testing these five considerations on a number of sport events, and analysing how conceptualisation, planning, and measurement of legacy is being approached from a policy and strategic management sense. This will lead to a secondary outcome of developing a definition for legacy based on this preliminary review and the further empirical analysis.

REFERENCES


PLANNING FOR EVENT SEQUENCING: A CASE STUDY OF MACAU’S MAJOR MULTISPORT EVENTS FROM 2005-2007

Sushil Karamchandani, Danny O’Brien and Ken Butcher
Griffith University

Abstract

Hosting sport events requires substantial investment, particularly in the form of infrastructure development. Some host cities have attempted to spread the infrastructure cost over a number of events. This practice of event sequencing has not to date, been addressed in the literature. This paper investigates this phenomenon through an internal stakeholder perspective. A qualitative ethnography was conducted in Macau, a Special Administrative Region of China, which hosted three international multi-sport events in three consecutive years - the 2005 East Asian Games, the 2006 Lusofonia Games, and the 2007 Asian Indoor Games. This paper also introduces the phenomenon of event fatigue which emerged in the Macau community due to the hosting of three major sport events consecutively. Event fatigue refers to the potential loss of interest that may emerge in a host community as a result of having “too much of a good thing.”

Keywords: Event Sequencing, Event Fatigue, Sport Events, Macau.

INTRODUCTION

Sport events are an integral part of the tourism strategy of many cities (Gratton, Dobson, & Shibli, 2000), as tourism planners pursue the purported economic benefits often associated with hosting international sport events. However, such events also require substantial investment, particularly in the form of infrastructure development. To maximise such investments, some host cities attempt to spread the costs over a number of events. In New Delhi, for example, significant investments have been made in sports facilities for the 2010 Commonwealth Games. The Indian Olympic Association also made an, albeit unsuccessful, bid for the 2014 Asian Games, and announced plans to bid for the 2016 Olympics. The aim was to “host the Olympics for free” in terms of sport infrastructure development (BBC, 2007, paragraph 7) while also attempting to ensure the newly constructed venues do not become ‘white elephants’ after the 2010 Commonwealth Games. While this strategy of event sequencing has become increasingly popular, empirical research on this phenomenon is lacking.

The purpose of this paper is to explore event sequencing through an internal stakeholder perspective. Macau, a Special Administrative Region (SAR) of China, forms a unique research site as it hosted three international multi-sport events in three consecutive years - the 2005 East Asian Games (EAG), the 2006 Lusofonia Games (LG), and the 2007 Asian Indoor Games (AIG). The subsequent section presents the relevant literature, and is
followed by a discussion of the research methods employed. A section explaining the results then follows, leading to conclusions and implications.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In the first part of this review the concern of ‘white elephants’ left behind by sport events is discussed. This leads to the call for strategic planning in event management to facilitate longer-term outcomes. The second part presents a broad overview of literature on social impacts of sport events and introduces the notion of event fatigue.

Strategic Planning in Sport Events: Developing an Events Portfolio

Sport events draw large audiences and are capable of attracting multi-billion dollars in revenue. In the US, the “Big 4” national sports leagues generate approximately US$16 billion annually, with an additional US$51 billion and US$26 billion in sports apparel and athletic footwear sales, respectively (Plunkett Research, 2008). In Australia, thirteen of the Top 20 highest rated television shows during 2007 were live sports programs (AFC, 2007), while major sport events in Australia generate approximately AU$3 billion in tourism revenue per annum (Commonwealth Department of Industry, Science and Resources, 2000). In France, the 2007 Rugby World Cup attracted an additional 400,000 visitors to the country, contributing €4 billion to the French economy (Rugby New Zealand 2011 Ltd., 2008). Such figures highlight the lucrative nature of the sport events industry, leading to growing investments globally. Indeed, a surge in tourism and local economy, along with improvements to sports facilities and local infrastructure, are some of the most commonly cited benefits used by governments and event organisers to justify the heavy expenditure needed for hosting sport events (Chalip, 2000). However, such benefits are rarely realised (Bramwell, 1997; Mules 1998), while the stadiums and facilities created for major sport events often go under-utilised (Getz, 1989). In Barcelona, for example, the diving and baseball facilities for the 1992 Olympics were eventually demolished as they were under-utilised. Similarly, the London Development Agency had considered demolishing the Olympic stadium post-2012 Olympics as no “anchor tenant” was found to occupy the venue post-Games (Mann, 2008).

The costly under-utilisation of venues left behind by major sport events has been of concern since the early years of the modern Olympics. As Pierre de Coubertin, founder of the modern Olympic movement, noted soon after the London 1908 Olympics:

… if the often exaggerated expenses incurred for the most recent Olympiads, a sizeable part of which represented the construction of permanent buildings, which were moreover unnecessary as temporary structures would fully suffice, and the only consequence is to then encourage use of these permanent buildings by increasing the number of occasions to draw in the crowds - it would be very unfortunate if these expenses were to deter (small) countries from putting themselves forward to host the Olympic Games in the future (IOC, 2003, parenthesis in original).
Although event venues are commonly justified as “urban development” of host cities, they have a tendency to act as substitutes for it (Raco, 2004; Smith 2007). In a study commissioned by the International Olympic Committee (IOC) in 2003, some of the key recommendations included the development of new venues only if such legacies were required within the host community, while also reviewing the required venue capacity before construction in order to avoid developing Olympic ‘white elephants’ (IOC, 2003).

Getz (1989) suggests that the ‘white elephants’ left behind by major sport events reflect a lack of strategic planning on the part of responsible authorities. Flyvbjerg, Holm and Buhl (2002) note that although proposed megaprojects are based on rational arguments, the implementation of such projects often see cost overruns due to strategic misrepresentations which occur as a result of power struggles among politicians. Indeed, both Bramwell (1997) and Mules (1998) call for a more strategic approach to generating longer-term benefits through the hosting of sport events. The strategic leverage of events responds to this call. Since the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games, a growing body of work has addressed sport event leverage (cf. O’Brien, 2006; 2007, O’Brien & Gardiner, 2006; O’Brien & Chalip, 2007). Chalip (2004) was among the first to suggest that a city’s event portfolio serves as a leverageable resource to attract visitors, trade, and media coverage. Brown, Chalip, Jago and Mules also suggest the importance of developing a portfolio of events, as “different events may be used to strengthen, enhance, or change particular aspects of a destination’s image in particular market segments” (2002, p. 170). In other words, varying event types may appeal to different local and international-based market segments, therefore, an event portfolio can allow organisers and destination marketers to target a wider audience and develop varying, but complementary, association sets for the destination.

Hall (1992, p. 173) adds that a “wealth of tourist infrastructure and ‘ready-made’ tourist attractions does not ensure the long-term future of event hosts as a major tourist destination.” Therefore, although events are sometimes one-off occurrences (Getz, 1997), the hosting of a particular event need not be a one-off investment for host cities; rather, events that complement the destination’s desired image need to be organised at regular intervals to reinforce association sets in the minds of the destination’s targeted audiences. While a host community’s events portfolio is perceived as the starting point in the event leverage literature, the concept itself has not been thoroughly investigated. Moreover, the event sequencing increasingly adopted by many host cities to spread costs over a number of events has similarly escaped empirical investigation. The current paper contributes to this aspect of the literature.

Social Impact: “How much is too much?”

Along with the economy, sport events also impact a host destination’s society (Fredline & Faulkner, 2001; Green & Chalip, 1998). These include enhancements of community’s recreational facilities, job creation, build up of traffic during events, and increase in housing costs, among several others (Reid, 2007). While many social impacts, both
positive and negative, have been noted within host communities, this paper focuses on one specific social impact that has not been previously addressed in the literature. That is, the phenomenon of event fatigue. While the term “event fatigue” is not alien to event managers, it has never been addressed within event management literature. Event fatigue refers to the loss of interest in events that may occur within a community due to weariness from having too many events in succession. In practice, the phenomenon is of concern to some event organisers. In Townsville, for example, organisers of the Australian Festival of Chamber Music have rescheduled event dates in order to avoid event fatigue due to a clash with a motor sport event to be held there. The event’s General Manager stated, “we are a small community... you have to ask yourself how much does the family dollar really stretch?” (ABC News, 2008, para. 4-5). The issue of limited time and funds appears to closely tie-in with event fatigue, which has also been dubbed “wallet-fatigue” (Hales, 2007). Melbourne was noted to be undergoing event fatigue during 2006 and 2007 as a result of hosting too many ‘big events,’ including the Commonwealth Games, Formula 1 Grand Prix, and World Swimming Championships, which resulted in some locals feeling ‘evented-out’ (Bolger, 2007). Richard Williams of the Guardian notes:

Attendance at the four days of the grand prix meeting was certainly down on every day except that of the race itself while radio and television phone-ins buzzed with calls claiming that "enough is enough" and "people have a limited amount of funds and time" to expend on tickets to world-class events (Williams, 2007, para. 12).

While such examples indicate the significance of considering event fatigue during event planning, there is a definitive lack of conceptual knowledge and empirical research on the topic. The next section explains the research methods employed to address this gap.

METHODS

This study was conducted as part of a broader study on the Macau AIG, which was aimed at assessing the marketing strategies employed by the organising committee, along with the economic and social outcomes of the event. During data collection, the researcher was appointed by the AIG’s marketing agent as an Anti-Ambush Operations Manager, and carried out a qualitative ethnography. This involved participant observation, which incorporated informal discussions with key stakeholders. Atkinson and Hammersley (1994) advocate the use of participant observation when the research is exploratory in nature, rather than testing hypotheses. Data gathered were further supported by semi-structured interviews. Jennings (2001) suggests that such interviews enable the researcher to frame questions around specific topics, while providing the interviewee open space to discuss other issues s/he considers relevant. Secondary data gathered included statistics and marketing collateral from the Olympic Council of Asia and the organising committees, along with news reports.
Participants

Informal discussions were conducted with internal stakeholders, including event volunteers, staff, and contractors, and external stakeholders such as business owners from the local community and visiting delegations. Thirteen semi-structured interviews were conducted from 2007-2008. As the broader study focused on marketing strategies implemented by organisers, internal stakeholders were the main focus for semi-structured interviews. Interviewees included nine employees, three contractors of the AIG and one tourism board representative. Out of the nine employees interviewed, eight were involved with the organising committees throughout the East Asian Games, Lusofonia Games, and Asian Indoor Games. They had joined the Macau East Asian Games Organising Committee (MEAGOC) at different phases of planning, which was then transformed into the Lusofonia Games Organising Committee (COJOL) and the Macau Asian Indoor Games Organising Committee (MAIGOC). The researcher also maintained contact with several colleagues post-event, which allowed the researcher to conveniently recheck or gain further insights on specific datum.

The commonality between the three events was that they were multi-sport events. However, many of the featured sports varied. The EAG featured many Olympic sports, such as athletics, shooting and table-tennis, along with some sports that were popular within East Asia, such as dance sports and wushu (Chinese martial arts). A total of 2,800 athletes and officials from nine nations participated from the East Asia region, including China, Korea, Japan, and Mongolia. The event was held from October 29 – November 6, 2005.

The inaugural LG featured 700 athletes from 11 Portuguese-speaking nations, such as Brazil, Mozambique, Portugal, East Timor, India and Sri Lanka, participating in eight sports, many of which were Olympic-sports, with the exception of futsal. The event was held from 7-15 October, 2006. The AIG featured 1,792 athletes from 45 Asian nations participating in 17 non-Olympic sports, such as extreme sports, indoor athletics, kabaddi, electronic sports and finswimming. The event was held from October 26 – November 3, 2007.

Materials and Procedures

Interview questions were primarily focused on the AIG, which was the prime research site for the broader study. Through informal discussions the researcher took notice of the previous two multisport events organised in Macau. Moreover, 11 out of 13 interviewees referred back to the EAG or LG at some point during the interview, which led to further exploration of the planning and consequences of Macau’s hosting of the three major sport events consecutively. Questions were developed to serve as a guide, and were modified based on the role, involvement, and the responses of the interviewees. Some key questions included, “Which event out of the three got the best response from the
“community?”, “Which event do you consider to be the best experience?”, “What were some of the key challenges faced when planning for the next event?”, and “How were these challenges met?”

A semi-overt participant observation was conducted, whereby some members of top management were informed about the research interest (Whyte, 1984). Semi-structured interviews conducted in 2007 took place within the seven days that followed the conclusion of the AIG. One interview with an employee of the organising committees was conducted in 2008. With consent, all interviews, except two, were recorded over a digital voice recorder for accurate transcribing.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The findings of this study are discussed in the following four subsections. The first three subsections highlight some key developments and concerns based on each of the Games from 2005-2007. These are followed by a broader discussion of the outcomes of hosting the three sport events consecutively in Macau.

East Asian Games - 2005

As with many major sport events, hosting the East Asian Games entailed costly investment for Macau. Originally budgeted at approximately US$250m, the Games reported a total expenditure of more than double the estimate, US$525m (MEAGOC, 2006). A little over US$400m of that expenditure was spent on the planning and construction of sports venues, the most expensive of which was the US$75m Macau EAG Dome, dubbed as “the pride of the city” by the organisers (Alladin, 2005a). MEAGOC justified the venues as a legacy left behind from the Games, as one MAIGOC employee suggested:

In terms of the East Asian Games at least there is one legacy, which is the sports venues …The sports infrastructures of Macau were nothing before the East Asian Games, and now they have proper pavilions … and I believe that from this point on it would be easier for the local athletes to dwell as sports persons because they have the venues now.

MEAGOC was established by the Macau SAR Government on January, 2002, for the purpose of “conceiving, preparing, planning, promoting and implementing the 4th East Asian Games” (MEAGOC, 2006, p. 92). The event was promoted as the largest-ever in Macau and took approximately nine years of planning (Alladin, 2005b). The “newness” of the event made it easier to promote to the local community, who were already interested in learning more about a multi-sport event. As one employee from the promotions department suggested:
EAG was easier to promote. Because all the people were interested, “How about the Games?” And for the first time Macau will host such a big event … And there were many venues that they never had.

Games-related promotions started during 2001, primarily through sponsoring or partnering with established annual local events, such as the Macau Grand Prix and Walk for a Million, among several others (MEAGOC, 2006). Games-related competitions were also organised, calling for entries from the local community for the design of the Games’ mascot, logo, and slogan. Along with the construction of new venues and increase in Games-related promotions, 12,141 volunteers supported the Games, along with over 260 full-time staff members, who averaged a monthly salary of US$2,160. Involving high number of local school and university students as volunteers, particularly within the opening and closing ceremonies, secured support from parents and families, as illustrated in the following statement:

The majority of the performers were local students, they worked hard. So, if not by anything else, there was already a huge involvement by the community, because the kids were there, and Macau is very small, so, we can probably say that everyone was there!

While this may have contributed towards attracting large crowds for the opening and closing ceremonies, the majority of the sport competitions were played before near-empty stands. A few celebrity athletes from China, such as Olympic champions Guo Jingjing (diving) and Liu Xiang (hurdles), did attract crowds; however, overall the attendance fell below MEAGOC’s expectations (Alladin, 2005a). Although MEAGOC claimed that ticket sales were high, with over 70% sold through pre-bookings (Pereira, 2005), it was soon discovered that a great portion of those ticket sales were due to heavy ticket purchasing by government agencies in order to show support for the event. However, most tickets were not utilised as these agencies were too busy to further distribute the tickets among staff and encourage them to attend the competitions (Pereira & Coleman, 2005). Moreover, the EAG coincided with annual local events, such as the Macau Fringe and the Macau International Music Festival (Sio Teng, 2005), the consequence of which is discussed in the final subsection.

At the event’s conclusion, as the massive expenditure on organising the Games became clearer, the community started demanding explanations. The overrun of Games budget meant that each resident paid approximately US$1,150 in the form of taxes to fund the Games (Macau Business, 2006a). A government investigation was launched into the budget overruns, where the Audit Commissioner criticised the excessive spending on the Games, noting a budget overrun of 51% (Macau Business, 2006b). Towards the end of the investigation, Macau’s Secretary for Social Affairs and Culture assured closer scrutiny during future sport events, as both the LG and AIG were in planning stages (Macau Business, 2006b). However, as one interviewee suggested, “the community had already lost faith after the East Asian Games.”
Lusofonia Games – 2006

COJOL was established in January 2005. Manuel Silverio, the 1st Vice President of the Macau Olympic Committee (MOC), along with the Portuguese Olympic Committee, played an important role in establishing the Association of Portuguese Speaking Olympic Committees (ACOLOP). ACOLOP was formally established during mid-2004 with Macau appointed to host the inaugural Games, without a formal bidding process.

The event was held at a smaller-scale than the EAG. However, in order to attract more spectators, COJOL reconsidered the original EAG ticketing-strategy, and issued one reasonably priced Games-pass, rather than a variety of ticket categories. COJOL reported a total ticket sale of over 60% (COJOL, 2007), however, that did not necessarily reflect on the spectator stands.

I think, the Portuguese community was more excited …. Macau is, like, 2% Portuguese population …. Honestly, in terms of the media attraction, I think the 2006 Games was something so new that it didn’t really catch (on) much … And it’s something you need to explain itself as well, “it is for Portuguese speaking nations. Like French speaking, or English speaking countries.”

As the interviewee suggests, the concept behind the Games was too unique, and as the Games were not established, efforts were needed towards communicating the event concept to the local population. Given that the community would just be recovering from the shock of budget overruns for the East Asian Games, along with less than one year remaining to exclusively market the particular event, the event was difficult to promote.

Asian Indoor Games – 2007

The Macau Asian Indoor Games Organising Committee (MAIGOC) was formed during May 2004 (MAIGOC, 2008). However, as interviewees suggested, the majority of planning and operations only began during January 2007, as post-event reports needed to be prepared for the LG until the end of 2006. Interviewees also highlighted that Macau had not bid for the AIG. The AIG was the biggest of the three events in terms of number of sports and participating nations, however, some employees suggested that because the event was not as well established as the EAG, it appeared to be “a downgrade.” There also appeared to be a lack of awareness in the community about the event. The following excerpt from the researcher’s journal highlights one incident suggesting a lack of event awareness among community members. The incident occurred outside Macau Fisherman’s Wharf (MFW), a popular tourism spot with family entertainment and restaurants. MFW was a sponsor of the event and hosted the Games’ cultural programs. This incident occurred less than two weeks prior to the event.

… I asked the employee at the ticket-sales counter of MFW if she was aware of any Asian Indoor Games related events taking place at the wharf. She
seemed confused, so I took out my accreditation and showed her the … Games’ logo, to see if she recognised the symbol … she didn’t … As my bus passed by the main entrance of MFW, I noticed the Games’ mascot and the countdown clock almost 15 metres into MFW.

At the time of the incident a great portion of the theming and dressing of the city as part of the “Games’ Look” program, was still in the implementation phase. It was only approximately one week before the event that Games-related theming was launched. Chalip (2006) and O’Brien (2007) advocate the importance of theming widely throughout the city in order to create a feeling of celebration within the community while fostering social interaction. However, unlike most other events of a similar scale, where extensive Games-related theming is done many weeks prior throughout the city, MAIGOC primarily dressed the event’s venues along with a few key central tourist spots and hotels. While some employees suggested “time” and “budget constraints” to be key factors in modest theming initiatives, one employee highlighted:

(Sounding disappointed) yes, for the EAG there was a lot of promotion, but the thing is that eventually there are other departments that are holding other kinds of events … like the Macau International Trade and Investment Fair, the Grand Prix. So it becomes a battle over which space to take. So, “it’s nearer to this event” so they’ll get most of that space during the period. It’s very difficult to just dress up Macau in one or two days (parentheses added).

However, interviewees suggested that as athletes and officials started arriving in Macau, the community gradually began to notice the event. Moreover, MAIGOC made a last-minute decision to distribute the tickets for free in order to attract spectators. While some competition venues appeared to be reasonably full, the spectators also included athletes and officials that cheered their national teams in other sports. The presence of the IOC President along with other VIPs at the opening ceremony, also received significant local media coverage.

As with the LG, expenditure on the AIG was closely monitored and kept under the estimated budget. Total expenditure on the Games was approximately US$43m (MAIGOC, 2008). MAIGOC operated with 126 fulltime staff members, paid an average monthly salary of a little over US$ 2,500. Meanwhile, the Games hired 6,184 volunteers, which was almost half the number of volunteers compared to the EAG (MAIGOC, 2008). As for community support for the AIG, the following statement by a MAIGOC’s cultural events department manager highlights one of the challenges faced by the organisers:

We had some difficulties inviting school students to perform for the opening ceremony … because it is not the first time we have had such a big show, so they were not very interested in participating … They weren’t willing to spend hours training after school for the performance. The schools got pressured from the parents who felt that after school their children still had
to go for training and studies. So the schools got complaints, like “why do our children need to participate in all these kind of things?”

Event Sequencing in Macau: Key Issues

Macau serves as an appropriate case study of a destination with a large events portfolio. From 2005-2007, Macau’s events were not only limited to the three multisport events, but also featured other sports, cultural events and conferences. These included the annual Grand Prix, Macau International Marathon, Macau International Trade and Investment Fair, and the Macau Fringe. Along with this, many private hotel owners organised world-class events, including a concert by the Black-Eyed Peas and the US National Basketball Association exhibition games.

Community support is noted to contribute towards the success or failure of an event (O’Brien, 2007). In Macau’s case the community appeared to support the EAG as evident from the high volume of volunteers and response to the Games’ opening night. Although competitions took place in front of near-empty stands, two factors need to be considered: 1) many of the pre-booked tickets sold to government agencies did not get distributed and would have, therefore, been unutilised; 2) the EAG schedule coincided with the Macau Fringe and the Macau International Music Festival, the latter of which attracted over 10,000 spectators with ticket sales of over 96% (Cultural Affairs Bureau, 2005). In the two events that followed in 2006 and 2007, community support was lacking, as highlighted in the earlier subsection. The limited promotions, particularly in case of the “bigger” AIG, also contributed to some employees feeling the event was a “downgrade” from the EAG. Accordingly one employee suggested:

“Macau has had too many of these events, so it may have killed the excitement for people.”

Within the organising committee there was a steady decline in full-time employees, from over 260 during the EAG to 126 during the AIG, the latter of which was referred to as the ‘bigger’ event. Meanwhile, the average monthly salary rose from US$2,160 to US$2,500. As discussed earlier, the number of total volunteers was also much lower during the AIG in comparison to the EAG. It would, however, be unwise to ignore the shortage of labour and the rise of casinos that emerged in Macau in between these years, and continues to be a growing issue (Associated Press, 2007). As one interviewee noted, “2006, and 2007 especially, was a time if you’d walk by yourself, you’d be snatched by some head-hunter (chuckles).”

However, almost all employees expressed a stronger bond with the EAG, suggesting, “there is nothing like the first Games.” Filo, Funk and O’Brien (2008) note that the sense of fellowship an event engenders can lead to attachment towards the event. Employees of the Macau EAG set up a virtual community through a networking website, Facebook during November 2008. As of December 3rd, 2008, the group had 95 members, with 83
photos posted by various members, depicting the many personal and wider Games-related memories they shared. For the Games that followed, however, the employees that continued with COJOL and MAIGOC appeared to be lacking enthusiasm. As the researcher noted in his journal, “there appears to be a general attitude of just getting the AIG over and done with.” The following statement by an employee suggests a reason behind this:

… our team changed slightly through the years … initially there were two managers taking care of two areas, and then it was only one handling both areas … Then, in 2005, there was a lot of time for them to think of a lot of things. So there were a lot of theories and preparations that they were excited about. In 2006 and 2007 it got pretty much down to earth …. Because they realised there was just not much time to do it all for each of the Games.

Also noted was a lack of support from the government departments, particularly post-EAG. Towards the end of an interview with a tourism representative, the researcher noted in his journal that both the tourism and sport departments appeared to be “fulfilling ‘formalities’ more than developing strategic partnerships.” Illustrating this, one MAIGOC employee suggested:

Back in 2005 I proposed a high commission between cultural institutes, the tourism and sports … And they said I was crazy …. I think it’s just public service -- it’s jealousy! … You know, ‘I have the grand prix’ they say in the tourism department, and ‘I have the East Asian Games’ and ‘I have the music festival.’ Every day they have their own back-yards and grow their own vegetables and say that their food is the best. And they’re just not committed to work together.

Partnerships between sport, tourism and economic development agencies are suggested as a key to maximise benefits through hosting of such events (Chalip, 2001). In Macau, the limited support from government departments resulted in the coinciding of events, which contributed to the lack of adequate space to promote the events locally. The excess of events by various opposing departments would further contribute to fatigue among community members.

**CONCLUSION**

This study demonstrates some issues that need to be considered when planning for event sequencing. The study of Macau’s multi-sport events from 2005-2007 suggests that the scheduling of the three Games one year apart presented insufficient timeframes to effectively promote the 2006 and 2007 Games locally. Tighter planning schedules impacted employees, who were excited when planning for the first event, however, eventually “mellowed down” during the 2006 and 2007 Games. Findings concur with
Chalip (2001), who highlights the importance of tourism, sport and economic agencies working together. As noted, there existed minimal support from other government departments, some of which were occupied with promoting their own annual events. This resulted in a battle among event organisers over the limited marketing space available within the city.

This paper also introduces the phenomenon of event fatigue, which occurred within the Macau community. Findings suggest that the budget over-run during the 2005 Games, along with the frequency of the multisport events, resulted in a loss of interest among community members to participate in the Games. This study provides a first step for future research into the area of event sequencing and event fatigue. While an events portfolio is suggested as a starting point for leverage, this study suggests the need for more detailed research in the area. Essentially, the question to ask when planning for a series of events, is, “how much is too much?” while also considering the timeframe needed for community members to “recover” from one event before moving on to the next.

REFERENCES


Abstract

Internationally the past three decades has seen a significant growth in the staging of major sport events (Cashman, 2006). These events are staged by host organisers and governments for many varied reasons. One rationale often provided by governments to justify their investment in such events is that they will encourage their population to become more physically active through sport participation. The purpose of this paper, therefore, is to explore the impact that hosting major sport events has on sport participation for a host nation. To address this research question two recent events hosted in Australia, the 2003 IRB Rugby World Cup and Australia’s qualification for the 2006 FIFA Football World Cup, are investigated. The findings from the study suggest that both the sports of rugby and football witnessed an increase in sport registrations following the staging of the events. These increases however, with the exception of the junior rugby category, were consistent with the recent trend for each sport.

Keywords
Sport Participation, Legacy, Rugby, Football, Trickle-down effect

INTRODUCTION

Participation in sport is viewed as an important aspect of social life for many cultures (Vamplew & Stoddart, 1994). For more than a century now, in countries such as Australia and Great Britain, the common vehicle for sports participation has been through local sport club membership (Cashman, 1995; Sport England, 2004). A key feature of the local sport club system is that it provides the club members with the opportunity for regular and structured sport competition (Shilbury, Deane & Kellet, 2006). Not only does being a member of a sport club provide participants with many social benefits, the physical activity associated with playing sport has been also been shown to improve ones health and mental wellbeing (Steptoe & Butler, 1996).

Given the range of benefits associated with sport participation, governments for many years now have been advocating greater physical activity at a community level through organised sport competition (Stewart, Nicholson, Smith & Westerbeek, 2004). As a consequence of promoting the benefits of playing sport to their constituents, governments have often used the staging of major sport events as a method to foster and promote physical activity (Cashman, 2006). Through the hosting of major sport events such as the Olympic Games, governments in the past have increased their funding for sport programs and infrastructure in the event lead up
period (Toohey & Veal, 2007). The aim of host governments and policy makers has often been to build on the political capital, as well as the social capital, that ensues when staging these particular events (Bloomfield, 2003; Toohey & Veal, 2007).

Given then the large amounts of public funds expended on the hosting such occasions it is important for event researchers to conduct studies into the effectiveness of these events in stimulating sport participation (Cashman, 2006). To date only a small number of studies have been conducted in this area (Veal & Frawley, 2009). The purpose of this paper, therefore, is to explore the impact that staging major sport events has had on sport participation for a host population. In order to address this research problem two recent high profile sport events, hosted in Australia were investigated. The events include the 2003 IRB Rugby World Cup (held in October 2003) and Australia’s final qualification match for the 2006 FIFA World Cup (held in November 2005). Specifically, the study explored whether these events influenced any immediate increase in rugby and football participation in Australia.

In order to address the research problem official rugby and football registration data were examined for the years leading into each event and then the year immediately post event. In addition, interviews were undertaken with senior sport managers employed by both the rugby and football governing bodies. These managers worked for the national, state and territory rugby and football federations in Australia (further details are provided in the methodology section). The purpose of these interviews was to gain further detail on how each sport organisation was impacted from a participation perspective due to the staging of the associated events.

The paper is divided into four sections. The first section examines the limited number of studies that have been conducted to date on major sport events and sport participation legacy. The second section outlines the methodology employed for the study. The third section examines the two selected case studies. The rugby case study is explored first followed by the football case study. Both case studies start by providing a contextual overview of each event followed by an analysis of the collected quantitative and qualitative data. The final section will conclude the paper and suggest areas for future research.

**Major events and sport participation legacies**

A benefit of staging major sport events that is often promulgated by host governments is that these events will motivate their communities to play more sport (Coles, 1975). The term often used to describe this process is the ‘trickle-down effect’ (Hogan & Norton, 2000). This is where increased mass sport participation is assumed to result from the media exposure generated when covering elite sport performances at major events (Cashman, 2006). For instance, an Australian Government document published in 1973, termed the Bloomfield Report stated: “the focus should not be on the number of gold medals our competitors can win, but rather on the inspiration and impetus their success gives to the citizens of our nation for mass participation in physical activity in all age groups and at all levels of ability” (Bloomfield, 1973, pp. 3-4).

In a later Australian Government report the concept of a sporting pyramid was presented suggesting that where a population is placed in the pyramid structure is determined by their sporting interests and their sporting ability (Coles, 1975). The
pyramid “shape demonstrates that the high-performance apex expands as the base broadens; and it allows for the view that the better the standard of performance at the top, the more it can serve to inspire and encourage participation at lower levels” (Coles, 1975, p. 14). Based on these government reports the Australian Government for more than 30 years has concentrated its sports funding on the elite end of the sports pyramid (Daly, 1991, Hogan & Norton, 2000; Stewart et al., 2004). The rationale behind such government expenditure has often followed the perspective that it is a “powerful and appealing argument in political circles that increasing resources for elite level sport will eventually trickle down to the grass roots levels” (Olds, Dollman, Ridley, Boshoff, Hartshorne & Kennaugh, 2004, p. 109).

A study conducted by Hogan and Norton (2000), titled The Price of Gold showed that through the years 1976 to 2000 the Australian Government spent A$1.37 billion on sport and recreation funding. From this amount 15% was spent on community participation while the remaining 85% (A$1.164 billion) was spent on elite level high-performance (Hogan & Norton, 2000). The study also examined Australia’s performance at the Olympic Games from the years 1980 to 1996. Hogan and Norton (2000) found that through this period Australia won a total of 173 Olympic medals. However, despite this considerable athletic success no clear evidence was found to suggest that a trickle-down effect took place throughout the general Australian population.

Paradoxically, the authors found that from 1984 onwards sedentary levels among the Australian adult population actually increased (Hogan & Norton, 2000). For example, the proportion of obese male and female Australians increased from 1980 to 1995, with only 7.8% of men and 6.9% of women classified as obese in 1980 compared to 17.6% of men and 16.1% of women in 1995 (Hogan & Norton, 2000, p. 214). The evidence presented by Hogan and Norton (2000) highlights therefore that the trickle-down effect did not eventuate in Australia over the years examined. This finding led the authors to state that “it is time to revisit the notion that elite sporting success leads to greater mass participation as a result of the so called trickle-down effect” (Hogan & Norton, 2000, p. 203).

Three later studies by Toohey and Veal (2005), Toohey, Veal and Frawley (2006) and Veal and Frawley (2009) have explored the impact the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games had on sport participation for Olympic and non-Olympic sports in Australia. Despite a short immediate peak after the Sydney Games the research found little evidence of a trickle-down effect (Toohey & Veal, 2005; Toohey et al., 2006; Veal & Frawley, 2009). Toohey and Veal (2005) concluded that Australia’s status as a sporting nation is for the most part based on the performance of its elite athletes, a strong contrast to the moderate levels of mass sport participation found across the general Australian population.

**Methodology**

This research employs a case study methodology. According to Flyvbjerg (2001, p. 70) the strength of case studies as a methodological approach is that they provide “concrete, practical and context dependent knowledge”. Moreover, Yin (1989) suggests that a core benefit of the case study approach is that it allows the researcher to study an organisational or social problem in its natural context. Through this
approach the researchers were able to collect membership registration data directly from the national, state and territory rugby and football federations based in Australia. The registration data was supplemented with interview data collected from senior managers who worked for the governing bodies of both sports. Across the two cases a total of 20 interviews were undertaken. Of these interviews 15 were conducted in person while the other five were conducted via telephone.

In the middle of 2005, the respective Australian national, state and territory rugby unions were approached to see if they would be willing to participate in this study. In total, nine organisations represent the interests of rugby in Australia. Of these nine organisations six agreed to participate within which two in person interviews were conducted with managers from the Australian Rugby Union (ARU) while telephone interviews were conducted with the remaining state and territory organisations. Telephone interviews, rather than face to face interviews were employed due to resource constraints.

A similar process was undertaken for the football case study. In the early months of 2006 the respective Australian national, state and territory football federations were approached by the researchers to determine their willingness to participate in the study. At the time of this study a total of ten different organisations represented the interests of football in Australia. All of these organisations were approached to participate in the study. All organisations except for one were interviewed for the study. A total of 13 managers across these organisations agreed to be interviewed. All of these interviews due to private funding were conducted in person with three of the organisations providing more than one manager for an interview. These interviews took place in the offices of the respective federations across Australia and each interview was recorded and transcribed. The collected data across both case studies was manually coded and separated into key emergent themes (Gratton & Jones, 2004; Veal, 2006). These themes will be discussed later in the results section of this paper.

In addition to the interviews, the study also gathered membership registration data for both sports. This data was collected from the ARU and the governing body for football in Australia, known as the Football Federation of Australia (FFA). The registration data from the ARU included all senior and junior (under the age of 18) male players from the years 2000 to 2004. The ARU registration data for each year and each category was analysed with a particular focus on the percentage change in participation between the years 2000 to 2004. For the football case study, the registration data was collected from all of the state and territory football federations from the years 2003 to 2006, with the exception of the newly formed federations of South Australia and Western Australia.

**The 2003 Rugby World Cup and Australian rugby registrations**

This case study considers the change in rugby union participation in Australia, between the years 2000 and 2004. The analysis is based on registration data provided by the ARU. The registration data presented in this case centres on male players categorised into either a ‘senior’ cohort (18 and over) or a ‘junior’ cohort (under 18). Reflecting the federated structure of Australia, the organisation of Australian rugby consists of six state (New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, Western Australia, South Australia and Tasmania) and two territory unions (Australian Capital Territory
and the Northern Territory). The responsibility for coordinating these state and territory rugby unions is the ARU, the national governing body.

**National senior and junior rugby registrations**
The ARU registration data for both senior and junior players increased from 2003, the year the Rugby World Cup was staged, to 2004 the year immediately following the event. For example, senior rugby registrations increased by 5%, from 2003 to 2004. Over the same period junior registrations increased 20%. The increases in both senior and junior rugby registration between 2003 and 2004 follow a wider trend (see Figure 1). For instance, senior participation grew 16% between the years 2000 to 2004, while junior participation grew by 45% over the same period. Interestingly though for the year leading into the 2003 Rugby World Cup both senior and junior categories suffered falls in participation. In 2003, junior registrations decreased by 408 players (-1.2%) while over this period senior rugby registrations fell by 595 players (-1.6%).

**Figure 1: Senior and Junior Australian Rugby Union Registrations (2000-2004)**

![Graph showing senior and junior rugby registrations from 2000 to 2004](image)

**State and territory senior rugby registrations**
Reflecting the broader national trend senior rugby participation grew across six of the eight Australian state and territory unions following the staging of the 2003 Rugby World Cup. The percentage growth from 2003 to 2004 included: 7% for the Australian Capital Territory (ACT); 6% for New South Wales (NSW); 20% for Queensland; 9% for South Australia (SA); 15% for Tasmania; and 4% for Victoria. In contrast, senior rugby registrations fell in the Northern Territory (NT) and Western Australia (WA) by 12% and 13% respectively.

The increase in senior registrations post 2003 achieved by five of the state and territory unions also follows the trend started in the year 2000 (see Table 1). Strong growth in senior registrations occurred in the traditional rugby markets of NSW (23%), Queensland (67%) and the ACT (15%) between 2000 and 2004. Increases were also achieved in the smaller rugby markets of SA (21%) and Victoria (19%).
However, the smaller and newer rugby playing markets of the NT, Tasmania and WA witnessed a significant decrease in senior player registrations over the 2000 to 2004 period. This included a reduction in registrations of 80% for the NT, 49% for Tasmania and 18% for WA.

Table 1: Australian State and Territory Senior Rugby Registrations (2000-2004)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>2000</th>
<th>2001</th>
<th>2002</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2004</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACT</td>
<td>1,620</td>
<td>1,892</td>
<td>1,778</td>
<td>1,745</td>
<td>1,858</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NSW</td>
<td>17,577</td>
<td>17,665</td>
<td>20,172</td>
<td>20,456</td>
<td>21,622</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NT</td>
<td>1,339</td>
<td>1,083</td>
<td>953</td>
<td>846</td>
<td>744</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Queensland</td>
<td>7,386</td>
<td>7,564</td>
<td>8,714</td>
<td>8,169</td>
<td>9,047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SA</td>
<td>869</td>
<td>835</td>
<td>1,096</td>
<td>958</td>
<td>1,048</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tasmania</td>
<td>611</td>
<td>567</td>
<td>551</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>411</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Victoria</td>
<td>1,742</td>
<td>1,535</td>
<td>1,850</td>
<td>1,981</td>
<td>2,062</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WA</td>
<td>2,504</td>
<td>2,626</td>
<td>2,427</td>
<td>2,433</td>
<td>2,127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>33,648</td>
<td>33,767</td>
<td>37,541</td>
<td>36,946</td>
<td>38,919</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

State and territory junior rugby registrations

For the year immediately following the 2003 Rugby World Cup, junior rugby registrations increased across every Australian state and territory rugby union (see Table 2). The percentage increase for junior registrations from 2003 to 2004 included: a 20% increase for the ACT; 15% for NSW; 41% for the NT; 11% for Queensland; 40% for SA; 32% for Tasmania; 53% for Victoria; and 33% for WA.

The strong increases in junior rugby registrations across Australian states and territories follows a corresponding trend across the years 2000 to 2004. Over this period the NT Rugby Union was the only sport federation that did not achieve a rise in junior registrations, decreasing 68%. From 2000 to 2004, junior rugby registrations in percentage terms increased for the following state and territory unions: 42% for the ACT; 41% for NSW; 22% for Queensland; 36% for SA; 26% for Tasmania; 146% for Victoria; and 30% for WA.

Table 2: Australian State and Territory Junior Rugby Registrations (2000-2004)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2000</th>
<th>2001</th>
<th>2002</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2004</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACT</td>
<td>2,604</td>
<td>2,682</td>
<td>3,510</td>
<td>3,077</td>
<td>3,692</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NSW</td>
<td>12,603</td>
<td>13,257</td>
<td>15,299</td>
<td>15,461</td>
<td>17,784</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NT</td>
<td>816</td>
<td>614</td>
<td>449</td>
<td>345</td>
<td>487</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Queensland</td>
<td>7,747</td>
<td>8,630</td>
<td>10,228</td>
<td>10,285</td>
<td>12,363</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SA</td>
<td>517</td>
<td>489</td>
<td>495</td>
<td>502</td>
<td>701</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tasmania</td>
<td>263</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>273</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>331</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Victoria</td>
<td>618</td>
<td>913</td>
<td>1,046</td>
<td>992</td>
<td>1,519</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WA</td>
<td>1,943</td>
<td>2,105</td>
<td>1,925</td>
<td>1,904</td>
<td>2,529</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>27,111</td>
<td>28,945</td>
<td>33,225</td>
<td>32,817</td>
<td>39,406</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Interview data

Interviews were conducted with senior sport managers from the respective rugby unions. The purpose of these interviews was to explore the impact the World Cup had on rugby registrations for the following 2004 rugby season. The collected data suggests that hosting the event significantly increased the exposure of the sport within Australia. This was particularly the case in ‘non-rugby’ states such as SA, Tasmania and Victoria. The respondents however argued that while the exposure generated by the event was important so too was the game development programs instituted by the ARU. For instance, in the lead up to the event the ARU provided resources for sport development so that the state and territory rugby federations could implement school and community rugby programs.

Development

As displayed by the registration data, rugby participation increased across both male senior and male junior categories. However, the strength of the increases across the junior category was particularly noted by one manager who suggested: “it is by far now more junior and school based than … senior based” (Respondent 1). So while the rugby registrations for senior players increased by 8% between 2003 and 2004, over the corresponding period junior players increased by 20%. A possible reason for this increase provided by the ARU, centres on the delivery of rugby development programs:

Previously schools were left to themselves … if you played rugby it was down to the interest of someone at that school, the Sports Master, which it still tends to be. You need drivers, but we … expanded our programs. One program that we did put on board … was EdRugby. (Respondent 1)

The quality of the school based program called EdRugby was noted in 2004 when the ARU won the Australian Sports Commission’s Junior Sport Award for developing a fun, safe and positive sports program (ARU, 2005).

Funding

Another factor noted by the respondents was the recent commercialisation of rugby, especially from the mid 1990s (Respondent 6; Respondent 7). A clear example of the commercial growth of rugby was the A$45 million profit the ARU made from staging the 2003 Rugby World Cup (O’Neill, 2007). Part of this revenue was allocated to the state federations enabling them to employ further rugby development officers (Respondent 7). As one respondent stated, “in many respects our success in community rugby is measured by participation numbers … The Rugby World Cup … enabled us to increase our resources and programs” (Respondent 2). Likewise, another respondent argued that the ability to employ staff was a significant factor in their ability to increase rugby participation: “we now have six full-time staff and continue to evolve at a rapid rate … The [state] Government is prepared to back this, after achieving over A$8 million in economic benefit from [staging] just two matches during the Rugby World Cup” (Respondent 3).

Profiling the sport

Most respondents praised the exposure rugby was able to achieve due to the 2003 event. One respondent stated the World Cup “definitely created an interest in the
broader community, as it was treated as an event rather than a series of rugby matches” (Respondent 4). Another respondent argued that while the World Cup did not have a significant effect on participation figures a great deal of interest was created in the community for the sport. “It increased the awareness of rugby amongst the young and non-traditional demographics. There was no statistical variation to participation growth … Its effect was probably felt at a spectator level” (Respondent 5). Furthermore, one manager stated that especially for “younger players it is great to identify with the heroes of rugby” and that having access to high profile players “assists in the public interest factor and people go searching for the rugby experience” (Respondent 4).

**Event timing**

Another theme to emerge from the interview data, related to the timing of the Rugby World Cup. The respondents suggested that the staging of the event after the traditional Australian rugby season provided advantages for promoting the sport for the following rugby season. A respondent from the ARU stated that staging the event in October and November 2003 connected well with some of the development programs that they run in schools and the general community.

> The traditional season as far as we are concerned, doesn’t really exist so much in terms of community rugby and particularly at the sampling recruitment end of the game. Quite a lot of our recruitment programs are run in [school] term four and term one, because what we are finding is the analysis of new participants, not the ones that have got a rugby contact in the family or they're already in the system, is that those people are not so entrenched in these competitions that have to be at certain period of time, on a certain day. (Respondent 1)

Both the WA Rugby Union and the SA Rugby Union agreed that the timing of the event was actually advantageous in that it allowed the promotion of the 2004 rugby season, assisting with player recruitment drives that clubs and associations were conducting. According to one respondent “it was the perfect build up and timing. The hype that led up to the World Cup was enormous. The regular rugby [season] and other codes had finished, which left the sole focus on the World Cup” (Respondent 4).

**Case summary**

In summary, this case study highlights that rugby participation in Australia increased following the hosting of the 2003 Rugby World Cup. The registration data suggests that the recorded increases post event followed an already positive trend that started in the year 2000. However, whilst there were increases in rugby registrations across both junior and senior categories, only the junior cohort met the projected ARU target of increasing participation by 15% in 2004 (ARU, 2003). Moreover, the interview data collected from the senior managers representing the national, state and territory rugby unions in Australia suggested that the mere hosting of the 2003 Rugby World Cup was not the sole reason for increased rugby registrations. The interview data highlighted the importance of the ARU’s continued investment in rugby development programs that originally started in the late 1990’s. This investment was viewed by the
respondents as the most effective way of increasing long-term rugby participation in Australia.

The 2006 FIFA World Cup and Australian football registrations

The second case study considers the change in football registrations in Australia between the years 2003 and 2006. The analysis is based on data collected from the state and territory football federations. All the state and territory football federations with the exception of SA and WA were able to provide the researchers with their registration data from 2003 to 2006. The SA and WA football federations stated that they did not have any registration data dating back to 2003, as they were newly formed organisations at the time. The data collected from the states and territories includes male and female football registrations across all age groups. The registration data provided by some of the football federations contained more detailed demographic breakdowns such as age and gender categories. However, more than half of the federations were only able to provide bulk registration numbers without further demographic details. Unfortunately, for this reason the analysis cannot provide junior, senior, male or female comparisons.

The registration data as shown in Table 3 (below) highlights that football participation in Australia increased steadily between the years 2003 and 2006 (12.6%). As outlined earlier in this paper, this steady increase in football registrations takes into account that the Australian Men’s National Football Team qualified for the 2006 FIFA World Cup in November 2005. Hence with the football season in Australia being staged between the months of April and September, any increase in football registrations as a result of World Cup qualification would occur in the 2006 data. For example, Australian football registrations between 2005 and 2006 increased by 4.8%, while between the years 2004 and 2005 registrations increased by a smaller amount of just 2.2%. Between 2003 and 2004, however, football registrations increased 5.1%, an amount slightly greater than for the 2005 to 2006 period. The fact that the growth in football registrations between the years 2003 and 2004 (5.1%) was greater than between the years 2005 and 2006, demonstrates that qualifying for the 2006 FIFA World Cup did not result in any dramatic increase in Australian organised football participation.

Table 3: Australian State and Territory Football Registrations (2003-2006)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2006</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACT</td>
<td>13,505</td>
<td>13,127</td>
<td>12,855</td>
<td>13,526</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NSW</td>
<td>214,420</td>
<td>225,515</td>
<td>228,730</td>
<td>240,741</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NT</td>
<td>2,811</td>
<td>2,900</td>
<td>2,730</td>
<td>2,890</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Queensland</td>
<td>54,624</td>
<td>57,346</td>
<td>61,741</td>
<td>63,538</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tasmania</td>
<td>10,492</td>
<td>12,161</td>
<td>12,338</td>
<td>13,219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Victoria</td>
<td>25,957</td>
<td>27,242</td>
<td>27,371</td>
<td>28,499</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>321,809</td>
<td>338,291</td>
<td>345,765</td>
<td>362,413</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Interview data

Interviews were conducted with the FFA and all of the state and territory football federations with the exception of WA. A total of 13 interviews were undertaken with senior sport managers from these federations. The lead researcher who was based in Sydney, New South Wales, visited all the states and territories with the exception of WA, in order to collect the interview data. Four federations provided more than one sport manager for interview. The interviews were conducted in the middle months of 2006. As with the rugby case study the managers interviewed were asked a range of questions relating to their views on the impact of Australia’s qualification for the 2006 Football World Cup on football registrations. The following themes emerged from the interview data.

Profiling the sport

Each of the managers interviewed were asked to consider the impact that Australia’s qualification had on football participation in their particular state or territory. The respondents suggested that the exposure gained from qualifying for the global football event was the most significant outcome. One respondent argued that “qualification … had a large effect” (Respondent 8), while another stated that apart from the profile gained through qualification, long time supporters had their faith in the sport repaid: “it lifted the profile of the sport, and it gave the true believers of the game some hope that a dream can come true” (Respondent 9). Furthermore, one senior manager interviewed, outlined the duration of the exposure generated from qualification was “sustained” for a period of at “least three months” post qualification (Respondent 10). The continual nature of the awareness generated over a period of time was reinforced: “football has been in everyone’s face and the general awareness is there now” (Respondent 13). These points are further reinforced by another manager who stated that: “absolutely, without a doubt the qualification [was important], the game against Uruguay … after [that] there was enormous interest and we experienced another increase … the interest after the Uruguay game, in November [2005] was phenomenal” (Respondent 15).

Event timing

The timing of the qualification match and the World Cup itself was outlined as a factor that can shape football registrations. For example, some respondents argued that the timing of the World Cup qualification worked against the football federations in promoting the 2006 football season. One manager noted that “because registrations were not taken until February and March [2006] we probably missed out straight after the Uruguay game [because it was staged in November 2005]” (Respondent 15). Another manager when referring to the staging of the actual World Cup in the middle of 2006 stated: “we won’t see whether it reflects in participation numbers for a while. The problem of course is … the last three weeks we have had an average of 10 phone calls a day from people who want to play football. Of course, everyone … is in the middle of their season” (Respondent 11). From a similar perspective another respondent stated that in the build-up to the 2006 World Cup campaign, “enquiries into this office have been huge … [with] parents wanting to know where they can get their kids signed up. Unfortunately the timing is wrong with just six to eight weeks to go [with the current season] it is hard to bring them in now” (Respondent 12).
Development
A number of respondents commented that the interest generated from Australia’s qualification was predominantly directed at the junior football market. For example, one respondent stated that qualification had a “significant impact on juniors … our junior associations are certainly reporting increases in the number of players this year, and they had some steady growth over the previous years” (Respondent 8). The increased interest shown by the junior football market also enabled the football federations to grow the programs that they delivered to schools and clubs. For example, a senior manager commented that even in isolated parts of Australia there was strong demand for junior football programs: “our numbers are up for the [junior] programs we are running next week in Darwin, Alice Springs and the rural areas” (Respondent 13). While, another respondent stated: “from the grassroots point of view we have experienced a 30% to 50% percent increase in our grassroots programs, for the year. We have already surpassed the number of programs in schools that we did all of last year. So the participation numbers are huge and our clubs that usually run one … [football development] program … a year are now onto two and are looking at … a third” (Respondent 17).

Case summary
This case examined the immediate impact on football registrations in Australia as a result of the national team’s qualification for the 2006 FIFA World Cup. Australia’s qualification for this event created extensive local media coverage. This was partly due to the fact that it was only the second time Australia has been successful in qualifying for the event. In line with other studies that have examined sport participation legacy and major events (Hogan & Norton, 2000; Veal & Toohey, 2005; Toohey et al., 2006) the case was unable to exhibit any significant impact on football registrations resulting from Australia’s successful World Cup qualification. Although registrations increased between 2005 and 2006, the actual growth rate between 2003 and 2004 was marginally higher. Therefore, while football registrations in Australia have been steadily increasing between 2003 and 2006, it was found that no significant trend breaking growth occurred in 2006.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS
The two sports examined in this paper both witnessed an increase in sport member registrations following the staging of a major sport event. However, the increased registrations for both sports, with exception of the junior rugby category, were consistent with each sports recent growth trends. The football case study, for instance, highlighted that the registration increase was greater between the years 2003 and 2004 than it was for the year 2005 and 2006, following Australia’s successful World Cup qualification. The football case study, however, contrasts with the rugby case study, specifically with the large increase in junior rugby registrations. This particular category witnessed a significant increase of 20% from 2003 to 2004.

This junior rugby data set contradicts research by Toohey and Veal (2005) and Toohey et al (2006). These two studies found that following the hosting of the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games, only modest increases in sport participation occurred in the host country of Australia. It should be noted though that for this study the researchers were unable to gain access to junior football registration data. Access to this data set would provide further evidence on whether a sport participation legacy resulting from
hosting a major sport event is more likely to influence junior sport participation categories rather senior categories.

Future research should, therefore, consider investigating how hosting major sport events might impact sport participation legacy differently across various demographic groups. Further research should explore whether it is predominantly younger sport participants that are most likely to take up organised sport because of the increased media exposure generated by staging such major events. Furthermore, future research could explore the best sport development practices and methods that sports organisations can employ to effectively leverage their event association in order to build sustained participation growth over time.

In conclusion this study gathered responses from rugby and football administrators that highlighted three main themes that shape sport participation and the hosting of major events. Firstly, the study highlighted the importance of implementing sport development programs both before and after the staging of a major sport event in order to leverage and capitalise on the increased sport awareness. Secondly, the study outlined the benefits of the increased media exposure and profile gained from major sport events and that this involvement provides many commercial and sport development opportunities. And thirdly, the research suggests that major sport event timing can influence how a sport is able leverage its profile in order to promote member registrations for the following sport season.

REFERENCES


LONDON 2012 - WILL IT BE REGENERATION OR RENAISSANCE IN TIMES OF FINANCIAL CRISIS?

Deborah Sadd and Ian Jones
Bournemouth University

Abstract

This paper is part of a PhD study, in its final stages, focusing on the ‘regeneration’ that is proposed for the residents in the area of the Olympic Park developments in the Lower Lea Valley in London. The study is based upon the detailed examination of two past Games and their impacts upon the local residents of the Olympic venues, in Sydney, 2000 and Barcelona 1992. The study evaluates the impacts of the planning for London 2012 to date on the local residents through in-depth, semi-structured interviews. These interviews have been undertaken with planners, government officials, residents and community representatives. An interpretive analysis with emerging themes has highlighted ‘what is community?’, ‘difficulties in stakeholder identification’, ‘what constitutes legacy’, ‘issues with forward planning and ‘problems in communication’. This study also examines the impact of the global credit crisis upon the legacy planning and highlights some of the impacts already being seen with regard to the changes being made by the Olympic Delivery Authority to the original bid documentation. One of these changes includes problems in raising finance for the Olympic Village where the private developers, Lend Lease, have failed to raise bank finance thereby forcing the UK Government to use public funds and the ongoing impacts such difficulties may have in the future on legacy planning for the ‘local’ community.

Key words:
Legacy identification, regeneration, forward planning, stakeholder identification, credit crisis

INTRODUCTION

Chalkley and Essex (1999, 2000) write about events being catalysts for urban change, without articulating directly for whose benefit. Past Games have been excuses for ‘cleansing’ of undesirables, as evidenced in Atlanta in 1996, where many homeless persons were given one way tickets out of town (Mitchell, 1997). In Barcelona, not only were local residents moved to the outskirts of town, Roma gypsies were moved from traditional settlements and forced to relocate to high rise tower blocks (COHRE, 2007). In both Sydney and Barcelona, the ex athletes’ accommodation became desirable properties which greatly appreciated in price (131% for sales and 145% for rentals in Barcelona, COHRE, 2007). As a result only middle class professional people were able to afford them and through the increases in rental values many people had no option but to find alternative accommodation. The current global credit crisis has already affected the London Games planning (Lend Lease, the village developers, have not been successful in securing bank finance), and questions what
long term implications will be seen as a result in relation to legacy planning. In London, the original bid documentation predicted that up to 40% of the available accommodation would be for key workers, yet how will this be managed and controlled, and with ever increasing costs of the Games, will the organisers recognise the opportunity for realising much needed funds from the sale of all the properties?

A report written by the London East Research Institute on behalf of the London Assembly in May 2007 entitled ‘A Lasting Legacy for London’, acknowledged that the urban renewal programme for London would be “challenging”, not least because evidence from previous Games highlighted that whilst programmes of urban renewal were deemed by respective cities to be successful, they nearly all came at the cost of higher property prices benefiting property developers and ‘new’ residents, not the existing population. One intention of the author’s thesis is to question the use of the term regeneration as the blanket flagship terminology, suggesting alternative descriptors that could be used as regeneration implies the existing population remain in situ whereas past studies have shown evidence of revitalisation of areas for different social classes (Mace et al. 2007). London could be the first Games to show true regeneration through benefiting the existing communities around the park.

The research undertaken for this PhD study has involved in-depth, semi-structured interviews involving key personnel from Barcelona 1992, Sydney 2000 and also those concerned with the planning and preparation for London 2012 including residents. The research is based upon an interpretive paradigm with the data being analysed for the themes that are emerging from the similarities and differences across the three different case studies, including lessons learned for London 2012.

Two years ago, in Melbourne, I presented an outline of the intentions of my PhD. Now, two years later I would like to return to disseminate my findings to date and have the opportunity to discuss my research and receive feedback.

MEGA-EVENT LEGACY WITHIN A LONDON CONTEXT

The Olympic Games are widely held to bring a variety of positive social benefits through the process of ‘urban regeneration’. Social impacts, also referred to as soft impacts, are those which are intangible and affect individuals within their everyday lives (Adair et al, 2007).

The awarding of the 2012 Olympic Games to London heralded the promise of the regeneration of an entire area in the Lower Lea Valley in east London into the biggest new urban development seen in Europe for 150 years (Coalter, 2004), with regeneration recognising developments for the benefit of the existing community. Within the development plans, the Olympic Delivery Authority (ODA) has promised to revitalise and restore parklands and waterways, new sporting venues, highways, bridges, utilities and 40,000 new homes covering an area of 2.5 square kilometres. The whole design of the park is based on encouraging and supporting community use of the facilities post-Games, a task that previous Games have not been proactive in securing, and to place a greater focus on sustainable development (ODA, 2006). The community referred to being people who either live, work or have some social
connection with the area within and surrounding the proposed Olympic Park site. Whether these people will be the same ‘community’ pre and post the Games is an area of discussion.

Already the plans for the park have been amended several times and there has been much press coverage of the ever-increasing financial projections (Jenkins, 2008). There are however, far more long-term social legacy impacts for the local site residents than currently reported in the mainstream press. It is impacts on communities, and the role of the voice of such communities in managing such impacts that is paramount. Volrath (2005) argues that legacy is the aims, motives, meanings and impacts of an event (particularly the Olympics) yet more specifically the results, effects and long-term implications. Such a view is now evolving, as legacy is a phenomenon which relates to before, during and after something else happening. Additionally, the use of the term ‘legacy’, whilst used extensively within the Olympic documentation, is not universally recognised and easy to translate, as identified at an International Symposium on Legacy of the Olympic Games (1984-2000), held in Lausanne in 2002. For the purposes of this study the terms benefits, impacts and outcomes (Hiller, 1998) will be used concurrently with legacy. Many writers (Ritchie and Aitken (1984), Haxton (1999), Lenskyj (2000 & 2002), Cashman (2003), Kasimati (2003), Moragas, Kennett & Puig (2003), Preuss (2004), Vigor, Mean & Tims (2005)) use the terms interchangeably, although legacy has a longer term associated time-scale than short-term benefits or impacts.

These legacy impacts can be both positive and negative. However, for a sustainable legacy, all the objectives of the various stakeholders need to be addressed and a holistic approach taken to the development and management of the mega-event facilities so as to leave overall, a long-lasting positive legacy impact.

The use of events may be exploited to redevelop urban areas, through the new infrastructure required and the offsetting of the expenses incurred against the improvements to airports, sewage and housing, especially in infrastructure developments in inner city areas in need of regeneration. This is often quoted as a strong motive for bidding for the Olympic Games. Monclus (2006) associated urban strategies with large-scale international events as having been the catalysts for the urban regeneration but that the architectural and planning context is specific to each city (Chalkley and Essex, 2000). Roche (2003) believes that events, if successful, can develop a positive and renewed image for the host city through the media coverage and the subsequent resulting tourism and inward investment. He further argues that events should be judged not on their impacts, but on their causes and productions, yet urban studies, that is to say, city image and contemporary re-imaging (soft legacy impacts), are a vitally important phenomenon within urban policy. Hu and Ritchie (1987) and Chalkley and Essex (1999; 2000) also believe large-scale events have the potential for being a catalyst for redevelopment, imaging and place promotion. Yet, too often in the past, social legacy has been an afterthought in the planning and execution of previous Games (Cashman, 2006). In particular, the International Symposium held in Lausanne recognised that legacy building must start with the decision to bid for the Games.
Smith and Fox (2007) suggest that large events have always been associated with the physical regeneration of cities because of the opportunities they offer to capitalise upon the softer social and economic regeneration. It will therefore be necessary to examine the soft, social impacts of the housing issues from previous Games in order to identify potential legacy planning issues for London 2012. According to Hall (1997) the creation of ‘desirable’ middle-class living conditions is often a precursor for both higher property prices and increased rents and that the catalyst for change expounded by Chalkley and Essex (1999) actually becomes a fast-track process in which development takes precedence over welfare. The communities most impacted are the ones often least able to affect policy-making and this will possibly be exacerbated by the credit crunch.

PREVIOUS GAMES EXPERIENCES

1. Barcelona

Smith and Fox (2007) write in particular about Barcelona and how three events have shaped the city: the 1888 World’s Fair, the 1929 World Exposition and the 1992 Olympic Games. Barcelona, in particular, is an example of how a city has used mega-events to revitalise the city for the residents, especially in the post-Franco period, by renewing pride and community spirit as well as opening up public spaces (MacKay, 2000; Munoz, 2005). In Barcelona, the 1992 Olympic Games witnessed the relocation of many of the indigenous communities from the waterfront (MacKay, 2000), causing a breakdown in communities’ structures. Through clearing the seafront area, many local businesses and associated communities were evicted even though they had significant social and cultural heritage in being positioned on the seafront in the first place, for example the ‘sea gypsy’ communities (COHRE, 2007). The resultant housing from the former Olympic Village became highly sought after property and led to the gentrification of the waterfront area (with a new community of young professional residents moving into the former athletes properties) and ‘opened up’ the waterfront that had for many years been industrialised (McKay, 2000).

In both Sydney and Barcelona the ex athletes’ accommodation became highly sought after properties which greatly appreciated in price (131% for sales and 145% for rentals in Barcelona, COHRE, 2007). As a result only middle class professional people were able to afford them and through the increases in rental values, many people had no option but to find alternative accommodation. With the current economic downturn will this be the case for London?

2. Atlanta

Ritchie (2000) believes that legacy planning, in respect of the Olympics, can lead to the attainment of long-term benefits to host destination residents, however, Malfás et al (2004) argue that whilst the Olympics may seem attractive through the positive economic impacts, the social legacy impacts may be negative. This is particularly true when residents are forced to leave their publicly funded housing projects in order to make way for event infrastructure. They highlight the case of the Atlanta 1996 Olympic Games where 9500 units of affordable housing were lost and $350 million in
public funds diverted from low-income housing and social services to fund the Olympic preparation.

3. Sydney

Lenskyj (2002), whilst writing about the social impacts of Sydney 2000, openly questions the ‘Best Olympics ever’ title given by the IOC President at the end of the closing ceremony of the Games. She highlights the negative impacts for Sydney, including the lack of consultation, race issues, rent increases and homelessness. Owen (2001) further suggests that for Sydney in 2000, in the areas adjacent to the Sydney Olympic Park, the social and political impacts were overshadowed by the need to provide the physical and symbolic legacies of the Games, i.e. the more tangible elements. Due to a lack of community participation in the planning processes, negative social impacts resulted, not helped by restricting public access to community facilities (Ryde and Waverley local councils lost the use of their swimming pools) and also removing local authorities planning powers. Additionally, many people suffered above inflation rent increases on their properties from unscrupulous landlords in order to force them out of their homes and to capitalise on the money to be made from the Games (Beadnell, 2000). Hamilton (2000) wrote that Sydney’s newest Olympic Sport was the ‘rent race’, and McWilliams (2000) wrote at the same time that some tenants who had lived for 20 years in the same building were given 60 days notice to move out.

4. London’s future plans

London’s bid to host the 2012 Games was successful partly because of its legacy plans for the Games site area, yet the new Mayor Boris Johnson, has been quoted in the UK press that London’s chances of long-term legacy planning have already been lost because of time wasting (Kelso, 2009). This is despite the appointment of Tom Russell to be the Head of Legacy planning bringing his experience from Manchester 2002 where he was the Chief Executive of the New East Manchester Regeneration Company. In London, the original bid documentation predicted that up to 40% of the available accommodation would be for key workers, however, the management and control of this availability, considering the ever increasing costs of the infrastructure, will require the organisers to recognise the opportunity to realise much needed funds from the sale of all the properties, particularly when the proposed developers are having problems raising the money required from the banks.

THEORETICAL UNDERPINNING

Stakeholder theory has now evolved into recognising community as a stakeholder. Altman (2000) writes extensively about ‘community as stakeholder’ and how community stakeholder management is increasingly important in relation to corporate social responsibility (CSR), yet it offers no solution to conflicts that arise in the management of stakeholders. Many companies now ‘invest’ time and resources back into their local communities, often being encouraged to do so by local planning authorities. The problem comes with trying to identify who the community is. In business, managers are usually clear who their stakeholders are (Mitchell et al, 1997;
Altman, 2000; Freeman et al, 2004) and therefore about how they want to do business. In the case of this research topic, The International Olympic Association (IOC), being the ‘lead’ manager of the project, operate strict control and guidance about how the ‘managers’ (London Organising Committee for the Olympic Games and the Olympic Delivery Authority) are to operationalise the Games. This is done through the delivery of the infrastructure to the actual physical Games themselves, all contained within the IOC’s strict guidelines, agreed to at the time of winning the bid. Gibson (2000) argues that having a moral rationale, as much as an economic one, should be treated equally and therefore any ‘harm’ that could be done to communities whether financial or not should be treated equally. In times of credit crisis, this stipulation of moral duty as opposed to economic prudence should take primacy.

The role of the local community may be problematic. They are often more concerned about the impacts the hosting will have on their community than the staging of the Games themselves (Hall, 1997). Therefore, according to Mitchell et al, (1997) Freeman et al (2004) and Parsons, (2008), the extent to which the local community are recognised as stakeholders requires examination. However, the IOC passes this responsibility on to the local organising committees and central government, thus avoiding the issues themselves. This research recognises that within stakeholder theory the primacy is in creating value for the stakeholders involved yet Sundaram and Inkpen (2004) criticise the basic theory because of what they believe to be the inability of satisfactory conflict resolution. This arises when management are unable to work out how to treat all the different parties involved and fail to recognise the number of stakeholders involved.

For an Olympic bid to be successful, Cashman (2006) argues that the host community and key interest groups must be involved from the very beginning as the bid is prepared and therefore acknowledged as being stakeholders. This consultation should continue even into the post games legacy period through recognising the stakeholders involved at all stages and thus becoming contingent to the successful planning. Whilst the politics of the ruling government and the politics of the organising committee may see several changes of personnel, some continuity must exist in key personnel to ensure effective management of the legacy. The mix of stakes and the political complexities of awarding contracts and sponsorships can be volatile if not managed with all the interests of the collaborating parties and stakeholders considered. Total compatibility may never be achieved as the diverging interests of the stakeholders may be too complex, yet solutions to moving towards greater compatibility for the community as stakeholders are possible.

It is evident from the literature review that the soft, social impact legacies seen from previous Games’ research, especially in relation to housing issues, vary greatly and are not always positive. What is not clear at this stage is how London and The Olympic Delivery Authority (ODA) with the task and responsibility of organising the London 2012 Games, can make the long-term legacy impacts for the local residents positive through the development of a new town the size of Exeter once the Games have finished, planning through globally stringent times.
In relation to the health of the area, Hackney, Newham, Waltham Forest and Tower Hamlets have below average self-reported good health and the infant mortality rates for 1996-2001 are significantly higher especially in Tower Hamlets (ODA, 2006). In addition to the health issues, the area is also severely environmentally degraded and in need of more housing stock, especially good quality social housing. The hosting of the Olympics may not solve the underlying social problems of the area but true ‘regeneration’ plans could be leveraged to channel investments into areas that could possibly improve these figures (Games Monitor, 2007). Within the £9bn budget, £2bn is for the preparation of the site and facilities, £2bn for the running of the Games leaving the remaining £5bn earmarked for the regeneration project showing the enormity of the project ahead and that for every £1 spent, 75p is for legacy (ODA, 2006). David Higgins, the Chief Executive of the Olympic Delivery Authority, has argued strongly that the ODA approach to regeneration must include a responsible approach to the Lower Lea Valley that goes beyond just the building of the Olympic facilities and to include long-term legacy planning, especially in calling for more coordination between the ODA and the governmental departments intending to invest in the area. Whether this will be possible when investments are not forthcoming could seriously affect these plans. The Olympics Minister, Tessa Jowell M.P. however reiterated the importance of distinguishing between those commitments needed to satisfy the IOC in the building of the Olympic Park and those costs associated with the regeneration planning, the responsibility of the Department of Communities and Local Government.

“The task ahead for London is to embed the preparation for the hosting of the Games into a broader social policy agenda from the outset. Delivering social legacies are people based issues not facilities” (London Bid Document, p xi).

In London, the Games can generate opportunities for new investments in jobs and other soft infrastructure whilst at the same time physically transforming the landscape. Yet with funding from the private sector scarce, the government has to pledge ever increasing amounts to ensure the infrastructure is in place. The importance of embedding a wide range of projects in the delivery of a sound social legacy can be the impetus to radically develop one of the most disadvantaged urban areas in Europe, however most of these pledges and projections were made before the present economic climate developed. However, critics (Lenskyj, 2002; Olds, 1998; Ball and Greene, 1997; Brent Ritchie and Hall, 1999) would argue that the benefits from these mega-event associated projects are not so straight-forward, as these developments can increase social inequalities through greater than before costs of living, and not necessarily improving the lifestyles of the most deprived members of the community; in some cases even moving them away from the area as seen in Barcelona (MacKay, 2000). Barcelona prices rose by 131% in the five years running up to 1992, compared to 83% across Spain as a whole over the same period – post Games (Kennett, interview 2007). Previous examples highlight the likelihood that house prices within the residual Olympic Village will follow the same pattern. The impact this will have on surrounding property is uncertain as much of it is occupied on a rental basis by immigrant populations. The other issue which will need to be addressed is the
management of the ‘key worker’ properties to be included in the housing developments and how the social mix of owners and occupiers will work in practice as no other Games have had this type of mixed use housing. Barcelona did originally plan to include an element of social housing but it never transpired within the athletes’ village and was eventually built in another part of the city (interview, 2007). It is the organisers intention to turn the athletes’ village into 3,600 apartments, with up to 25% being affordable housing for key workers (train drivers, nurses, police officers, teachers etc), yet this original projection of units has now been reduced to 2,700 (Mathiason, 2009).

Even though each Games is unique, there are already emerging patterns of soft legacy planning which is not always positive. London is beginning to lose the focus of positive long-term legacy development because of other constraints and pressures being placed on the organisers, particularly through the global financial downturn. The local communities as stakeholders need to ensure that the urban regeneration has long-lasting positive legacy impacts. This focus should not be lost; otherwise the post-Games legacy will be costly, not just in economic terms.

**RESEARCH DESIGN**

An interpretive phenomenological approach is being used in an attempt to unravel the meanings contained in the accounts through interpretive engagement with texts and transcripts as valuable archive material (Smith, 1997). The key informant interviews were undertaken with individuals who have roles as stakeholders within previous mega-events, ranging from managerial/organisational roles through government (national and local) positions to local community representatives and in particular with London, present stakeholders, thus being purposive sampling. The choice of informant also allows for insight, knowledge and understanding of the key issues pertinent to this study. The research has an inductive theoretical perspective, where the methodology takes thematic analysis with the actual method undertaken being the in-depth semi-structured interviews. Such an approach permits the researcher to discover the inconsistencies, contradictions and paradoxes that describe daily life and augment understanding of what has occurred, how it happened and why (Pettus, 2001).

**DATA COLLECTION**

Twenty- four key informant interviews were undertaken with individuals in Barcelona, Sydney and London over an 18 month period. Those interviewed included, residents, Council officials, planners, organisers, academics, Olympic Park executives, local mayors, community leaders and community activists. The interviews were all semi-structured discussions of the experiences and recollections of the planning of the three respective Games as stakeholders, including experiences so far in London. An iterative approach was taken to the interviews and the data was then analysed using thematic analysis. Holton (1973) applies a scientific approach to thematic analysis. This seeks commonalities and themes that emerge from the qualitative data but does not disregard themes that appear only once if they are important in relation to the initial aims and objectives of the study. The coding and
identification of key themes emerging will highlight important areas of data needed to meet the objectives of the research. Barcelona and Sydney have been selected as comparative Games to London as they have more similarities than other previous Games in relation to site selection and community structures.

SOME INITIAL FINDINGS

- The findings point to the community referred to before the Games, and the community referred to after the Games as not being the same. An element of social cleansing was seen in both Sydney and Barcelona as neither venue reserved any housing for key workers or planned mix use housing; rather the market was allowed to dictate the occupancy. London needs to clarify the occupancy mix of the athletes’ accommodation post-Games as soon as possible. Local councillors and residents believe that the organisers should sell on all ex-athletes accommodation at market prices, and then build additional units elsewhere in the park particularly designed for key worker accommodation from the outset, thus maximising return on investment.
- London organisers have been requested by community groups to concentrate on mixed use of open space as opposed to mixed housing, and to encourage mixed use of open space to enhance community cohesion as suggested by interviewees in Barcelona. A viable option particularly during financially stringent times.
- In the 5 London boroughs where businesses have been relocated and lost rateable income has placed additional strains on local government budgets in times of financial crisis, there is little evidence of cross borough co-operation, therefore impeding collaborative strength and stronger stakeholder power.
- London organisers, whilst focussing heavily on ‘Legacy’ development, lost crucial time from bid winning to action planning in relation to legacy and community engagement and therefore the ability for local communities to engage effectively as active stakeholders has diminished.
- IOC power supersedes all local planning powers with democratic planning laws overridden by the Olympic Bill as seen in previous Games– yet planning within a cycle of global credit restrictions may cause the IOC to review their requirements; not perhaps in time for London but for future hosts.

CONCLUSIONS

The consequences of the credit crisis have resulted in headlines in the UK:

- Hosting the Olympics is a costly business that exposes a city’s seamy side
- The Lithuanian worker being paid just £50 a day to build our Olympics… and 2012 chiefs are even trying to claim he’s a ‘local’
- Gypsies evicted from Olympics site to be re-housed… in six homes costing taxpayer £2 million
- London 2012 Games failing to reach promises
- Olympic Master Plan would help regenerate east London but fails to ease money worries.
At the time of writing the chosen preferred developer for the Olympic village, Australian firm Lend Lease, has still not secured funding for the development of the village and the European Investment Bank has offered a loan of £225m. Already the village has reduced in size thus denying many people the chance of gaining affordable housing post the Games, with only 2,700 units now being built, yet the percentage of affordable housing may change again if the UK Government has to finance more of the project. Boris Johnson has been quoted that the Games were won in times of economic plenty and that the down turn in the market and recession has necessitated a review of what in the long term is most viable.

For true regeneration to be possible for London, not only do the property prices/rental conditions need to be controlled to keep the locals living in situ, but more importantly they need to have shared open space, and this is something totally achievable by the Olympic planners as a much cheaper option. The need to ensure every piece of infrastructure has a post event legacy and community access to these facilities is perhaps not as important as what will happen to all the open space being created. It would appear from the interviews undertaken that this is a central theme from residents, through to planners to council officials to urban planners.

In conclusion, the global credit crisis may be having an effect on the development of the physical infrastructure, but for true regeneration to take place in the area of the Olympic Park, the use of shared open space will provide the mix of communities that regeneration needs to thrive. Letting the market dictate the housing occupancy of the ex athletes accommodation without providing key worker accommodation elsewhere within the park could result in gentrification of the area for higher social classes. The true locals will then be forced to move to other areas and a slow creep of the gentrified areas will radiate out from the park. London’s bid documentation always stated the regeneration of the area for the local people and this should, for true regeneration, be the communities remaining the same now, in 2012 and post the Games.
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Roche 2003


THE OLYMPIC GAMES AND SPONSORSHIP LEGACY: THE CASE OF SYDNEY 2000

Ashlee Morgan and Stephen Frawley
University of Technology, Sydney

Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to examine the sponsorship legacy experienced by the Australian Olympic Committee (AOC) after hosting the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games. A multi-layered theoretical framework based on the work of Daellenbach, Davies and Ashill (2006) forms the foundation of this analysis. Primary data was collected through in-depth interviews with 14 executives, who were specifically associated with sponsorship and the Sydney Games. The findings indicate the positive impact hosting the Games had on the AOC’s profile and credibility in the sport industry. Conversely, the research found that the AOC’s post Olympic sponsorship projections for the years 2001-2004 were overly optimistic with less than half of the forecasted A$60 million revenue stream being achieved.

Key Words
Sponsorship, Legacy, Olympic Games, Australian Olympic Committee

INTRODUCTION

Over the past three decades the sponsorship industry has seen significant growth (Mullin, Hardy & Sutton, 2000; Payne, 2006). Kolah (2003) outlined that in 1980 the global expenditure on sport sponsorship was approximately US$300 million while in 2003 it jumped to US$26 billion. With this global growth research conducted into sport sponsorship has increased substantially (Farrelly & Quester, 2005; Meenaghan, 1998). While this research has progressed quite quickly there are still gaps that require further attention. Farrelly and Quester (2005) suggest one such gap is why sponsors renew their associations with sport entities.

The purpose of this study is to explore Olympic sponsorship, specifically, from the perspective of a host National Olympic Committee (NOC). The research explored the sponsorship ‘legacy’ experienced by the Australian Olympic Committee (AOC) as a result of being the host NOC for the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games. The study examined the internal and external organisational factors that influenced AOC sponsors in either retaining or terminating their agreements with the AOC after the staging of the 2000 Games. According to Cashman (2006) the legacies to accrue from the hosting of an Olympic Games have been explored from an economic, social and environmental perspective. While a number of studies have been conducted on the marketing and economic development of the Olympic Games and the organisation with the
responsibility for the Olympic Movement, the International Olympic Committee (IOC), very little attention has been paid to sport sponsorship, particularly from the perspective of the host NOC (Preuss, 2000).

The paper is divided into five sections. Initially the contextual background is established. This section provides an introduction to the Olympic Movement and specifically the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games. The following section describes the chosen theoretical framework. This section is followed by an overview of the methodological approach. The fourth section examines the collected data and thematically structures the study’s findings. The final section draws conclusions and suggests the implications to arrive from the research.

CONTEXTUAL BACKGROUND

According to the IOC the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games reached a global audience of 3.7 billion viewers spanning 220 nations (IOC, 2001). This type of media exposure creates an incentive for many organisations to partner with the IOC and host Olympic organising committees to leverage their goods and services to a wide and extensive global consumer market. Since 1985, the IOC through its The Olympic Partners (TOP) sponsorship programme has provided a select opportunity for global corporations to investment in the Olympic Movement. Approximately a dozen companies pay close to US$1 billion, in total, every four years (2005-2008) for this association (Toohey & Veal, 2007). Host Olympic organising committees and the related host NOC’s inherit these TOP sponsors on the proviso that any other sponsors they retain do not conflict with the established product categories.

The AOC is responsible for the organisation of the Australian Olympic Team. It is a non-profit entity and independent of the Australian Government (Gordon, 2003). The AOC represents the interests of the Olympic Movement in Australia as outlined by the Olympic Charter (IOC, 2007). The Olympic Charter sets out the conditions for the staging of an Olympic Games and the role of the host NOC (IOC, 2007). In the organisation of the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games the AOC retained significant power and responsibility within the Olympic organising committee (Toohey & Veal, 2007). The AOC’s power was expressed in two contracts, the Endorsement Contract signed with the NSW Government in 1991, and secondly, the Host City Contract signed in 1993 with the IOC just after the announcement of the successful Olympic bid (Frawley & Toohey, 2005).

These contracts assisted the AOC to gain approximately A$150 million dollars from the NSW Government (Frawley & Toohey, 2005). Approximately A$60 million of this amount was in the form of a Joint Marketing Agreement between the Olympic organisers and the AOC (Morgan, 2006). This agreement provided SOCOG with all Olympic sponsorship rights to the Australian Olympic Team between 1996 and 2000. Considering this organisational history, a question that arises from this situation is how did the hosting
of an Olympic Games influence the sponsorship attraction for the host NOC after the Games? For instance, was there any evidence of ‘trickle-down effect’ or increased commercial benefits to accrue from hosting the Olympic Games? Or in fact does sponsorship attraction become more difficult for the host NOC? To this end the research question set out to explore the effects that hosting the Olympic Games had on an NOC’s sponsorship attraction and activity.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study utilised a multi-layered theoretical approach, based on the work of Daellenbach, Davies and Ashill (2006). Their research suggests that no single theoretical approach can fully explain the dynamic nature of sport sponsorship processes (Daellenbach et al., 2006). In alignment with this view, sponsorship researchers Olkkonen, Tikkanen and Alajoutsijarvi (2000) justify the use of a multi-layered approach to sponsorship research arguing that there is no ‘grand’ theory that covers all possible sponsorship dimensions. Further, Homburg and Plesser (2000, p. 450) highlight that a multi-layered framework can assist organisational researchers in differentiating the “visibility and interpretability” of each layer of data that is explored and investigated.

Although the study of sponsorship in recent years has progressed at a rapid pace, some researchers still see scope for further theoretical development (Olkkonen et al., 2000; Daellenbach et al., 2006). This study attempts to make a contribution in this regard, through the analysis of an Olympic Games and the sponsorship legacy created for the host National Olympic Committee. The following section of the paper will review the selected multi-layered sponsorship framework, independently discussing the five theoretical approaches that compose the foundation of this study. The five theoretical approaches include social network theory, resource-based theory, resource dependency theory, organisational life-cycle theory and institutional theory.

Social networks

Social network theory posits that the decisions and actions of organisations are embedded and shaped by interdependent social networks (Daellenbach et al., 2006; Granovetter, 1985; Lynall, Golden & Hillman, 2003). From this perspective, the social contexts that bind organisations play an important role in moulding how organisations develop and change over time (van Iterson, Mastenbroek, Newton & Smith, 2002). Larson (1992) argues that social relations provide significant opportunities for economic exchange, therefore highlighting the importance of social relationships and interrelated variables such as honesty and trustworthiness. Applying this perspective to the study of sponsorship identifies the role of interpersonal communication processes (Daellenbach et al., 2006). Such processes are likely to influence the development of sponsorship relations and the associated dyadic partnerships (Olkkonen, 2001; Olkkonen et al., 2000). Exploring the factors that influence social interaction underscores the vital role of trust in
understanding the development of partnerships involving those that sponsor and those that are sponsored (Farrelly, 2002).

In this way, sponsorship decisions are shaped by the quality and capability of social networks. Sponsorship researchers such as Farrelly and Quester (2005), argue that sponsorship processes are best analysed within a relationship framework. This refocuses sponsor relations between organisations towards retention and renewal, and not purely acquisition (Gruen, 1997). The analysis therefore shifts from the tangible products produced from sponsor agreements to the social processes that bind the entities together over time (Webster, 1992). Cornwell and Maignan (1998), for instance, suggest that sponsorship research which is primarily focused on objectives and outcomes ignores the essential managerial processes of forming social bonds and the development of enduring social relations.

**Resource-based theory**

Resource-based theory examines the link between an organisation’s internal characteristics and its performance (Barney, 1991). Examining sponsorship from this perspective has gained increasing support in recent years. Amis, Slack and Berret (1999, p. 251), for example, state that sponsorship can be viewed as “an important resource which can help companies to secure a position of competitive advantage”. Likewise, Barney (1991) argues that organisations that perform at higher levels are those who efficiently exploit resource advantages and who successfully leverage their associations and networks.

From a sponsorship perspective, Amis et al. (1999) has additionally identified organisational commitment as being pivotal for sponsorship to be developed into an area of distinctive competence and thus competitive advantage. Acquiring the rights to a valuable sports property, such as the Olympic Games, can become a valuable resource, one that possesses significant potential for competitive organisational enhancement (Weerawardena, 2003). However, sponsorship value is not determined purely by the acquisition of these rights, but also through the ability of a sponsor to fully leverage their association to a targeted market (Farrelly, 2002; Morgan & Summers, 2005).

**Resource dependency theory**

While resource-based theory is focused on internal organisation competencies, the resource dependent perspective is more interested in how the external operating environment shapes a firm’s success or failure (Daellenbach et al., 2006). The resource dependency theory portrays organisations as “open systems, dependent on external organisations and environmental contingencies” (Lynall et al., 2003, p. 418). This approach suggests that the way organisations manage and organise their resources is largely dependent on the external environment (Boyd 1990; Gulati & Gargiulo, 1999). Resource dependency theory also ascertains that environmental factors directly shape and
influence an organisation’s level of dependency (Boyd, 1990). In other words, how organisations manage and organise their resources is largely dependent on the external environment (Gulati and Gargiulo, 1999).

Jawahar and McLaughlin (2001) suggest primary organisational stakeholders are typically the most resource dependent. Their research concluded that “the extent to which an organisation is dependent upon external organisations and stakeholders depends on the importance of a particular resource to the organisation” (Jawahar & McLaughlin, 2001, p.401). Organisations have finite resources (e.g. time, staff and finance) and therefore at times have difficulty managing all relationships simultaneously (Jawahar & McLaughlin, 2001). For this study the degree of attention devoted to dyadic sponsorship relations is dependent on the perceived importance of such a resource (Farrelly, 2002). The resource dependency of sponsors will be explored through the leveraging of their association and through the development of strongly committed and trustworthy organisational relationships (Daellenbach et al., 2006).

**Life-cycle perspective**

Proponents of the life-cycle perspective are concerned with how an organisation’s stage of development influences its behaviour and activities. Strategic partnerships such as the sponsorship of sport result from a variance of strategies, objectives, economic circumstances and time horizons (Daellenbach et al., 2006). It is noted that opportunities and challenges faced by strategic alliances vary throughout the stages of organisational life-cycles (Lynall et al., 2003). From a sponsorship viewpoint, the duration of an alliance can be very influential in shaping dyadic issues such as partner commitment and trust (Daellenbach et al., 2006). Organisational behaviours will vary as relationships move through the stages of alliance formation, growth, maturity and decline or revival (Jawahar & McLaughlin, 2001).

**Institutional theory**

The final theoretical perspective is institutional theory. This approach attends to the deeper aspects of organisational activity, through consideration of the processes that influence organisational structures, rules and routines. Fundamental to an institutional approach is the emphasis on the formation of normative frameworks over time and the manner in which they tend to control and modify organisational behaviour (Lynall et al., 2003). In search for legitimacy and defined structure, organisations can become homogenised in relation to their individual attributes and institutionalised by the confines of their environment (Lynall et al., 2003). From this perspective, organisations enter inter-organisational relationships such as sponsorship alliances to improve their profile or congruence with their stated consumer markets (Oliver, 1990).
**METHODOLOGY**

In order to explore the sponsorship legacy of hosting the Olympic Games, a case study approach was utilised. This case study was inductive and exploratory in nature, examining the impact hosting the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games had on sponsorship activity and dyadic sponsor relations for the Australian Olympic Committee (AOC). The study utilised qualitative research methodologies in order to obtain an in-depth understanding of opinions, attitudes and behaviours, through linguistic and documented data collection (Moore, 2000). The case study was particularly focused on gaining a detailed understanding on sport sponsorship alliance success and satisfaction, and how these elements were shaped by the constituents of social interaction and social trust (David & Sutton, 2004). The value of an inductive approach for this study was that it focused the data analysis on the meaning created by the respondents, thus developing a complex and holistic picture of sponsorship satisfaction (Creswell, 1998).

Primary data was collected through in-depth, semi-structured interviews with 14 key personnel in the industry. Nine interviews were conducted with senior executives representing the AOC and the organisers of the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games. These interviews provided an internal perspective on sponsorship activity and relationship success. Five managers representing current and former AOC sponsors were interviewed in order to gain insight from the other side of the sponsorship alliance. These interviews were conducted in person over the middle months of 2006 with each interview recorded and later transcribed verbatim. With these interviews taking place six years after the completion of the Sydney Games, it is acknowledge that the respondents may have had difficulty remembering all relevant details to the questions they were asked (Veal, 2006). This problem was addressed to some degree through the use of relevant documents such as AOC Annual Reports. The analysis of such reports provided the study with access to sponsorship revenue data as well as related sponsorship information provided by the AOC and its sponsors. In addition to AOC Annual Reports, other relevant internal documents and news sources were examined. These documents analysed included International Olympic Committee marketing reports, the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games post event report, AOC sponsor annual reports and related marketing documents and press releases. News sources and related industry publications were also reviewed.

**RESULTS**

The results are divided into four main themes. The first theme is that of sponsorship legacy. This theme is divided into three sub-themes. These sub-themes explore the positive and negative legacies to occur post Olympics for the AOC, and in addition the unforeseen consequences that shaped the sponsorship environment. The second theme outlines the sponsor attraction to the AOC. This theme is divided into two sub-themes. The first explores the role of Olympism in sponsor attraction, while the second sub-theme examines the importance of competitive advantage and return on investment. The third theme explores sponsorship relations and is divided into three sub-themes which include:
trust; commitment and relationship leveraging. The final theme describes the geographic factors that shape sponsor attraction post the staging of an Olympic Games.

**Sponsorship legacy - positive**

Some of the respondents interviewed suggested that the Sydney Games were successful in raising the profile of the AOC both domestically and internationally. For instance, Respondent 4 stated: “I think it [the Games] put the AOC in a better light. It certainly brought Olympic sport to another level in Australia therefore it made it more attractive for sponsors to be involved”. According to Respondent 10 the AOC’s credibility was enhanced as a direct result of hosting the Sydney Games: “Their credibility increased dramatically following the Sydney Olympics. So is there a direct benefit for the AOC? Absolutely! If you host a successful Olympics you are responsible for driving huge commercial returns for your country”.

**Sponsorship legacy - negative**

While the brand profile of the AOC seemed to increase due to the staging of the Sydney Olympic Games, sponsor attraction did not automatically follow. Even prior to the Games there were comments that the AOC would not receive great benefit from the attention the Olympics would generate. According to McKenzie (1999, p. 25) “Olympic sports will drift back into their largely amateur obscurity. In a 15-second media culture, the Olympics will have to compete with everything else”. The point made by McKenzie (1999) held a great deal of truth for the AOC. The AOC projected revenue declined between 2001 and 2004. For instance, the AOC stated that it would raise A$15 million from licensing agreements (McKenzie, 1999), however, a year later this prediction had fallen to a figure of A$10 million (Lehmann, 2000). In total, the AOC had planned to raise A$60 million in revenue between 2001 and 2004 but was only able to achieve half this amount. The expectations for AOC sponsorship growth as an outcome of hosting the Olympic Games were therefore optimistically high by those involved. According to a senior AOC official:

> We [the AOC] started the quadrennial in 2001 hoping to raise A$60 million in sponsorship … based on the Sydney Olympic experience. We ended up with A$28 million for the four year period, less than half. When you think that of A$28 million there is A$12 million from the [IOC] TOP Program … the Australian market only delivered A$16 million. (Respondent 1)

In 2001 two key Sydney 2000 sponsors, Visa and Coca-Cola, decided not to continue their AOC association, despite their continued sponsorship of the Olympic Games through existing contracts with the IOC. McGuire (2001, p. 34) suggested at the time that “maybe it’s just that six months after the event it is still too soon for some companies to make a decision, or maybe there is still a general Olympic-fuelled malaise
in sport marketing, or maybe there is still a lingering dissatisfaction among sponsors surrounding their treatment at the hands of SOCOG”. In alignment with the points made by McGuire (2001) a senior AOC official stated that “not everything we [AOC] did or SOCOG did [at the Games] was perfect, so we’ve had to give people some time to make assessments” (Tobler, 2001, p. 29). Furthermore, in 2002, AOC President, John Coates stated: “while the AOC concluded the year with an impressive group of sponsor partners, income from this source is now forecasted to be considerably less than originally projected following the success of the Sydney Olympics” (Beikoff, 2002, p. 110).

The impact of the sponsorship downgrade impacted the funding of the 2004 Australian Olympic Team. The AOC made cuts to the team budget (Jeffery, 2003) and at this time the Chairman of the Australian Sports Commission, Mr Peter Bartels, posed the following question “Is our sporting future in serious jeopardy? An honest answer seems to be yes” (Jeffery and Le Grand, 2003, p. 5). In 2003, the year before the Athens Olympics the AOC President confirmed the demise of the AOC sponsorship program, stating: “people have had Olympic saturation. While we have more sponsorship money than we had for the Atlanta Games [1996] it hasn’t been without its pain” (McAsey, 2003, p. 18). As outlined above the initial sponsorship revenue target for the 2001-2004 quadrennial was A$60 million (McGuire, 2001), however, this amount dropped to A$32 million by 2004 (Korporaal, 2004). According to John Coates: “we set an ambitious target, but in hindsight it was not realistic … it has been tough times since the early 2000s” (Korporaal, 2004a, p. 40).

The above findings indicate that due to the success of the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games and the AOC’s heightened visibility, the decrease in AOC corporate interest was unforeseen by a number of Olympic marketing experts. As outlined by one respondent: “the Olympic flavour in the market is still strong … it surprised me a little that they haven’t hung on and exploited it through the AOC as much as they could have” (Respondent 4).

**Sponsorship legacy – a changed environment**

The interview data suggests that hosting the Olympic Games changed the sport sponsorship industry in Australia. The Managing Director of Sport Management and Marketing, the official AOC marketing agency, alluded to this fact in 2003 arguing that the sponsorship industry was very different to how it was prior to the Games (McGuire 2003). Respondent 2, from a similar perspective, suggested that the huge financial investments made by sponsors to the Sydney Games resulted in the evolution of “quite a different market” post 2000. For instance, Respondent 9 believed the market changed “in terms of value for money” while Respondent 4 argued that it “raised the level” or standard of the sponsorship market in Australia. Additionally, Respondent 2 argued that the Australian sponsorship market gained, “essentially a level of expertise and understanding that perhaps it didn’t have before” and that the Sydney Games “gave
people an opportunity to see what is possible with a successful sponsorship” program (Respondent 11).

Although the direct sponsorship benefit from hosting the Sydney Games did not eventuate for the AOC, the collected data indicates that the sport sponsorship industry in Australia post 2000 gained strength. For example, Respondent 05 stated that “sport is as strong as it ever was … it’s got stronger and I think it will continue … Where are the big mass [sponsorship funding] numbers? It’s with sport!” Likewise, The Commercial Economics Advisory Service of Australia Report, indicated that in 2001 it was a steady year for sport sponsorship, and despite the aftermath of the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games, national sport sponsorship increased 1.9 per cent (Masters, 2003). As stated by Respondent 5: “where I thought the corporates would pull away from sport … that’s what was being talked about, the opposite happened and they have still been in sport in a very big way”.

**AOC attraction – Olympism**

The collected data highlighted a strong connection between the attraction of the AOC and the notion of Olympism. The appeal of corporate alignment with the Olympic symbols was repeatedly mentioned during the interviews. For instance Respondent 7 suggested that the corporate world should “aspire to be this … faster, higher, stronger”. Respondent 9, credited their organisational commitment to the AOC because of this

attraction … it is one of the highest profile sporting events in the world, which is all about excellence. So transferring those values of excellence … into our workforce to increase pride, loyalty and motivation. Adopting the high standards of dedication and commitment to the excellence in our work values.

Likewise, Respondent 12 believed the main reason companies became involved with the AOC was due to the possibility of “brand equity transfer”. Similarly, Respondent 10 related the longevity of their Olympic association to the “brand architecture” of the Olympic Movement: “The brand Coke has always been about optimism, youth, celebrating life. There are a lot of values that both Coke and the Olympics share … Coke is about celebrating life and iconic high points in life and the Olympics represent the largest high point in life”. Respondent 12, also referred to emotional attraction stating that “to tap into that [Olympic] passion helps a brand like us differentiate ourselves from our competitors”.

International marketing opportunities and global business potential were also discussed as an influence in corporate enticement. Respondent 5 argued that companies associate with the Olympic Games “simply because it’s a great platform for marketing and promotion and that’s where the big sponsors are [pause] at the international level”. While, Respondent 6 commented that specific association and connection to the AOC brand
allowed organisations to “think global, act local”. The exclusivity of AOC sponsorship was also repeatedly mentioned throughout the interview data. Respondent 1, for instance, stated that “the Olympic Movement has prided itself on exclusivity and also about opening up what we call the value of the rings”. While, Respondent 6 proposed that this aura of exclusivity was strengthened by four prominent elements that make the Olympic Movement a valuable market property: “the highest level of competition … broadest appeal of interest … exceptional brand values … proven commercial success”.

**AOC attraction – return on investment and competitive advantage**

The interview data suggested that there was a mixed view on the direct financial benefit of sponsoring the AOC. Respondent 7 indicated that a number of companies were involved due to the “very strong … commercial arrangements”. Respondent 9, perceived their AOC association as a direct “opportunity to generate revenue”. While similarly, Respondent 11 stated that during the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games “there was a dramatic increase in sales … due to the fact that we developed Olympic specific apparel”. Respondent 7 summarised the financial appeal of the AOC as:

> Why do you sponsor the AOC? It would not be because of the money they get from it, it would be because of the fit of the association, the spirit of Australia, the spirit of the Olympics. On the one hand, no it’s not a financial decision, but on the other hand it’s one of the biggest financial decisions they make.

As highlighted in the above quote pure financial opportunities were not the only rationale for sponsoring the AOC. As outlined above the interview participants referred to the global audience the Olympic Games attracts and the enticement it has for corporate affiliation. For example, Respondent 8 stated that sponsoring the AOC provides: “an opportunity to platform ourselves as an organisation of substance … the AOC tends to attract a fairly healthy stable of leading organisations, and I suppose its brand itself is a good leverage point for us”.

The idea of fending off competition and securing a strong market share was reiterated throughout the interviews. Respondent 9 saw their association as “an opportunity to block out the opposition from doing anything”. While, Respondent 10 outlined the importance of “cementing that image in the mind of the consumers” to ensure competitive advantage is sustainable. Respondent 11, stated that a major attraction to the AOC for the Sydney Games was to “reinforce our position in the Australian market, as a sports brand that is dedicated to helping athletes perform at their best”. Likewise, Respondent 5 argued that the sponsors benefited from the Games “huge attraction to both the media and people in Australia”.
Sponsorship relations – commitment

The interview data indicated that mutual commitment was considered a strong feature on both sides of the sponsorship alliance. In the sponsorship literature, commitment is closely tied with longevity (Farrelly & Quester, 2005) and this was confirmed by Respondent 8 who stated: “to get full return on something it takes a couple of years … you have to be in for the long haul”. Respondent 10 reinforced the importance of longevity referring to their long-term association as “not something that is here today and gone tomorrow, it’s such a long standing commitment … the Olympics exist on such an integrated level in our business”.

It was also noted that not only is longevity important but also an informed understanding of the brand architecture and strategic orientation of the partner entity. As outlined by Respondent 5, “not knowing what companies are like is going in there, with a bit of a wing and a prayer”. The importance of equal commitment between partners was repeated throughout the interviews. Respondent 1, defined commitment in sponsorship as having “common objectives, in other words, what the sponsor gets out of it and what the AOC can deliver and vice versa”. While Respondent 10 argued that mutual commitment is a necessity to ensure success, as relationships take time to build and they “rarely pay back on a short term tactical basis. Where they do pay back, is at a longer term strategic level”

Sponsorship relations – trust

The respondents also agreed that commitment and trust are interdependent conceptually and are therefore inextricably linked and an important determinant to sponsor relationship success. Respondent 10 reflected this view claiming that: “trust and commitment in any business relationship - [and] the parallels with just a normal human relationship - are so explicit. I think that if you are going to be partners with an organisation you have to trust what they are doing”. In this context the protection of the Olympic brand and its related symbols is important not only to the AOC but also their commercial partners. The duality of trust was outlined by Respondent 1, who stated that when it comes to trust “the important thing is that the sponsor has to maintain the correct image for the AOC … [related to] how they use their rights to the intellectual property”. Respondent 5 also reiterated the importance of trust and commitment to the AOC and their brand commenting that “there is a pretty strong commitment to the Australian Olympic Team and Australian Olympic Committee, through a fairly big network of people”.

Sponsor relations – leveraging

Another finding to emerge from the data was that leveraging and sponsorship activation are a major determinant in relationship success and satisfaction. During the Sydney 2000 Olympics Games there was an extensive and supportive structure in place to assist sponsors with their leveraging campaigns. Respondent 5 claimed that SOCOG “would
work with either the sponsors, or its agency, and they would have ideas about how to leverage … and initiate those activities”. This point was supported by Respondent 4 who commented that there were entire sponsorship teams within SOCOG’s structure that helped “leverage sponsors as a whole … ran general campaigns where all the sponsors were involved”.

Respondent 11 additionally outlined that the joint promotions and public relation events conducted by the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games for the sponsors generated a ‘family’ like environment. This respondent described the joint activities as developing a sense of involvement in the Games, and that all the sponsors were “part of one family”. In this regard the findings, to a degree, articulate that current AOC sponsors have not had access to the same level of resources that were provided by SOCOG for leveraging assistance and support. As outlined by a sponsorship manager for an organisation that sponsors the AOC “it’s really up to the individual company itself … to market and promote your involvement” (Respondent 9). Respondent 7 agreed with this viewpoint, describing the AOC’s position as:

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Essentially selling in many ways a blank sheet of paper … the success or failure of the whole program is in the hands of the purchaser. We can conjure, we can encourage … but at the end of the day, inferably the sponsor’s success is in their own hands.
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**Olympic location**

The location of the Olympic Games was listed by the respondents as having a large impact on corporate attraction and sponsor activation. A variety of Sydney 2000 sponsors indicated that the ‘home ground’ appeal was their main motivation for forming an alliance with SOCOG. According to Respondent 11, a sponsor of the Sydney Olympics stated that from “a local perspective it was great … the Games … captured everyone’s attention. It was huge - there couldn’t have been a bigger focus on it”. As a consequence however, of this local attraction, many sponsors ceased their Olympic association post the Sydney Games. A spokesperson for one of the larger Sydney Olympic sponsors stated that their involvement “was a one-off because it was Sydney” (McGuire, 2001, p. 34).

Another factor highlighted by the respondents was that the staging of the 2004 Olympic Games in Athens shaped the decline in the sponsorship appeal of the AOC. For example, one respondent stated that “the level of commercial enthusiasm in taking the Games to Athens was not great … many people commercially regarded Athens as the entrée to the Beijing main course. The same way as Atlanta was always the entrée to Sydney” (Respondent 7). Furthermore, Respondent 5 argued that “after Sydney, the Athens Olympics wasn’t that attractive corporately, but I think Beijing will be the most successful Olympics of all time, commercially”. The positive enthusiasm for the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games was repeated often throughout the interviews. Respondent 8 for
example claimed that “being a closer Games … [make them] more affordable … from a sales promotions perspective”. In support of this point, in April 2005, AOC President John Coates said that the Beijing Games were proving much easier to sell to the corporate world than the Athens Games, however overall sponsorship could still see a drop off of 15% (Lehmann, 2005).

**CONCLUSION**

The Olympic Movement as it functions today could not survive without the financial and resource investment committed by corporate sponsors. The significant reliance on Olympic sponsorship undoubtedly calls for increased understanding of the influences and forces affecting inter-organisational relationships and sponsor activity. It is proposed that further contextual understanding of constituents that lead to dyadic success could increase partner satisfaction and thus improve the longevity of sponsorship alliances. The findings of this study reflect the complexity and breadth of issues associated with the discipline of Olympic sponsorship. As the data analysis indicated, there was a significant demise in corporate interest towards the AOC in the aftermath of the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games. This adverse legacy defied optimistic predictions of financial prosperity for the AOC, as a direct flow on from the success of the Games.

A range of influential factors was identified by this study, with the findings providing an introductory foundation in understanding the interaction between hosting the Olympic Games and NOC sponsorship. Furthermore, this study generates insights into the sponsorship legacies that are applicable to many ambulatory mega-sport events in addition to the Summer and Winter Olympic Games. However, before drawing generalisations from these findings it is important to recognise the context of this study. The cultural characteristics of the Australian sponsorship industry may not be directly comparable to those of overseas markets. Variations in comparative perception by country and the changing nature of sponsorship over time may have a bearing on the contextual validity of this study.

Future research into the internal structure of organisations may provide deeper insights into sponsorship decisions and leveraging activity. Examining the synergistic interplay between corporate culture and organisational objectives may assist sports organisations in providing leveraging assistance for corporate partners. There are many other areas associated with sponsorship and relationship formation that demand further understanding. For example, the strategic compatibility between sporting organisations or events and their corporate partners, and the degree of influence this has on alliance longevity. In terms of relationship marketing, this study focused on the significance of commitment and trust Other variables such as solidarity, integrity and organisational flexibility also demand attention.

It is concluded that although the AOC received vast profile benefit from the success of the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games, this did not transfer into a positive sponsorship legacy.
following the event. The study showed that the AOC was only able to achieve half of its projected sponsorship revenue of A$60 million for the 2001-2004 quadrennial. A number of external environment and inter-organisational relationship variables influenced this negative legacy. The findings are summarised by a senior marketing executive who had the responsibility for the AOC’s sponsorship rights:

When we got to the end of the Games, we rubbed our hands with glee … these companies … spent A$850 million helping us create the Games. Surely we can keep 5-10% of it in team [AOC] sponsorship, and we went back and presented to all of them. Very, very few of them renewed their association with the team and certainly not at the levels we were hoping for. (Respondent 7)

REFERENCES


BEYOND ANECDOTES: THE DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIAL CAPITAL THROUGH INTER-COMMUNITY SPORT EVENTS

Nico Schulenkorf, Alana Thomson and Katie Schlenker
University of Technology, Sydney

Abstract

Sport events are believed to promote dialogue, integration and peaceful understanding among groups, even when other forms of negotiation have not been successful (Croft, 2005; Sugden, 2006). At the same time, sport events are thought to play a role in the construction, reproduction or consolidation of social identities in politically, socially or ethnically divided societies. Better publicised events, such as the Olympics, may demonstrate this social utility of sport, where diverse communities stand and feel together as one. However, the social outcomes from sport events are largely anecdotal. This paper argues that for disparate communities to experience lasting benefits from sport events there is the need to move beyond symbolism and anecdotes. There is a need to examine the active engagement of groups with ‘others’ in participatory sport event projects where they experience first hand the impacts of cooperation and diversity (Auld & Case, 1997; Chalip, 2006b).

This paper discusses the potential of an inter-community sport event in contributing to intergroup development and the building of social capital in the ethnically divided Sri Lanka. It follows an interpretivist mode of inquiry, and findings are derived from the analysis of two focus groups and 35 in-depth interviews with Sinhalese, Tamil, Muslim and international event stakeholders. The paper provides empirical evidence of impacts that influence the stock of social capital available to communities, and it discusses the perceived change in intergroup relations resulting from people’s involvement in the event. In the future communities and event organisers need to identify strategies for sustaining and leveraging positive event impacts, to achieve lasting social outcomes for participants and the wider community.

Keywords:
Sport Events, Community Participation, Intergroup Relations, Social Capital, Strategic Management

INTRODUCTION

People from all over the world love to play, attend, watch, listen to, talk about, experience and even feel sport at any level of performance. Local community sport events are attended by friends and family week after week and national and international sporting competitions such as World Cups allow fans to follow sport teams all around the globe to loyally support ‘their’ squad. At the 2006 Football World Cup, for example, tens of thousands of Australian and Japanese supporters travelled for up to 30 hours to cheer on their teams in Germany. Apart from the usual rivalries, it was reported that fans of different nations celebrated together; before, during and after the matches (Ohmann, Jones, & Wilkes, 2006; Smith-Spark, 2006). For such reasons, sport has been described as a language which all people in the world
speak and understand and in turn, has the ability to emotionally combine and unite groups (Dyreson, 2003).

Better publicised sport events, such as World Cups or the Olympic Games, have demonstrated this social power of sport. For example, North and South Korea marching under one flag at the 2000 Sydney Olympics; or Cathy Freeman’s symbolic lighting of the Olympic torch, represent diverse communities standing and feeling together as one. However, the social outcomes from such symbolic demonstrations are largely anecdotal. It is argued that for disparate communities to experience lasting benefits from sport events there is the need to move beyond symbolism and anecdotes. Active participation with ‘others’ is needed to experience first hand the power of sport and sport events to contribute to social development (Coalter, 2007; Schulenkorf, 2008; Sugden, 2006). This paper provides an empirical investigation of an inter-community sport event as a strategic tool for reducing social barriers and creating social capital. The findings of this research will assist governments, policymakers and Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) in advancing policies and practical measures that build on sport events as vehicles for reconciliation and community development.

LITERATURE REVIEW

This section presents a review of the relevant literature underpinning this study. First, the potential of sport to unite and act as a positive force for inter-community development is presented. Second, an alternative perspective is offered, which highlights potential negative outcomes that sports can have for communities. Third, the link between sports, active participation and social capital building is presented.

Positive outcomes of sport

In 1896, Baron Pierre de Coubertin established the Modern Olympics with the belief that sport events brought people together, and in doing so contributed to a better understanding between peoples and nations (Bannister, 1981; Müller & Gerling, 2006). The universal appeal of sports has also been thought to play a role in the construction, reproduction and/or consolidation of social identities in politically, socially or ethnically divided societies, even when other forms of negotiation have not been successful (Croft, 2005; Sugden, 2006). For this reason, governments all over the world have used sport events to capitalise on the pride and unity often generated, to create or advance a shared sense of national purpose, pride and identity (Chalip, 2006a; John Hargreaves, 2000; Jarvie, 2003; Nauright, 1997; Vinoker, 1988).

Anecdotal discussions highlight the interconnection between politics and sport events in regards to: the building of nationalism and national consciousness; the creation of national identity and patriotism; and the process of reconciliation (Jarvie, 2003; Maguire, 2002). The building of nationalism, for example, is illustrated by the 1936 Nazi-Olympics in Berlin, which the Hitler regime intended to use as a medium to showcase the Arian race and the Germanic nations as the dominant power. The use of sport events in creating national identity and patriotism is reflected in the 1980s policy of the African National Congress (ANC) in South Africa, which was “One Can
Not Play Normal Sport in an Abnormal Society”. When the apartheid regime had finally come to an end, President Mandela argued that sport had become part of the new glue that held the nation together (Jarvie, 2003; Jarvie & Reid, 1999). Later, in 1995, Mandela wore a Springbok cap and shirt following the country’s victory in the Rugby World Cup, and symbolically demonstrated the need for the new ‘Rainbow Nation’ to work together and respect each other (Maguire, 2002).

There are further examples that illustrate the potential for sport to assist in overcoming political antagonisms. For example, the so-called ‘ping-pong-diplomacy’ used by US President Nixon to establish positive contact with the political rival China; and later the jointly hosted 2002 Football World Cup that symbolically combined Japan and its former enemy Korea. Finally, anecdotal evidence from Spain suggests that the success of the national football team at the 2008 European Championships united the divided country more than any other sport events since the end of the Franco era in 1975 (Klinger, 2008). Catalans, Basques, Galicians and Spaniards were able to celebrate together and finally found a new ‘Us-Feeling’ that bridged group differences across the boundaries of ethnic, religious, cultural and socio-economic status.

These anecdotes suggest that sport events are able to promote dialogue, integration and peaceful understanding amongst groups. However, empirical evidence that does exist stems from research on sport programs in the developing world. Sport programs are considered as regularly scheduled activities over a certain length of time, differentiated to sport events which are less regular, short-term intensive activities lasting only a few days (Skinner, Zakus, & Cowell, 2008). In terms of sport programming, different ‘melting pot development’ programs have proven to be successful in also promoting longer term cross-cultural understanding and ‘normalising’ in deeply divided societies such as: Israel (Stidder & Haasner, 2007; Sugden, 2006); Bosnia / Herzegovina (Gasser & Levinsen, 2004, 2006); Sierra Leone (Lea-Howarth, 2006); Liberia (Armstrong, 2004); South Africa (Guelke & Sugden, 2000; Höglund & Sundberg, 2008); and Northern Ireland (Bairner & Darby, 2000; Sugden, 1991). In these examples it has been shown that regularly scheduled sport activities can contribute to people regaining step by step a sense of security and confidence when approaching new people, groups, and even politically opposed communities. Active involvement and participation in sports can further lead to skill development, cultural learning and overall community empowerment (Lawson, 2005; Skinner et al., 2008). Yet, there is currently little empirical evidence to support the claim that sport events can be used as vehicles to facilitate the advancement of intergroup relations and the creation of social capital (Chalip, 2006b; Kellett, Hede, & Chalip, 2008).

**Negative outcomes of sport**

While both anecdotal and empirical evidence suggests that the involvement and participation in sport based activities can lead to positive social, cultural and psychological development, there is also a body of literature that highlights the potential negative outcomes of sport (Armstrong & Giulianotti, 2001; Dimeo, 2001; Hall, Selwood, & McKewon, 1995; Higham, 1999; Kelly, 1993; Sack & Suster, 2000;
Xiao & Smith, 2004). Negative outcomes arise as a result of several inherent characteristics of sport that reflect the dynamics of broader society, which need to be considered by organisers and communities during the planning and management of inter-community sport events (Jennifer Hargreaves, 2000).

First, it is suggested that the competitive nature and rivalry at sport events, with an emphasis on winners and losers (Jennifer Hargreaves, 2000; Torkildsen, 2000), may lead to negative social impacts such as hooliganism, vandalism or stampedes (Bishop & Jaworski, 2003; Griggs, 2004; Sack & Suster, 2000; Soutar & McLeod, 1993). Second, several authors have identified an increase in anti-social behaviour, criminal activity, violence and arrests during the period of sport events (Armstrong & Giulianotti, 2001; Hall et al., 1995; Higham, 1999; Kelly, 1993; Sack & Suster, 2000; Xiao & Smith, 2004). Anti-social behaviour may lead to a reiteration or re-emergence of historical and prejudicial stereotypes (Dimeo & Kay, 2004), which are capable of worsening intergroup relations (Dimeo, 2001; Hay, 2001). Thomas and Dyall (1999) argue that sport performances are often interpreted by those who watch or participate in them, in ways that dramatise ongoing cultural and political issues.

For these reasons, professional spectator sport events are considered an ineffective means for establishing or re-building any lasting sense of community. The potential for negative outcomes may unintentionally serve as a platform for worsening intergroup relations and contribute to a divide between sportspeople, residents and interest groups (Jennifer Hargreaves, 2000; Ingham & McDonald, 2003; Smith & Ingham, 2003; Thomson, 2007; Torkildsen, 2000).

**Active Participation and Social Capital**

In order to utilise sport events as vehicles for reconciliation and intercultural togetherness, they should build on active community participation (Atkinson, 1991; Brown, Brown, Jackson, Sellers, & Manuel, 2003; Schulenkorf, 2008; United Nations, 2006). The United Nations define community participation as “the creation of opportunities to enable all members of a community and the larger society to actively contribute to and influence the development process and to share equitably in the fruits of development” (cited in Midgley, 1986, p. 24). Fundamental to the ideal of community participation is an emphasis on development which is initiated within communities, taking a bottom-up approach and therefore incorporating a relevance to communities (Cameron & MacDougall, 2000; Getz & Frisby, 1988; Kelly, 2002; Quinn, 1999; Reid, 2006). This approach has a greater likelihood of providing an innate sense of cultural relevance, self-determination, sense of belonging for the participants and better achievement of outcomes (Atkinson, 1991; Thomson, 2007).

Recently, research has suggested that sport events and sport development projects can have an impact on the stock of social capital available to communities (Misener & Mason, 2006; Nicholson & Hoye, 2008; Skinner et al., 2008). Social capital is defined by Baum and his colleagues (cited in Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2002, p. 3) as “the building of healthy communities through collective, mutually beneficial interactions and accomplishments, particularly those demonstrated through social and civic participation.” The central elements for social capital are trust, networks and
reciprocity (Putnam, 1993, 2000, 2003), which are considered as “the oil that lubricates social processes" towards social development (Kilpatrick (1999, p. 123).

Trust is described as “the expectation that arises within a community of regular, honest and cooperative behaviour, based on commonly shared norms, on the part of other members of that community” (Fukuyama, 1995, p. 26). In intergroup settings, particularly when cultural elements and differing norms and values are involved, trust serves as the foundation for meaningful communications and understanding. According to Putnam (1993; 2000; 2003), three types of trust are important for the creation of social capital: personalised trust, generalised trust and institutionalised trust. Personalised trust describes experiences on an individual level; this is referred to as ‘bonding’ with well-known people. Generalised trust expands to other groups at an event and is referred to as the ‘bridging’ element of social capital. Institutionalised trust links to the confidence in external parties involved in the organising of sport events, which is referred to as ‘linking’ social capital (Woolcock, 2001).

Once trust is built, social networks can be created. Networks are the voluntary interlocking of relationships between individuals and groups, and include newly established or fostered contacts, ties, group attachment, or friendship circles. According to Stone (2001), networks are the ‘structural’ elements of social capital. Through participation at sport events, people have the opportunity to build networks on both the personal and professional levels. From within these networks a process of exchange occurs, and those interactions are referred to as reciprocity (Stone, 2001). Putnam (2000, p. 20) explains the concept as “I’ll do this for you now, in the expectations that you (or perhaps someone else) will return the favour”. Reciprocal acts facilitate access to resources at an individual and collective level, and within a social network. For instance, at a sport event people can gain access to physical resources by borrowing from each other or receiving equipment from friends or colleagues.

While participation in sports has long been considered to build character, teach values, encourage healthy competition and promote intergroup friendship, there is little empirical evidence of inter-community sport events and their wider social role (Chalip, 2006b). Therefore, this study answers a call for evidence on the effectiveness of sport events in facilitating social capital. The study empirically examines participation at an inter-community sport event and whether this can contribute to breaking down social barriers and creating social capital between disparate groups. Using Sri Lanka as a case study, people’s social and cultural experiences from partaking in the ‘1st International Run for Peace’ are analysed and discussed.

METHOD

Context and Setting

Intergroup relations within multi-ethnic Sri Lanka have been fraught with difficulties for several decades. The country’s Tamil minority has been anxious with the country’s unitary form of government, believing that the Sinhalese majority would abuse Tamil rights (Dunung, 1995). In the 1970s the Tamils began to rebel for their
religious and cultural identity and started to seek an independent state Tamil Eelam by force. Under the leadership of Velupillai Prabhakaran the Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam (LTTE or Tamil Tigers) were formed to fight for self sovereignty in the northeastern regions of Sri Lanka, which are considered the areas of traditional Tamil settlement. Seeing themselves as the acting representative of the Tamil people, the LTTE’s violent demands culminated in a civil war that lasted from 1983 – 2002 and resulted in over 70,000 deaths (Bilger, 2006). In northeastern Sri Lanka, the Tigers managed to establish a de facto state with its own military, police, schools, laws and courts. In 2002, the Government of Sri Lanka and the LTTE finally agreed to commit to a peace process. While the LTTE withdrew from active peace talks after six rounds in April 2003, a cease-fire agreement remained in place until January 2008, when Sri Lanka returned to open civil war.

Against the background of a deeply divided society, research for this study was conducted in western Sri Lanka from January until April 2007. At that point in time, the LTTE controlled 15% of the island and claimed another 20% as their traditional homeland. Intergroup relations among Sri Lanka’s ethnic groups were deeply shattered and opportunities for positive intergroup contact were scarce.

The event

In an attempt to contribute to positive contact, appeasement and reconciliation between ethnic groups on a community level, the NGO Asian German Sports Exchange Programme (A.G.S.E.P.) has been organising inter-community sport events under a ‘Games for Peace’ theme since 2002. These sport events bring Sinhalese, Tamil, Muslim and international sportspeople together in a leisure environment free of socio-political constraints, and therefore conducive to building social capital. With the help of the communities and international volunteers, A.G.S.E.P.’s vision is “to contribute to the re-establishment of peace in Sri Lanka”, with a mission to “popularise social values such as respect, courage and commitment through sport events” (A.G.S.E.P. Website, 2008).

This study focuses on the social and cultural event experiences resulting from people’s involvement at the 1st International Run for Peace (IR4P), held on the 1st October 2006 in Sri Lanka’s capital Colombo. The IR4P followed an earlier A.G.S.E.P. initiative, the National Run for Peace (NR4P) staged in 2004. The NR4P focused at a domestic level, bringing together the different ethnic communities from 12 Sri Lankan districts to run from their home towns to reach the Bogambara stadium in the centrally located city of Kandy. The IR4P took an international focus. The communities were in charge of the design and the marketing of the event to their respective groups, while A.G.S.E.P. arranged official approval and support from the Government and Sport Councils, provided the transport for participants from rural areas, and organised event experts and social workers for conducting and supervising the event. Security personnel and medical staff from the local community hospital were also volunteering and present on site.

The IR4P provided a day of celebration, spectacle and colour for 800 national and international participants and several thousand spectators. The IR4P featured three
categories. First, a competitive 21 kilometre half-marathon was staged for both male and female athletes. Second, a ‘mini marathon’ of ten kilometres was offered to participants and sports groups who wanted to get some physical activity. Third, a symbolic ‘peace move’ of five kilometres was also offered to encourage participation by people of different fitness levels and age groups, who wanted to support the event theme of peace.

One of the unique features of this sport event was the participation and spectating across age, gender, social class and ethnic/national background. The run started at Colombo’s Independence Square and passed through three city districts of very different socio-economic status: the upper-class Colombo 7 quarter; the slums of Maradana; and the middle class Kolpitiya district. The run finished at the Colombo Race Course Grounds, where a multicultural music festival was conducted as part of the after-event celebrations. In an awards ceremony, groups were awarded for their valued participation, performance, social contribution and personal commitment, rather than identifying winners and losers. This was in line with A.G.S.E.P’s ‘no-one loses’ philosophy, which put a focus on the social and integrative character of the sport event with its supporting cultural performances, rather than on the actual result of the sport events.

**Research Design**

This research is of a qualitative nature, underpinned by an interpretive mode of inquiry. The interpretive approach acknowledges the social construction of reality (Crotty, 1998; Glesne, 1999; Neuman, 2003), and the inductive analysis of data (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). According to Myers (1997), interpretive studies aim to understand the context of a phenomenon through the meanings that people assign to it. Semi-structured in-depth interviews were used to find out in detail, about people’s sport event experiences. This method was chosen because according to Hoepfl (1997), in-depth interviews are the most promising method to find out the ‘real’ about contemporary cases and phenomena. In line with the in-depth approach to research, *purposeful sampling* was applied, as it allows the researchers to specifically choose participants who suit their research subject best (Burnett & Uys, 2000; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Minichillo, Aroni, Timewell, & Alexander, 1995; Neuman, 2003). The integration of voices from all groups that were impacted by the sport events can thus be ensured, which contributes to a holistic and realistic picture of the case.

Key individuals from the main sport event stakeholders and from the participating communities were identified for the initial round of interviews. These included community members, event organisers, participants, spectators, sponsors, media and government representatives. Further interview respondents were accessed through the use of snowball sampling. The combination of community representatives previously known by A.G.S.E.P. and the snowballing method resulted in the researchers getting access to a wide spectrum of interviewees, ranging from local fishermen to high profile Members of Parliament. In total, 35 semi-structured interviews (see Table 1) were conducted between January and April 2007. They ran for between 35 - 120 minutes each and included questions on the socio-cultural impacts experienced and/or witnessed at the IR4P event; on how the event impacted on people’s social identities.
and sense of belonging; and on how to sustain and grow positive event impacts for wider community benefit. In cases where the participants’ English proficiency did not allow adequate responses, they were assisted by a local Sinhala and Tamil speaking interpreter. To guarantee a confidential yet personal presentation of findings, research participants were given pseudonyms.

Table 1: Overview of interview respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Event Stakeholder Type</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Ethnic Background</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Event Organisers</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3 European, 1 Sinh., 1 Tamil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteers</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3 European, 1 Muslim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Event Participants</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3 Sinhalese, 1 European</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Event Spectators</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2 European, 1 Sinh., 1 Tamil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sinhalese Community</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5 Sinhalese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tamil Community</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2 Tamil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muslim Community</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2 Muslim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government Ministries</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2 Sinhalese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LTTE Official</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1 Tamil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport Associations</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2 Sinhalese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aid Organisation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1 Sinhalese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1 Sinhalese, 1 Muslim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sponsor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1 Sinhalese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>17 Sinhalese, 5 Tamil, 4 Muslim, 9 European</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The computer software used to support the analysis of findings was NVivo 7, which assisted the researchers in integrating, indexing and coding the large amount of qualitative data. During the data analysis process both free nodes and tree nodes were used. This resulted in a better understanding of relationships of the data and structures of emerging arguments, and allowed for the coding and reconceptualising of data into seven themes of experience.

FINDINGS

The socio-cultural experiences of participants in the IR4P were analysed using an inductive approach, from which emerged seven themes of experience. Of these, experiences under five themes contributed to positive social development and a reduction of ethnic barriers, while two were found to limit social development and impact negatively on intergroup relations (see Table 2 below).

Table 2: Socio-Cultural Experiences resulting from the IR4P sport event

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive Socio-Cultural Experiences</th>
<th>Negative Socio-Cultural Experiences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Socialising</td>
<td>Inappropriate Behaviour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust</td>
<td>Managerial Issues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reciprocity and Solidarity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contact and Networks</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning and Development</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The seven identified themes will be presented next, drawing on representative comments from interview respondents.

**Positive Socio-Cultural Experiences**

**Socialising**

The category of Socialising includes elements of fun and entertainment; inclusive interaction and shared experiences; and the pride of having actively and creatively contributed to development efforts.

Participation in the inter-community sport events resulted in fun and entertainment for sportspeople, spectators, event organisers and the local communities. Chulo, a local aid worker, reports that during the IR4P people along the course were “supporting, cheering, celebrating all the time”. The open and welcoming character of the sport event led to socialising opportunities around the sport event, for spectators and participants alike. An example of the relaxed social atmosphere among spectators and athletes was the spontaneous celebration of ‘The Mexican Wave’ at the end of the event. Kevin, a former staff member of the Ministry of Sports, praises this symbolic gesture, stating that “when they finished the race and started the wave, it was a good ceremony for the people”.

Shawn, a participant in the IR4P, describes the integrative cooperation and joint participation at the inter-community sport events as a valuable socio-cultural impact which led to positive long-term memories. He says: “You see even now – half a year after the event – people still wear their shirts with ‘Run for Peace’. So it is really something that they kept in their hearts and minds for a long time, because they still like to wear it and remember the day.” Shawn’s example shows that even months after the IR4P people were proud of their active contribution to the inter-community sport event and enjoyed remembering the peace run as a joint celebration of all Sri Lankan communities.

**Trust**

The category of Trust includes the elements of inter-community trust and confidence; increase in perceived safety; and increase in (intergroup) comfort levels. Comments made by respondents revealed that for the creation of trust, three elements are of central importance. First, the good reputation of the island-wide known event organiser A.G.S.E.P.; second, symbolic factors such as themes and logos; and third, the supportive nature of key stakeholders.

The acceptance and awareness of A.G.S.E.P. has been improving over the years, and its good reputation as an international yet locally grounded NGO in Sri Lanka has grown. Respondents agree that A.G.S.E.P. is perceived by communities as an event organiser that can be trusted. Kappa for example states that “with A.G.S.E.P. as a supporter or expert, people expect a better organised and better managed event of great quality. Simply because that name is on the board.” Another reason for
A.G.S.E.P.’s acceptance by all communities is their inclusive sport event campaign ‘Games for Peace’ and their politically neutral logo. Ranil states that A.G.S.E.P. decided to purposely use impartial slogans that focus solely on the impartial sport factor in intergroup relations:

Our logo says ‘Connecting Sportspeople’, which is a very neutral statement. It does not give any ideas or links towards any political affiliation or philosophical direction, we are just connecting sportspeople. There are a boy and a girl, another boy and a girl, and we try to put a ball in between them and try to make people interact through the medium of sport. And that’s it.

A trustful organiser increases feelings of safety and comfort. According to media representative Andy, the supporting stakeholders also play a key role in creating feelings of confidence and safety among participants:

It was a very safe event! We took the security’s advice and didn’t have any problem. You get the fullest support from all the authorities, security, police, army and everything. And because of the fullest support it was a 100 percent secure event.

However, a safe and secure inter-community sport event does not automatically generate full trust among ethnic groups that have been engaged in civil war for over 25 years. Government representative Jayo explains that “there was some kind of a trust. I don’t say it’s 100%. … That’s why I said it’s more or less a confidence building or trust building exercise.”

**Reciprocity and Solidarity**

The category of Reciprocity and Solidarity includes elements of helpful intergroup cooperation, and physical as well as emotional support at the sport events. Feelings of intergroup camaraderie existed around the sport event, which became obvious through the many small gestures and signs of goodwill. Organiser Didi highlights:

The participants who came and took part in the IR4P, they came from drastically different ethnic backgrounds…We noticed that the support for example towards the poorer participants was shown by the more affluent, richer participants in the sense that they have also supported them with materials, with T-shirts, sometimes also with shoes. Because we had runners that didn’t even have shoes!

While the generous sharing of sport equipment is an example of reciprocal support on the physical level, people also witnessed support on the emotional level. Participant Anu recalls that encouragement was given to the athletes by other participants or spectators throughout the race, as “people came out of their houses and shouted: ‘Ah, run, you can do it!’ And at working places they stopped their work and shouted, cheering up, running behind us with water … so they were very helpful.”
Other respondents highlight positive intergroup interaction and active support after the race, when the sportspeople came together, celebrated and relaxed at the finish line. Matt, a local attendee from Colombo, states that “irrespective of their ethnic backgrounds, people were given massages and physical treatment at the finish line”. Andy sums up that it was great to experience that “we [the Sinhalese] can get something from them, and they [the Tamils] can get something from us also!”

**Contact and Networks**

The category of Contacts and Networks includes elements of establishing and advancing individual contacts and friendships; increased intergroup contacts and bridging; and the establishment of business relationships.

The IR4P contributed to establishing individual contacts and friendships among participants, spectators and organisers. The interview respondents describe the sport event as an opportunity to get in touch with other people from their own ethnic group and with individuals from other ethnic backgrounds. Shanto, a member of the Sinhalese Nattandiya community reports that “after the Run for Peace I also met up with some new friends from MTV and Red Bull, from Lotteries Board and I am still friends with them. They are coming to our parties and they are good friends for always.” The sport event further offered “the chance to interact with foreigners from the US, Europe, Australia and other parts of Asia”, which represents an opportunity of extending contacts to the international level. On the other hand, international volunteer Mark reports that organising the sport event contributed to “forming new social relationships. I won a lot of contacts in Sri Lanka while working at this event. Actually, I won a lot of friends.”

In addition to the newly established intragroup and intergroup contacts, the IR4P allowed for professional contacts to be developed. Mark says that for individuals, particularly those from the organising committee, it was the chance to “make important business contacts with … the Sri Lankan organisers, the Sri Lankan sponsors, the Sri Lankan people from the Ministries, [who] were all involved in the organising of the event”. Overall, contacts, friendships and networks were valued as a vital part in the intra- and inter-community development process: on the interpersonal, intragroup and intergroup level.

**Learning and Development**

The category of Learning and Development includes the development of specific sport and management skills; intercultural learning and the expansion of cultural perspectives. The IR4P allowed people to gain a better understanding of each other and to learn that togetherness is possible and indeed beneficial within the right social environment. Kevin from the Ministry of Sports believes that members of the local communities learnt valuable social skills, and gained professional knowledge from partaking in the planning, management and implementation phases. As he explains:

Learning means sometimes the organisation of the race. So different parts of the day: that the transport things are there, the food is there,
accommodation is there, the media part is there. So when someone organises this type of event, these things are to be considered. So actually we got a lot of outcome from this one event, regarding the things we must think of all the time. That’s right. So myself and my officers also, they got a lot of experience from this race. So next time we are doing this, we have the knowledge.

Kevin’s comment suggests that the local communities will benefit from the increase in knowledge when organising future activities and sport events.

**Negative socio-cultural experiences**

**Inappropriate Behaviour**

Respondents comments highlighted two examples of inappropriate social behaviour that were witnessed around the inter-community sport events. First, onlookers from the local community, who were not directly involved in the sport event, disturbed participants and were described as having ‘wrong intentions’. Sinhalese IR4P participant Anu observed:

“I could see from their behaviour and the way that they were talking that they were not really for the program. Some were coming to see girls; some were coming just to laugh at the [participants].” (P2: 82-84)

Anu goes on to describe these spectators as “disturbing intruders”, who intimidated participants. This comment shows that open inter-community sport events contain risks of socially debatable or even inappropriate behaviour.

The second instance of socially inappropriate behaviour at the IR4P related to the welcome speeches given to the participants, spectators and organisers at the opening of the sport event. Sudu, a Sinhalese community member from Marawila, was not impressed with the style of the speech given by the Sinhalese chief guest, saying that “some words that he used to introduce these Muslim people were words that were really not matching. It wasn’t only negative… I also felt that he was also not civilised, so not very polite.” Sudu’s comment shows that she did not feel her community was being represented appropriately by the chief guest.

**Managerial Issues**

This category includes communication problems and management issues resulting in smaller than expected number of participants at the sport event and the after party.

Mark, a member of the IR4P organising team, argues that communication issues were prevailing in the lead-up phase of the sport event. The organising group became frustrated with certain stakeholders, who did not provide sufficient input and did not communicate properly and inclusively:
I wished that [the Ministry of Sports] would have told us more about their decisions and what they were thinking. When we had meetings with the Ministry we were basically always telling what we were thinking and how we would like to do that and they approved it or not. But they never really told us what they wanted to do with this event, what it meant to them. So that was in my eyes clearly a problem.

While Mark wished for more input and communiqué from the Sports Ministry, he also acknowledges that communication issues may have originated from uncertainty or a lack of understanding in the values and goals of the sport event. He goes on to say:

We thought they knew what we wanted to do with this event. But we didn’t explain well enough what our goals and objectives were. [Probably] they saw it as just another sport event and did not put as much heart into it as we did.

Poor communication and cooperation between organisers and stakeholders in the lead-up phases of the sport event led to a decrease in overall registration numbers. Many people who had been involved in the 2004 National Run for Peace in Kandy “noticed that this year participation was low, which was a bit disappointing” and that valuable opportunities for maximising sport event benefits were lost. Marco on the other hand, believes that “transportation and logistical problems” explain the lower than expected participant numbers. He suggests that traveling to Colombo was a hindering factor particularly for the Tamil and Muslim communities from the northeastern parts of the island. Arguably, the 2004 in Kandy attracted more participants, as access for the Muslim and Tamil communities was easier and more comfortable, due to smaller travel distances and less Governmental restrictions.

Another managerial issue was mentioned by Shanto, who observed that fewer than expected local participants and spectators attended the sport event after party:

“There were a lot of people participating in the marathon, but after they were running, after they got their certificates and got their prizes, they vanished. Now this is not a complaint but a thing missing: only the A.G.S.E.P. staff and the Peace Village staff were at the music show. [We need better] organisation and planning to include ALL people. We must inform [everyone], and if they support the marathon, they should be at the party also, because it was for them!” (SC5: 107-113)

Shanto’s comments do not explain the reasons as to why he believes local participation was low, but differences in socio-cultural values may have contributed to the disappointing attendance of locals at the after party. The organisers explained that modern western style attire, music and dancing was dominant, and that alcohol was readily available. These elements may have affected people’s decision to attend the party.
DISCUSSION

The aim of this research was to empirically test whether an inter-community sport event in Sri Lanka could provide positive socio-cultural experiences on a practical level, while enhancing stocks of social capital between the Sinhalese, Tamil and Muslim communities. Seven broad themes emerged from the study of the IR4P, representing both positive and negative socio-cultural experiences. The following discussion will outline first, how the IR4P made positive contributions to social capital stocks and the breakdown of social barriers between participating groups; and second, how negative outcomes decreased the stock of social capital and had negative impacts on intergroup relations.

The first five themes were seen to contribute to an increase in the stock of social capital and a reduction of social barriers, which plays a role in enhancing intergroup relations. First, the IR4P provided participants and their communities with important opportunities for *socialising*, as opposed to a passive spectator experience of elite performance and symbolic representations of social interaction. Socialising within and between groups was enabled through the active participation encouraged by A.G.S.E.P. through the sport event (Atkinson, 1991; Schulenkorf, 2008; United Nations, 2006). These active participatory opportunities reduced the distance between people and groups; further, they allowed people to share the experience of a sport event with others, contribute to the innovative idea of peace-building through sport events, and celebrate with newly made friends at the after-party.

Second, also contributing to a supportive environment to build social capital is the notion that the IR4P was identified as a neutral space for participation. The sport event was identified as a promising ‘starting point’ for the creation of trust and had an ‘intrinsic power’ for removing barriers between people, groups and institutions (see Brown *et al.*, 2003). Respondents argued that inter-personal, intergroup and organisational *trust* developed among people and groups at the sport event. The impartiality of A.G.S.E.P., the official support from all communities, police presence and the social peace theme contributed to feelings of safety, comfort and trust among participating groups. The neutrality component for sport events was outlined in the literature as an important opportunity to place diverse groups on a ‘level playing field’ where trust can develop. This study confirms this argument and findings link to the three types of trust Putnam (1993; 2000; 2003) claims are a central part of social capital: personalised trust, generalised trust and institutional trust. This suggests that inter-community sport events can contribute to both bonding and bridging social capital even among disparate communities.

A third element of social capital is *reciprocity* (Putnam, 1993, 2000; Stone, 2001), which was demonstrated in this study through the active engagement for physical and emotional support for others. The sport event encouraged people to help others in need, which shows that in a social environment encouraged by sport events, reciprocal exchanges and solidarity are possible even among members of disparate communities. On a physical level, some well-off people provided the poorer ones with sport equipment such as running shoes and clothing, while on an emotional level, participants were continuously encouraged and cheered by local residents during the
race in Colombo. These findings add to Yuen’s (2005) results from her study on an international sport camp which showed that leisure activities can foster reciprocal support in social learning and skill development.

Fourth, the sport event facilitated contact within groups and opportunities to establish networks between groups. While the IR4P was not a major business or formal networking event members of the organising team benefited from improved business contacts and the creation of professional networks. New relationships were therefore formed on the intragroup, intergroup and institutional levels. This indicates that the sport event contributed to the bonding, bridging and linking elements indicative of social capital building (Putnam, 2000; Woolcock, 2001). It is argued that the active engagement of participants and organisers at the community level is what contributed to such an effective development of relationships and networks for social capital within an intensely short sport event life cycle. While previous studies have shown that events can establish contacts and networks within communities (Reid, 2006; Small, 2007), this study found that a leisure environment allows for networking even among members of groups that are engaged in a quasi civil war.

Fifth, learning and development plays a critical role in the inter-community sport event context and is considered to operate at two levels. First, cooperation between the communities and A.G.S.E.P. provided locals with opportunities to participate with and learn from others in a culturally diverse environment. Community members who were involved in the organisation and design of the sport events had the chance to expand their horizons, as they were able to learn management skills through working alongside A.G.S.E.P. Further, it was found that they had the opportunity to shape and develop the sport event program as a culturally diverse team, a learning process that built bridges between people and groups (see Auld & Case, 1997; Brown et al., 2003). Respondents revealed that intercultural learning contributed to intergroup approximation, understanding and respect.

Whilst the five themes previously discussed have been shown to make positive contributions to social capital stocks and the break down of social barriers, it must also be recognised that inter-community sport events such as the IR4P have the potential to create negative outcomes for participating groups. The following section will discuss the two themes identified by participants that decreased the stock of social capital and had a negative impact on intergroup relations.

First, examples of inappropriate behaviour may arise inside and outside the sport event environments, for example by inapt manners shown by community members towards ‘others’ at the sport events. Respondents revealed that some people who were not directly involved in the sport event, made negative comments about the event organisers and active participants. This suggests that parts of the community did not accept the idea of inter-community celebration, or perhaps rejected the idea of a Western change agent organising sport events in Sri Lanka. In some cases, locals intimidated participants and spectators with words and gestures, which highlights the potential of a sport event to reduce the stock of social capital through eroding the
sense of safety, comfort and trust, which was considered so important to facilitating social capital building (Putnam, 1993, 2000).

Second, communication problems and cultural differences were identified as the main managerial issues. Respondents revealed that when interacting with people from ethnically different groups, a different interpretation of values occurred. In some instances, differences in showing respect towards ‘others’ and differences in enthusiasm for the peace theme of the IR4P led to disagreement and tension between groups. For example, the dedicated peace-activists were left frustrated with participants and stakeholders who focused predominantly on the physical sport aspect of the sport events. Furthermore, respondents observed that the after-party was dominated by international participants, volunteers and tourists, which left both the organisers and attendees disappointed. It was found that the timing and location of the sport event and after-party sites presented great challenges for the participating communities. As a consequence, many locals were unable or unwilling to participate in the sport event, which reduced opportunities to advance bonding and bridging social capital. This example highlights the importance of including the communities’ voices in the strategic event management process to cater for local demands (see Getz & Frisby, 1988; Kelly, 2002).

CONCLUSION

Sport and sport events have been criticised for their lack of rigorous empirical evaluation and a reliance on subjective experiences and anecdotes suggesting that they can contribute to intergroup development and social cohesion (Chalip, 2006b; Lea-Howarth, 2006). Therefore, this paper presented an in-depth investigation of the ‘1st International Run for Peace’ and its contribution to constructing dialogue and creating social capital between disparate communities in the ethnically divided Sri Lanka. It was found that the inter-community sport events provided a day of spectacle and colour for participants and attendees, which resulted in opportunities for socialising and intergroup celebration; an increase in trust; positive experiences of reciprocity and solidarity; opportunities to advance contacts and networks; and intercultural learning and development. These positive experiences contributed to an increase in the stock of social capital available to participating communities. However, sport event managers and communities need to be aware of instances of inappropriate behaviour and managerial challenges, which can have a negative impact on the stock of social capital.

Overall, this study shows that as an active and participatory form of social development, inter-community sport events offer potential to go beyond the symbolic value of spectator sport events and encourage people to experience first hand the social power of intergroup celebration. If carefully planned and managed in accordance with local demands, these sport events can contribute to social capital building and the reduction of socio-cultural barriers between participating communities. Consequently, inter-community sport events should be encouraged and supported by communities, event organisers and governments as an innovative platform for reconciliation and social development. Future research in this area should
focus on developing strategies to sustain social capital beyond the sport event, and to leverage positive experiences to the wider community.

REFERENCES


THE CONTRIBUTION OF EMOTIONS TO FESTIVAL SATISFACTION USING LOGISTIC REGRESSION

Miguel Moital, Caroline Jackson And Mary-Beth Gouthro
Bournemouth University

Abstract

Past studies on consumer satisfaction have tended to focus on ‘cognitive’ determinants of satisfaction. In other words, they seek explanation to festival satisfaction on a range of specific (more or less tangible) attributes of the festival. Yet, in experience-based products, such as festivals, this may not be sufficient to fully understand the determinants of satisfaction. Emotions are at the centre of experiences and therefore these should also be incorporated in satisfaction models. This paper sought to examine the determinants of festival satisfaction and to understand the extent to which emotion is a determinant of festival satisfaction. Using the Beach Break Live Festival (UK) as a case study and logistic regression as the analytical technique, the results show that emotions do contribute to explaining festival satisfaction in addition to cognition. Moreover, positive emotions were the single most important determinant of overall satisfaction. Satisfaction with Food & Drink, Staff, Facilities and Information & Organisation were also found to influence participants’ satisfaction. Implications for theory and practice are discussed.

Keywords:
Satisfaction, Emotion, Logistic Regression, Festivals.

INTRODUCTION

Beach Break Live (BBL) is an annual student music festival in Cornwall, UK. The festival has run for two years (2007 and 2008), attracting 1500 attendants in the first year and 4500 in the second. The business plan requires this number to grow considerably over the first three years of the festival, until a certain level of patronage is achieved. Given the relatively ‘closed’ physical boundaries of universities, where students have numerous opportunities to share their experiences with other students, word of mouth is likely to be a very important influence on whether a student attends the event. If students leave the BBL with high levels of satisfaction, then it is more likely that they will return and generate positive word of mouth. Therefore, understanding participants’ satisfaction is of paramount importance if the festival is to survive in a competitive environment.

Yet, in order to be able to implement strategies aimed at delivering suitable levels of satisfaction, it is important to understand how satisfied attendants are and, equally important, what determines a certain level of satisfaction. Past studies on consumer satisfaction have tended to focus on ‘cognitive’ determinants of satisfaction (e.g. Crompton and Love, 1995; Baker and Crompton, 2000; Cole and Illum, 2006, Schofield
and Thomson, 2007; Esu and Arrey, 2009). In other words, they seek explanation to festival satisfaction on a range of specific (more or less tangible) attributes of the festival. Yet, in experience-based products, such as festivals, the cognitive dimension may not be sufficient to fully understand the determinants of satisfaction.

Hirschman and Holbrook (1982) were among the first to support the view that affect could serve as a primary motivator of consumption behaviour. They proposed the concept of ‘hedonic consumption’ to differentiate emotions resulting from the purchasing of the product and those associated with the consumption of the product. According to these authors, experiencing emotive stimulation while purchasing may be an important end state for consumers.

In a similar vein, Caru and Cova (2003) argued an experience is a “subjective episode with (...) an emphasis on emotions and senses lived during the immersion at the expense of the cognitive dimension” (p. 273). The recognition that emotions are at the centre of the experience concept suggest that emotional experiences be incorporated in satisfaction models, notably festival satisfaction models as festivals and events are essentially experiential (Getz, 2007).

However, very few studies incorporating the emotional dimension have been undertaken, notably in the events and festival field. While predominantly cognitive in nature, Lee, Petrick and Crompton’s (2007) study did cover emotional satisfaction, albeit only positive emotions were included. A recent study by Lee et al (2008) supports the claim that emotions are important in explaining festival satisfaction. Yet, while evidence suggests that emotions do have a role in festival satisfaction, it is not clear what the net contribution of emotions is. Therefore, this study has two objectives:

- To examine the determinants of festival satisfaction
- To understand the contribution of emotions to explain festival satisfaction

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

**Attitude and satisfaction**

The conceptualisation of satisfaction appears to follow that of attitudes. Satisfaction and attitudes have many common characteristics, one of which is that both are evaluative judgments (one about a past behaviour, the other about future behaviour). One of the main discussions focuses on the components of attitude (and consequently of satisfaction) and how these components relate to each other.

As an evaluative judgement, different perspectives regarding what should be evaluated can be found. The multi-component model of attitudes (Rosenberg and Hovland, 1960), one of the earliest conceptualisations of attitudes, views attitudes as comprising cognitive (thoughts), affective (feelings) and conative (behaviour) elements. This view has been
criticised, notably for its inclusion of the behavioural component (conation) as part of attitude (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980).

In the 1960’s researchers started to argue for the centrality of beliefs in determining attitude, whereby attitudes contain only evaluative information (i.e. evaluative beliefs) regarding the object (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). Thus, an earlier conceptualisation appeared to emphasise the role of cognition in influencing attitude (Fishbein, 1963; Oliver, 1993). However the past three decades have seen many researchers (e.g. Agarwal and Malhotra, 2005; Cohen and Areni, 1991; Zana and Rempel, 1988) arguing that feelings, in addition to beliefs, also influence attitude.

For many years, satisfaction research appeared to have followed Fishbein’s (1963) view, in that satisfaction was perceived as an essentially cognitive exercise (Oliver, 1993). Yet, following developments in the field of attitude, several authors have argued that satisfaction is determined by both the cognitive component (beliefs) and the affective component (feelings).

**Satisfaction models**

The literature on consumer satisfaction usually differentiates between two types of determinants of satisfaction: cognitive and affective. This has led to the development of three types of studies: cognitive-only; affective-only and mixed (cognitive/affective). The cognitive-only models usually seek explanation for satisfaction on the performance of the product in a number of more or less tangible attributes. The affective-only models tend to focus on the relative importance of each emotion in explaining satisfaction (e.g. Machleit and Erogly, 2000; White and Yu, 2005). The mixed models postulate that satisfaction cannot be explained by cognition or affection alone. Rather, the two have an important and cumulative contribution to explaining satisfaction.

Emotion-based models, that is, those who view satisfaction as encompassing affective credentials, can be classified in two types. The *static* models attempt to examine how emotions are related to other variables, whether other predictors of satisfaction or the outcome variables (measures of overall satisfaction). Alford and Sherrel (1996) found that emotions did influence satisfaction (although through perceived performance). Yu and Dean (2001) used correlation to examine the relationship between the determinants of satisfaction and a number of variables thought to reflect satisfaction (e.g. loyalty, positive word of mouth). There were significant correlations between the two types of satisfaction (cognitive and affective) and the measures of customer satisfaction. They found a higher correlation between overall customer loyalty and the emotional component than the cognitive component (at the 0.01 level). Using structural equation modelling, Wong (2004) found that emotional satisfaction was positively related to customer loyalty.
While the above studies tend to support a relationship between emotions and satisfaction, the analytical methods employed do not allow for understanding the net contribution of emotions to explain overall satisfaction. In other words, they do not allow an understanding of whether satisfaction can be confidently explained by cognition or if emotional satisfaction is also required. A number of researchers have sought to address this through incremental models of satisfaction, which compare models with and without emotions and checking for the additional contribution provided by adding emotions. Table 1 provides a summary of such studies, including their main characteristics and findings. Generally speaking, past studies have suggested that the inclusion of emotional measures of satisfaction improve the predictive ability of satisfaction models. However, it is clear that the results are not consistent regarding the contribution of emotions to explaining satisfaction. Oliver’s (1993) study epitomises this inconsistency. While for ‘car’ satisfaction the improvement in the variance explained was modest, there was a much larger increase when the product studied was a ‘course’. While not always accurately reported, two types of analytical techniques appeared to have been employed to examine the net contribution of emotions to explaining satisfaction: linear regression and least squares.

Table 1
Incremental Models of Affective Satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Cognitive measure</th>
<th>Affective measure</th>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Product</th>
<th>Initial R²</th>
<th>Final R²</th>
<th>Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Oliver (1993)</td>
<td>Attribute (dis)satisfaction + and –</td>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>Auto Course</td>
<td>0.609</td>
<td>0.651</td>
<td>Least Squares</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liljander and Strandvik (1997)</td>
<td>Average performance + and –</td>
<td>Overall satisfaction</td>
<td>Job centre</td>
<td>0.590</td>
<td>0.640</td>
<td>Linear Regression</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liljander and Strandvik (1997)</td>
<td>Average adequate service +</td>
<td>Overall satisfaction</td>
<td>Job centre</td>
<td>0.590</td>
<td>0.630</td>
<td>Linear Regression</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liljander and Strandvik (1997)</td>
<td>Average excellent service + and –</td>
<td>Overall loyalty</td>
<td>Course</td>
<td>0.240</td>
<td>0.580</td>
<td>Linear Regression</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yu and Dean (2001)</td>
<td>Service attributes + and –</td>
<td>Word of mouth</td>
<td>Course</td>
<td>0.170</td>
<td>0.336</td>
<td>Linear Regression</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Measurement of emotions

One of the reasons why emotional satisfaction has not been fully incorporated into satisfaction models is related to the measurement of emotions. In consumer behaviour, researchers have taken an empirical approach (Bagozzi et al., 2002) and centred their attention on measuring affect as subjective experience (Cohen and Areni, 1991). Self-reports of emotions have been carried out using standardised measurement systems, whereby subjects are asked to rate or organise a set of affective adjectives associated to the behaviour (Cohen and Areni, 1991).

Measurement of affect within consumer behaviour has been hampered by a lack of agreement regarding how emotions should be structured. Several authors have supported...
the view that emotions have an hierarchical structure (e.g. Russell, 1980; Laros and Steenkamp, 2005). Others have examined all emotions at the same level of generality. A researcher attempting to use some of the scales is confronted with long lists of emotions. For example, in Richins (1997) scale development started with a list of 285 words and ended with a scale comprising 47 emotions. Since it is very unlikely that every emotion is relevant for any single behaviour, Richins (1997) suggests that either theory or common sense need to be used to identify those words that are relevant for that context.

A number of scales have been put forward to measure emotions. One of the earliest scales was put forward by Mehrabian-Russell (1974). While employed by Machleit and Eroglu (2000), the scale has not been used very frequently in satisfaction studies. Izard’s (1977) and Plutchik’s (1980) scales are among the most frequently used. Izard’s has been employed by authors such as Westbrook and Oliver (1991), Oliver (1993) and Machleit and Eroglu (2000), while Plutchik’s by Machleit and Eroglu (2000). More recently, Richins (1997) put forward the Consumption Emotions Set, which has been used by authors such as Garry (2007).

An analysis of the above scales reveals some differences. For example, some are more extensive (Richins, 1997) than others (e.g. Izard, 1977) raising questions about the optimal number of emotions that should be measured. Another characteristic of the aforementioned emotion scales is their composition with regards to the ratio of positive to negative emotions. Some scales involve more negative than positive emotions, raising questions about their applicability to experiences. As seen earlier, a key driver for consuming experiences is their emotional nature, usually involving positive emotions (however in certain cases negative emotions may also be regarded as positive contributors to the overall satisfaction, for example anxiety and fear in a rollercoaster). Moreover, research has consistently shown a positive relationship between positive emotions and satisfaction, while the relationship between negative emotions and satisfaction has not always been found. Therefore, the use of scales such as Izard’s, which includes only two positive emotions against 8 negative emotions, should be questioned. In experiences, more balanced scales should be employed with a view to ensure that the full extent of the concept (i.e. positive emotions) is captured.

**METHODS**

**Sampling and questionnaire design**

BBL is a music camping festival for students, where all festival attendees camp at the festival site. Respondents were approached in the second of the 4 days of the festival. The objective was to gather information from a sample as close as possible to the population. During the morning/afternoon, there are no festival activities going on, with most participants ‘chilling out’ in the camping area. Therefore, individuals who were outside their tents were approached and asked to participate in the study. This convenient sampling was an effective means of collecting data as there were virtually no refusals. A
total of 263 valid questionnaires (around 6% of the event attendees) were collected. It was considered that this number of questionnaires would provide a good representation of participants at the festival. The sample contained more males than females (54 and 46% respectively), with the majority of the attendees aged 20-21 (52%). Only a small proportion of the sample, not exceeding 6%, were 24 or older. The majority of the respondents had attended at least one multi-day festival before, however this was the first multi-day festival for around one third of the sample. Around 8% of the respondents attended the previous year’s festival. The vast majority of attendees were students, with the event attracting mainly first (43.8%) and second (33.1%) year students.

Besides capturing data on the respondents characteristics and past festival experience, the questionnaire contained two main parts, one covering satisfaction with a number of attributes of the festival (the cognitive component) and the second the frequency with which respondents felt certain emotions (the affective scale). The cognitive scale contained 29 items that were developed based on a review of past studies as well as the knowledge regarding the characteristics of the festival. These items were measured on a 5 point scale, from very satisfied to very dissatisfied. The question on overall satisfaction was also measured using this scale. The affective scale contained 12 emotions (6 positive and 6 negative) based on Richin’s (1997) Consumption Emotion Set. Past studies employed one of two different methods for measuring emotion: the frequency (e.g. Liljander and Strandvik, 1997; White and Yu, 2005) and the intensity (e.g. Oliver, 1993) with which the emotion is felt. In this study, frequency was employed as a proxy for emotional satisfaction. That is, the more frequently a positive emotion is felt, the more satisfied the person will be, while the more frequently a negative emotion is felt, the less satisfied the attendee will be.

Data analysis

Principal component analysis was performed in order to reduce the dimensionality of the scales. Two separate principal component analyses were performed, one for the cognitive evaluation and one for the affective evaluation, as they were measured using different scales. Items loading lower than 0.5 or on more than one factor were removed. The results of both the KMO and the Bartlett’s test of sphericity met the acceptability criteria (Tabacknick and Fidell 1996).

An analysis of the eigenvalues (greater than 1) and screeplot were used to determine how many factors to extract. Both concurred that the best solution was 7 cognitive factors and 2 affective factors. Cronbach Alpha was used to test the reliability of the factors. With no exception, all cognitive satisfaction factors exceeded 0.7, while the reliability scores of the two emotion factors were greater than 0.6, suggesting acceptable reliability levels (Malhotra 2004).

As far as the cognitive satisfaction scale is concerned (Table 2), seven factors emerged, accounting for nearly 70% of the variance. The Inter-personal items accounted for the
largest proportion of the variance (11.7%), while safety & security accounted for the least (7.1%). Two emotion factors (positive and negative emotions) were found, each accounting for around 22% of the variance in the data (Table 3).

Logistic regression was employed to explore the determinants of festival satisfaction. The purpose of logistic regression is to predict whether a respondent is likely to belong to one of two categories given certain other information (Field, 2000). The dependent variable in this study is overall satisfaction, which was measured using a five point likert-scale. In order to accommodate the principles of logistic regression (the outcome variable is dichotomous), two satisfaction groups had to be formed. An analysis of the frequencies showed that the vast majority of the respondents were either overall satisfied or very satisfied (240 of the 263 respondents). Those who were ‘uncertain’ or dissatisfied (23) were left out of the analysis so that the results reflect clear satisfaction levels. Thus, in this study, the objective is to examine whether a respondent is likely to be satisfied or very satisfied with the event as a whole given certain cognitive and affective evaluation factors (the independent variables).

Tables 2 and 3 also present the mean values for each of the factors. With regards to the cognitive satisfaction, in descending order of satisfaction, respondents were mostly satisfied with the interpersonal dimension, followed by entertainment and safety & security. Respondents were least satisfied with food & drink and information & organisation. With regards to the emotional satisfaction, the mean value suggests that on average respondents frequently felt positive emotions (mean value around 2), while they rarely felt negative emotions (mean value around 4).

### Table 2

**Factor Analysis of Satisfaction Items (N=281)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Inter-personal</th>
<th>Food &amp; drink</th>
<th>Staff</th>
<th>Entertainment</th>
<th>Facilities</th>
<th>Information &amp; organisation</th>
<th>Safety &amp; Security</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Opportunity to meet new people</td>
<td>0.807</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friendliness of other festival goers</td>
<td>0.802</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunity to make new friends</td>
<td>0.765</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behaviour of other festival goers</td>
<td>0.678</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The number of other festival goers</td>
<td>0.575</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of food</td>
<td>0.819</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variety of food</td>
<td>0.769</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price of food</td>
<td>0.765</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variety of drinks</td>
<td>0.632</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price of drinks</td>
<td>0.562</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professionalism of staff</td>
<td>0.836</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helpfulness of staff</td>
<td>0.834</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quantity of staff</td>
<td>0.765</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of entertainment</td>
<td>0.799</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variety of entertainment</td>
<td>0.789</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music line-up</td>
<td>0.682</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sound quality</td>
<td>0.522</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Availability of toilets</td>
<td>0.854</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleanliness of facilities</td>
<td>0.846</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The facilities</td>
<td>0.707</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

463
Logistic regression works by comparing two models: one that includes the constant in the regression equation (i.e. all predictor variables are omitted – the initial model) and one that includes the predictor variables (the new model). These two models are then compared and if the accuracy of classification and the log-likelihood value improve, the new model is considered to be more accurate in predicting the outcome variable (Field, 2000). In this study, three models (initial model and new models 1 and 2) are calculated as the determinant variables were entered in two blocks. As noted in the literature, past studies have attempted to explain satisfaction using primarily cognitive factors. In this study, the purpose is to explore the extent to which affective factors can improve the predictive ability of satisfaction models. Therefore, a two stage logistic regression analysis was undertaken. In the first stage, the (seven) cognitive factors were entered in the model (new model 1), replicating past methodologies. In the second stage, both the cognitive and the (two) affective factors were entered in the model (new model 2). The contribution of the affective factors is then assessed by comparing the performance of the new models 1 and 2.
There are a number of values that can be used to understand whether a model provides a better fit to the data. The log-likelihood value reflects the extent of unexplained observations. If a model has a lower log-likelihood value, this means that there are fewer unexplained observations and therefore the fit of the model improved (Field, 2000). An analysis of the overall accuracy of classification is another way of assessing the success of a model (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001). This reflects the ability of the model to correctly predict the outcome category (i.e. whether a festival-goer is satisfied or very satisfied) based on the predictor variables (the cognitive and affective satisfaction). Finally, the Cox and Snell’s and Nagelkerke’s values, which are pseudo R2 measures, can also be used to examine improvements in the fit of the model. They reflect the strength of association for a model (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001). The Cox and Snell measure cannot achieve the value of 1 and Nagelkerke’s measure is an adjusted version of the Cox and Snell so that the value of 1 can be achieved. Similar to the R2 value in linear regression, the Nagelkerke’s value can be used as a proxy for the variance explained in the outcome variable (overall satisfaction) by the predictor variables (Field, 2000).

Once it has been established that the model fits the data well, the parameter estimates for each predictor variable can be analysed using three values (Field, 2000; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001). The $\beta$ value is the regression coefficient and represents the positive or negative impact of the predictor on respondent’s level of overall satisfaction. The $\text{Exp}(\beta)$ value (also called the odds ratio) refers to the change in the odds that a festival-goer becomes very satisfied if the predictor increases one unit. For example, the $\text{Exp}(\beta)$ value of 2 indicates that for a one unit change in the predictor, the odds of being very satisfied increases two-fold. The third value that needs to be analysed is the $p$ value, which indicates the probability of the coefficient ($\beta$) in making a significant contribution to becoming very satisfied.

RESULTS

An analysis of the log-likelihood values for the initial model (only contains the constant) and new model 1 (the cognitive) show that the value decreased from 312.302 to 226.325, suggesting that the addition of the predictor variables results in fewer unexplained observations. The ability of the model to accurately predict category membership (i.e. whether an individual is satisfied or very satisfied) increased from 64% to 76.6%, indicating that adding the predictor variables increases the reliability of the model at correctly classifying cases (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001). The Nagelkerke measure was 0.414, suggesting that the cognitive predictors explain 41.4% of the variance in the overall satisfaction with the festival. Taken together, these results indicate that the new model 1 (the cognitive model) fits the data better than the model without predictor variables.
Table 4
Characteristics of the Models

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>New model 1 (cognitive only)</th>
<th>New model 2 (cognitive + affective)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Value</td>
<td>Df</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initial -2 Log likelihood (X²)</td>
<td>312.301</td>
<td>312.301</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Log likelihood (X²)</td>
<td>226.325</td>
<td>202.285</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cox &amp; Snell R²</td>
<td>0.302</td>
<td>0.369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nagelkerke R²</td>
<td>0.414</td>
<td>0.506</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initial group classification</td>
<td>64.0%</td>
<td>64.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfied</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very satisfied</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Final group classification</td>
<td>76.6%</td>
<td>79.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfied</td>
<td>86.9%</td>
<td>87.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very satisfied</td>
<td>58.1%</td>
<td>65.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test of model coefficient (X²)</td>
<td>85.963</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hosmer &amp; Lemeshow goodness-of-fit test (X²)</td>
<td>6.082</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The analysis was then centred on comparing new models 1 (cognitive) and 2 (cognitive + affective). The underlying question is to what extent does the addition of measures of emotional experience contribute to explaining the overall satisfaction of festival attendees. The results show that the log-likelihood value was further reduced when the two emotion factors (positive and negative emotions) were added to the model. The addition of emotions has also contributed to an improvement in the accuracy of classification from 76.6% to 79.5%. This improvement was largely due to the ability of emotions to improve the classification of those who were very satisfied (from 58.1% in the new model 1 to 65.1% in the new model 2). The greatest contribution of the emotional experience was perhaps at the level of the variance explained by the predictor variables. The Nagelkerke’s value increased to 0.506, indicating that emotions account for an additional 9.2% of the variance in overall satisfaction (50.6%-41.4%=9.2%).

The parameter estimates for the predictor variables for new models 1 and 2 are shown in Table 5. As far as the new model (the cognitive model) is concerned, two of the seven predictors (entertainment and safety & security) do not make a significant contribution to explaining overall level of satisfaction (at the 0.05 level of significance). From those who do make a significant contribution, the interpersonal factor was the most important predictor as given by the Exp(β) value of 3.372. This value suggests that a one unit improvement in the satisfaction with the interpersonal factor would lead to a more than three-fold increase in the likelihood of a festival attendee becoming very satisfied. Of the significant predictors, the second and third most important predictors of overall satisfaction were food & drink and staff, respectively, with an odds ratio around 2.

When the emotion factors are included in the model, three of the cognitive factors do not make a significant contribution to predicting the overall level of satisfaction. In addition to entertainment and safety & security, the interpersonal factor, which was the most important predictor when only cognitive factors were included, is now not significant (p=0.096). Of the emotions factors, negative emotions were not a significant contributor,
while positive emotions were. In fact, positive emotions are the most important factor contributing to explain overall satisfaction with an odds ratio of 4.6. This means that for a one unit change in positive emotions, an individual is 4.6 more likely to become very satisfied. Food & drink and staff were again the second and the third most important predictors, with an associated \( \text{Exp(} \beta \text{)} \) value of around 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Determinants of Satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Table 5</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>New model 1</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>New model 2</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \beta )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food &amp; drink</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information &amp; organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety &amp; security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive emotions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative emotions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CONCLUSIONS AND MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

Satisfaction has been emphasised as a key area for sustainable business ventures as without satisfied consumers no business will survive in a competitive market. Ensuring appropriate levels of both new and repeat patronage is dependent on delivering suitable levels of satisfaction and this is no exception in festivals. Therefore, festivals should closely monitor the satisfaction of patrons. However, much debate has been taking place regarding how to best explain consumer satisfaction. Among one of the most interesting discussions in relation to what influences satisfaction is the relative influence of cognitive and affective factors. This study attempted to contribute to this discussion by examining the determinants of festival satisfaction and the contribution of emotions to explain festival satisfaction.

One of the objectives of this paper was to examine the extent to which emotional satisfaction contributed to explaining overall satisfaction using logistic regression. The main issue here is one of balancing accuracy with parsimony. Adding more variables can enhance the accuracy (i.e. enhance the ability of the model to predict the outcome), but reduces parsimony (i.e. using fewer concepts and propositions to explain the phenomenon as possible) (Fawcett and Downs, 1992). The results show that adding emotions to the satisfaction model increased the variance explained in the overall satisfaction to a great extent (nearly 10 percentage points). These results support previous findings, which have also found emotions to greatly improve variance (Yu and Dean, 2001).
However, the benefit of using logistic regression when compared to other statistical analyses is an ability to compare the accuracy of classification of the two models (the cognitive and the cognitive + affective). As mentioned earlier, the accuracy of classification refers to the ability of the model to correctly predict whether a festival-goer is satisfied or very satisfied based on the predictor variables (the cognitive and affective satisfaction). The cognitive model was able to correctly classify a large proportion of respondents (76.6%), and only a modest improvement was found when the extended model (cognitive + affective) was run (around 3 percent points to 79.5%). A closer analysis of the results further showed that the increase in the overall degree of accuracy came from an ability of emotions to improve the correct classification of the very satisfied. This suggests that emotions are likely to have a stronger explanatory value for those who show high levels of satisfaction, while cognition appears to capture lower levels of satisfaction well. However, more research could be undertaken to further explore this area.

By using logistic regression it was possible to identify the areas where efforts should be directed, as well as which factors should take priority as they appear to have a greater impact on overall satisfaction. However, a discussion of the determinants of festival satisfaction (the other objective of this paper) depends on the type of model selected for analysis. Interpersonal satisfaction was the single most important predictor of overall satisfaction in the cognitive model, while it was not a determinant when emotions were added to the model. As discussed above, satisfaction is better explained by cognitive and affective factors together. Therefore, an analysis of the determinants of satisfaction is undertaken in relation to this model.

According to the results, the management of positive emotions throughout the event is of noticeable importance as shown by the largest regression coefficient. This finding supports previous research that also reported the critical importance of positive emotions to explaining satisfaction (Yu and Dean, 2001; Lee et al, 2008). A greater understanding of the emotions consumers seek to go through whilst at a festival and how they can be delivered is required on the part of festival managers. These could include relaxation, excitement and happiness. This also has important implications for event management education, suggesting that more attention should be paid to the design of the experience (understood here as the design of emotions). Theories such as reversal theory (Apter, 1989), flow theory (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990) could be useful tools in understanding the mechanics behind human emotion.

Improving the levels of satisfaction with Food & Drink, Staff, Facilities and Information & Organisation should also lead to more satisfied participants. Interestingly, these four factors were the ones where participants indicated lower levels of satisfaction (as given by the mean value). An analysis of the regression coefficients shows that more effort should be put in to improving the first two than on the Facilities and the Information & Organisation. While this study did not determine what specific aspects should be
addressed within each of these categories, the researchers’ observations at the event provide clues as to what could have caused these lower levels of satisfaction.

As far as food & drink is concerned, students are very price sensitive as they tend to have little discretionary income. The Festival advertised “food and drinks at student prices”, with students creating an expectation that the prices would be the same as they get in their hometowns. Yet, while prices were cheaper than in other festivals, they were more expensive than what students perceive to be ‘student prices’. Therefore, managing student expectations regarding what prices to expect might be an effective way of avoiding lower levels of satisfaction. This could be achieved by showing the prices of food and drink in advance.

The event relies on volunteers for most of its staffing during the event. In this study, staff issues related to helpfulness, quantity or professionalism of staff. It could be that volunteers were little informed about the programme of the event (they were not given a copy of the programme), or that there were simply not enough staff. In addition, not all staff were clearly identified, which could have resulted in a perception that there were not many people working during the event.

Another determinant of satisfaction was Facilities. This could be related to some issues with toilets and showers. There were technical problems in the first day that partially continued on the second day, resulting in some facilities not being available or available on a limited or lower standard basis.

Finally, Information & Organisation should also be improved if more students are to become very satisfied with the festival. The information tent did not open until late in the first day of the event, and it was not open for the whole period of the event. In addition, the programme of the festival had to be purchased, while there were problems with the transfer of participants from the car park to the venue (waiting times up to 4 hours) due to the low number of buses available. Improving on these issues could lead to more satisfied participants with the Information & Organisation and consequently with the event as a whole.

In this study, negative affect did not predict overall satisfaction, a result that is consistent with previous studies (Lee et al, 2008). One plausible explanation for the insignificant role of negative emotions is related to the experiential characteristics of festivals (Koelemeijer at al, 1995; cited in Liljander and Strandvik, 1997). Negative emotions, which in the context of a festival are reactive in nature, are likely to have an effect on overall satisfaction to the extent they affect positive emotions (i.e. directive), that is, as an indirect effect (which was not studied here).
REFERENCES


ECSTASY, DEHYDRATION AND INADEQUATE PROVISION OF TOILET AMENITIES FOR FEMALE MUSIC FANS

Lynn Van Der Wagen

Abstract

The convergence of two separate student research projects occurred when a comment made by one respondent linked the two themes. The research projects investigated firstly, satisfaction with provision of toilet amenities at music events and secondly, drug use associated with different music genres. The female respondent stated that the queues at events were so long that she did not drink anything so that she would not miss acts or lose her place. This has potentially serious ramifications, including death from dehydration due to ecstasy use, exacerbated by lack of adequate toilet facilities. While this risk may be overstated, the findings from the research showed high levels of dissatisfaction with toilet amenities at festivals and events among female respondents. On a satisfaction scale, this aspect of the event was rated as important as food/beverage and parking/transport and clearly deserves greater attention from event organisers.

Keywords:
Event planning, Music festivals, Ecstasy, Dehydration, Toilet amenities

INTRODUCTION

This article brings together the operational issues of providing free drinking water and an adequate number of toilets to festival and event patrons, and suggests that dehydration is a health risk, particularly at events where the use of ecstasy (MDMA) occurs among female patrons. Where female patrons are faced with long queues, this research suggests that some deliberately limit their liquid intake to avoid using portaloos, particularly as long waits mean that they miss the performance and lose their place.

In Australia, the movie ‘Kenny’ has brought the issue of portable toilets into the public consciousness, the hilarious documovie highlighting the tricky problems faced by contractors in this specialised area, including a memorable scene in which Kenny defends his portaloos from petrol bomb attacks by inebriated hooligans. In contrast to the inferior facilities provided at many events, preparation for the final Mass of World Youth Day in 2008 included the installation of 3500 porcelain toilets, one for every 85 pilgrims. This construction project involved a team of thirty construction workers and a project manager. Beneath the blocks of toilets were 10,000-litre storage tanks, which were emptied into trucks throughout the day. After the event, these toilets were washed, disinfected and sold. The provision of adequate toilet facilities at events is an operational issue for which there are recommendations regarding the most appropriate number of cubicles, this depending on the number of male and female attendees, the weather, time of day and provision of alcohol. As most festival goers already know, the number of
toilets provided for female music fans is usually inadequate, evidenced by the long queues and sometimes colonisation of the facilities provided for men.

Provision of drinking water is another consideration for event organisers. Glastonbury Festival serviced by WaterAid (an aid organisation providing the developing world with a supply of water, access to sanitation and hygiene education) provides a free water stand. From there drinking water is handed out to festival goers who often give a donation in return for this service. This also provides an opportunity to tell visitors about WaterAid's work, and how they can help to provide clean water to some of the 1.1 billion people in the world who do not have access to it. In addition to the drinking water giveaway at the main stage, WaterAid provides sanitation and hygiene services to the whole Glastonbury Festival site. In Australia, the Victorian Government has announced agreement between the Australian Hotels Association, the Nightclub Owners Association and Restaurant and Catering Victoria to Voluntary Guidelines to provide free or low-cost drinking water on licensed premises, including festivals and events. Many event guidelines provided by government agencies recommend the provision of free drinking water although implementation is varied. For example, a recent press release titled ‘Something for everyone…except the thirsty’ (SMH, 2008) highlighted the exorbitant cost of bottled water sold at events, the example cited being the 2008 Homebake music festival at which water was sold for $5 a bottle.

There have been several deaths of patrons at music festivals attributed to the use of illicit drugs, most notably three young women in Australia, the most recent occurring in Perth in 2009. Ecstasy or MDMA is a Schedule I synthetic, psychoactive drug possessing stimulant and hallucinogenic properties. Ecstasy possesses chemical variations of the stimulant amphetamine or methamphetamine and a hallucinogen, most often mescaline. It causes dehydration, which, coupled with intense body heat from dancing in a packed environment and a lack of water, can easily lead to sickness and, in rare cases, death. Health recommendations, other than avoiding illicit drug use, include sipping water regularly rather than drinking large quantities of water too late. Two deaths attributed to ecstasy use in Australia were Anna Wood (aged 15 in 1995), and Annabel Catt (aged 20 in 2007). The most recent overdose is reported to have occurred when a 17 year old female ingested three tablets when faced with the prospect of a dog search.

The contributing risk of dehydration may be low but in combination with more generalised customer satisfaction issues the issues of providing sufficient and well located toilet facilities as well as free water deserve attention. In their research, Lee and Beller (2007) investigated first time visitor expectations and performance level relating to comfort amenities at events, and these findings are shown in Table 1.1 (mean scores).
Table 1.1 Visitor expectation and performance levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comfort amenities</th>
<th>Expectation</th>
<th>Performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Street signs that give directions</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>3.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information booths that give site direction and live performance information</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>3.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Availability of portable toilets</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>4.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleanliness of portable toilets</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>4.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of places to sit down and rest</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>4.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Site accessibility for those with special needs</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>4.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Availability of parking</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>3.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Values are from a 5 point Likert scale: 1=least expected or performed to 5= most expected or performed. Source: adapted from Lee and Beller (2007), p.203.

Lee and Beller (2007) go further to investigate disconfirmation, satisfaction and future intention, which is beyond the scope of this review. However, this example of a customer perception survey indicates, at face level at least, the importance placed on comfort amenities, availability and cleanliness of toilets, these rating at least 4 on a 5 point scale.

METHODS

The purpose of the study was to measure satisfaction with provision of toilet facilities at festivals and events, the survey sample being one of convenience, primarily using friends and associates. Seventy five respondents answered the online survey.

RESULTS

The ‘loo queue’ survey achieved a response from seventy three females, forty four percent having attended a medium size event and forty eight percent having attended a large event on the scale of Big Day Out or the Royal Easter Show as shown in Table 1.2. Of the events attended, forty three percent were music events, followed by twenty nine percent sporting events, illustrated in Table 1.3 and Figure 1.1.

Table 1.2 Size of event attended

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Size of event attended</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Small eg Fete/market</td>
<td>8.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium eg NRL Football game</td>
<td>43.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large eg Big Day Out/Easter Show</td>
<td>47.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1.3 Type of event attended

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of event</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Music</td>
<td>43.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural</td>
<td>8.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sporting</td>
<td>28.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td>9.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community</td>
<td>9.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Most respondents found that cleanliness, supplies, hand towels, smell, vanity and sanitary disposal were average or below average, smell causing the highest level of dissatisfaction. This is illustrated in Table 1.4.

Table 1.4 Level of satisfaction with amenities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Amenities</th>
<th>Very poor</th>
<th>Poor</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Good</th>
<th>Excellent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cleanliness</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplies</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hand towel bin</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smell</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vanity/sink</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanitary Disposal</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In terms of waiting time, most respondents waited for five to ten minutes. However 34.7% waited for ten to twenty minutes, 8.3% waited for twenty to thirty minutes and 4.2% waited for up to sixty minutes. One respondent reporting going home early as she could not face the waiting required. These wait times are illustrated in Table 1.5 and Figure 1.2. Just over fifty percent of respondents missed part of the show as a result of this wait and twenty four percent said that this would impact on their decision to attend a future event.
Table 1.5 Waiting times

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Waiting time</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5 - 10 minutes</td>
<td>52.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 - 20 minutes</td>
<td>34.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 - 30 minutes</td>
<td>8.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 - 60 minutes</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60 min or more</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1.2 Waiting times

Figure 1.3 Percentage missing the event

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Did you miss any of the event?</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>no</td>
<td>49.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yes</td>
<td>50.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1.4 Decision to attend again

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Decision to attend again affected?</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>no</td>
<td>76.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yes</td>
<td>23.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Finally, various operational aspects of event management were listed so that respondents could rank their importance. As Table 1.6 illustrates, amenities (toilets) were assigned the same weighting as food and beverage and transport and parking. A number of comments made by respondents highlighted their feelings, ‘If the event has good amenities, it makes your memories of the event itself so much better and I would be more likely to go again’ and ‘the thing that I remember the most is the queue and how much time I spent waiting in it.’
Table 1.6 Comparative importance of event services

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Event Category</th>
<th>1 (Least Imp)</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4 (Most Imp)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Food and Beverage</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>26 (35.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport/Parking</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>32 (43.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amenities (Toilets)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>32 (43.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Aid/Security</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>16 (42.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visibility/Seating/Comfort</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>20 (60.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recycling/Green</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>18 (31.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sound Quality</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>27 (44.4%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Concurrently with this survey, another was conducted to align perceptions of drug use with particular music genres, this survey finding that ecstasy use is perceived to be highest for dance/electronic performances, over ninety five percent of respondents associating ecstasy use with this type of music.

These findings, from two groups of students undertaking their first research projects led to an eureka moment when one respondent said that she drinks as little as possible at music events so that she doesn’t have to queue at toilets. Two groups of female students reading this result agreed that they too reduce their liquid intake for this reason. Death from dehydration, particularly for female fans is a high risk and in many countries water is provided at these events free of charge in an effort to prevent some of the most serious side effects. This unexpected finding points to an important reason to provide an adequate number of toilet facilities at music events, this being a mitigation measure for a risk that has potentially fatal outcomes. If this risk is overstated, event organisers can fall back on the general findings that half the respondents missed part of a performance when queuing, and that 12.5% waited between 20 and 60 minutes, leading to a high level of dissatisfaction, ‘I could not bear to wait so I left.’

**DISCUSSION**

The American Restroom Association has draft guidelines for outdoor events (‘Guidelines for proper toilet sanitation facilities outside of buildings and structures’ 2008).

For Special Events for which there are no permanent toilet facilities, portable sanitation units (PSUs) should be provided as follows:
- for a typical distribution of men, women and children, there must be 1 toilet for every 300 people.
- for an Event attended primarily by women and children there should be 1 toilet for every 200 people.
- for an even distribution of men and women at an event where alcoholic beverages are served, there should be 1 toilet for every 240 people.

In Australia, guidelines are provided by Emergency Management Australia and replicated in guidelines issued by states, territories and local government. These include recommendations for both events with and without alcohol (Tables 1.7 and 1.8) and reductions are suggested for events with a shorter duration than 8 hours. The tables provided here are from the Emergency Management Australia Manual, *Safe and Healthy Mass Gatherings* ('Safe and Healthy Mass Gatherings' 2008).

**Table 1.7  Toilet facilities for events where alcohol is not available:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Patrons</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th></th>
<th>Females</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WC</td>
<td>Urinals</td>
<td>Basins</td>
<td>WC</td>
<td>Basins</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;500</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;1000</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;2000</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;3000</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;5000</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 1.8  Toilet facilities for events where alcohol is available:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Patrons</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th></th>
<th>Females</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WC</td>
<td>Urinals</td>
<td>Basins</td>
<td>WC</td>
<td>Basins</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;500</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;1000</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;2000</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;3000</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;5000</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 1.9  Duration of event**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duration of event</th>
<th>Quantity required</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8 hours plus</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6–8 hours</td>
<td>80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4–6 hours</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 4 hours</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One unisex toilet is recommended for persons with a disability per 100 toilets.
These recommendations also highlight the following requirements including spaces for changing and feeding infants.

Facilities should be:

- clearly designated for each sex with unisex toilets for disabled persons
- separate from food service preparation and storage areas
- cleaned and maintained for the duration of the event
- well lit and clearly identified
- situated and screened to ensure privacy
- preferably having separate approach for each sex
- provided with handwashing basins with cold running water, soap (bar or liquid),
- disposable towels or air dryers and waste containers
- provided with toilet paper
- provided with provisions for disposal and removal of sanitary napkins, nappies and incontinence pads, condoms, needles and syringes and other refuse
- provided to enable feeding and or changing of infants.

The suggestion that some female members of the audience deliberately dehydrate in order to keep their places in the mosh pit and avoid the queues would need further investigation. According to Buchanan Reed, Chief Executive Officer of UniMed First Aid:

‘This is an example of the thinking of what I call the "10%" which are the people who attend events and apply bizarre behaviours which they justify with poorly constructed arguments. At any dance event, there are those who act irresponsibly and take risks, which is not the vast majority of event goers. When you consider that the average medical presentation rate for a major dance party is about 15 per thousand that means that 985 people didn't have a problem or fixed it themselves. From my perspective as an ambulance paramedic, the sort of people who think if they don't drink they won't miss acts are the same sort of people who mow the lawn in sandals.

I would strongly suggest that a few people reporting this sort of behaviour is not indicative of a serious issue or trend. I have never seen any evidence that access to toilet facilities causes widespread changes in fluid intake, however it would affect a small number of people who would engage in risk taking behaviour anyway. It is not the responsibility of event managers to change their infrastructure arrangements to mitigate poor common sense by a small number of people. However, it is reasonable to assume that organizers should continually enforce messages about appropriate fluid intake.'
Whether or not event operations managers give any consideration to the health risks associated with dehydration, from a customer service perspective adequate provision of comfort facilities is a priority. There are a number of decision factors which include:

- The number of stalls provided (male/female balance)
- The type of portaloos provided
- The clustering of portaloos (all in one area, or in multiple locations)
- The location of portaloos (when banked against perimeter fencing they provide an ideal fence jumping opportunity for those without tickets)
- The service levels provided for re-stocking
- The service levels providing for cleaning.

Furthermore, consideration can be given to design of these facilities, such as separating the female handwash/vanity area from the toilets unit to speed up through traffic. In Europe and elsewhere there have been a number of more innovative solutions, such as The Whiz (a pee funnel) invented in the UK and produced by a Brisbane company, which enables a woman to pee standing up. “It is coated with a hi-tech plasma film developed by the British Army which repels fluid, meaning women can pee, flick once to dry and stuff it in their handbag,” a spokesperson for the company said (Whizbiz 2008).

There are several other innovative solutions but it remains to be seen how many women in conservative countries are prepared to pee in public. So while there are products such as the PWP Go Bag, a leak-proof bag containing a second bag holding a crystal pouch inside in which polymer crystals are used to solidify urine and other liquids instantly into an odourless, spill-proof gel that is non-toxic and safe for disposal in any normal bin, the acceptance and use of such products remain questions for further investigation.

**CONCLUSION**

In conclusion, this survey although limited in sample size, indicates that customer satisfaction for female visitors to events requires attention to the provision of toilet facilities that are clean, smell good and are fully stocked. Most importantly they should be conveniently located and the queues should not be so long that people miss part of the performance.

While there is no evidence that lack of adequate toilet facilities contributes to risk of dehydration which is serious when linked to drug use, there remain powerful reasons for this issue to receive the attention of event organisers.
REFERENCES


'Guidelines for proper toilet sanitation facilities outside of buildings and structures' [online], American Restroom Association, <http://americanrestroom.org/pr/policy/> [viewed 9 June 2008]


TOWARDS AN UNDERSTANDING OF VOLUNTEER MOTIVATIONS: A CASE STUDY OF VOLUNTEERS AT EDINBURGH’S FRINGE SUNDAY

Paul Barron and Amanda Knoll
Edinburgh Napier University

Abstract

This study examines the motivations of volunteers at the Edinburgh Fringe Sunday event. Utilising Clary, Snyder, Ridge, Copeland, Stukas, Haugen, & Miene’s (1998) Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI), all volunteers at this event were invited to take part in the study and a questionnaire was distributed at the two pre-event volunteer briefing sessions. Almost 70% (n = 68) of Fringe Sunday volunteers completed the questionnaire and the results showed that this group of volunteers appeared motivated primarily by the Understanding function which would indicate that the volunteer is seeking to learn more about the world, or exercise skills that are often unused. Secondary motivations for volunteering at Fringe Sunday included the Values function, where the individual volunteers in order to express important values such as humanitarianism; Career function, where the volunteer’s goal is to gain career-related experience through volunteering, and the Enhancement function, where the individual can grow and develop psychologically through volunteer activities.

The results of this study have implications for the recruitment and management of volunteers at events such as Fringe Sunday. It would appear that this group of volunteers use the opportunity not only as a means of personal development but also as a method of using skills they already possess but rarely have the opportunity to utilise. An understanding of motivations such as this will allow event organisers to more carefully focus recruitment strategies and influence the methods by which such volunteers are used.

Keywords: Volunteer Functions Inventory, motivations, festivals and events

INTRODUCTION

Volunteering is an activity widely undertaken around the world, and the impact of volunteers is felt both socially and economically (Dolnicar & Randle, 2007). A recent Citizenship Survey in England and Wales found that 73% of respondents had formally or informally volunteered, and of that group, nearly half volunteered at least monthly (Communities and Local Government 2008:1). A study into volunteering in more than 20 countries found that the monetary value of hours donated by volunteers doubled that of financial contributions (Salamon & Sokolowski 2001). In America, volunteers donated
more than 20 billion hours of activity annually throughout the mid 1990s (Clary & Snyder, 1999).

Volunteers and the concept of volunteerism are topics of interest for social psychologists, economists, and human resource academics alike. The impacts of volunteerism; the management of volunteers; the psychological profile of people who volunteer and their motivations, all have been the focus of research over many years. However, despite the scale of volunteerism, Ziemek (2006 p532) considered that “regardless of the interest by academics, policy makers and practitioners, it remains an insufficiently explored research area”. Volunteerism is defined either broadly by the simple fact that volunteers receive no monetary compensation, or, more specifically by their actions and desire to help. Getz (1997) considered volunteers as staff who work for an event or organisation but are not financially remunerated, whilst Ziemek (2006) expands this definition beyond the unpaid characteristic to include the fact that volunteers are not coerced to donate their time, and their work often benefits people beyond their family (though both the volunteer and their family may benefit from his or her actions). Ziemek’s (2006) definition further addresses economic factors, stating that a volunteer’s work is productive, and without the services of that volunteer the organisation would normally be required to pay an employee to complete the same tasks.

Apart from the general understanding that volunteers are unpaid and productive, Clary & Snyder (1999) considered that volunteering is a form of planned helping, and state that the concept of volunteering is marked by several key characteristics. Firstly the helper must seek out the opportunities to help and arrives at a decision after a period of deliberation. Thereafter, it is contended that the helper provides assistance over time. Clary and Snyder (1999 p156) suggest “the helper’s decisions about beginning to help and about continuing to help are influenced by whether the particular activity fits with the helper’s own needs and goals.”

**VOLUNTEER MOTIVATIONS**

Previous research into the motivations of volunteers has been undertaken by three fairly distinct groups: economists, psychologists and sociologists, each of whom have approached volunteers from their respective angles and developed different frameworks to study their motivations (Hibbert, Piacentini, & Al Dajani, 2003). Economists are interested in the motivations of volunteers as they make an obvious contribution to society but receive no financial gain (Prouteau & Wolff, 2007). When studying volunteers, economic theorists generally acknowledge three main ‘microeconomic’ models of volunteering: Public Goods, Private Consumption and Investment (Roy & Ziemek 2000, Ziemek 2006, Prouteau & Wolff 2007). The Public Goods model explains volunteering as an altruistic act on the part of the volunteer; he or she contributes time because of an interest in the well-being of others, and a desire to increase the ‘public good’ in their society. There is no direct benefit to the volunteer other than to satisfy their concern for other people (Ziemek 2006). In the Private Consumption model,
volunteers are motivated by enjoyment of the act of volunteering, often referred to as a ‘warm glow’ feeling. Volunteers benefit from this feeling and the status or prestige associated with their actions (Prouteau & Wolff 2007). It is generally agreed that volunteering is a respectable activity, and a person who volunteers is often looked upon favourably for this, hence their feelings of self worth improve. The final model, Investment, hypothesises that volunteering is a much more business driven activity; volunteers are not donating their time, but ‘exchanging’ it to gain valuable experience, skills and even contacts to benefit their current or future careers (Ziemek 2006).

Understandably, psychologists and sociologists focus less on the exchanges within volunteering and more on the traits, values, and general personality of the volunteer. A study by Carlo, Okun, Knight & Guzman (2005) examined the relationship between the Big Five personality traits of openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism and the tendency to volunteer, and determined that respondents displaying an agreeable personality trait were more likely to volunteer. This finding was further supported by Murk & Stephan (1991) and Horne & Broadbridge (1994) who considered that most volunteering occurs when a person responds positively to a request for help. Indeed Carlo, et al (2005) considered this a significant reason as to why females are more likely to become involved in volunteering.

Some researchers, such as Omoto & Snyder (1995) and Clary et al (1998), view volunteer motivations from a functional perspective, suggesting that those who volunteer do so as a means of satisfying one or more psychological functions. A central principle of the functional approach is that different people engage in the same volunteer activity but do so to fulfill different motives (Clary & Snyder 1999). This functional approach to volunteer motivations allows for the categorisation and measurement of individual and collective motives and based on Snyder & Omoto’s (1992) and Omoto & Snyder’s (1995) inventory that examined the motivations of volunteers working with AIDS patients, Clary, et al (1998) developed the Volunteer Functions Inventory as a means of measuring generic volunteer motivations.

THE VOLUNTEER FUNCTIONS INVENTORY

As people contributing their time, skills and effort on such a large scale, for little or no reward, volunteers have been the subject of much research into their personality, their impact, and motivations. Several different frameworks have been proposed to study the motivations of volunteers including Clary, Snyder, Ridge, Copeland, Stukas, Haugen, & Miene’s (1998) Volunteer Functions Inventory. Based on the psychological theory of functionalism, which states that people carry out certain actions, such as volunteering, to fulfill psychological functions, the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) (Clary et al, 1998) measures volunteer motivations and categorises motivations into six main functions: Values, Understanding, Enhancement, Career, Social and Protective by asking volunteers to address five corresponding practical statements for each function. Table 1 below shows the six functions and their definitions. Appendix 1. presents all questions asked of volunteers by the VFI.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Conceptual Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Values</td>
<td>The individual volunteers in order to express important values like humanitarianism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding</td>
<td>The volunteer is seeking to learn more about the world or exercise skills that are often unused.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhancement</td>
<td>One can grow and develop psychologically through volunteer activities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career</td>
<td>The volunteer has the goal of gaining career-related experience through volunteering.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>Volunteering allows an individual to strengthen his or her social relationships.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protective</td>
<td>The individual uses volunteering to reduce negative feelings, such as guilt, or to address personal problems.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Functions Served by Volunteering, Their Definition and Sample Assessment Statement on the Volunteer Functions Inventory, Source: Clary, et al, (1999).

As a means of ensuring validity and reliability, the VFI was tested on different groups, such as regular adult volunteers and university students with little volunteer experience, and also applied to one group at different intervals in time to check for temporal stability (Clary et al 1998). Consequently the VFI has been utilised in a number of studies. For example, Marta, Guglielmetti & Pozzi’s (2006) used the VFI for their research on youth volunteerism in Northern Italy as a means of understanding the motivations of youth volunteers. The study found that youth volunteers displayed a complicated mix of motivations but mainly displayed a career motivation (Marta, Guglielmetti & Pozzi 2006). However, Clary et al’s (1998) VFI has not yet been used to study the motivations of festival volunteers and whilst there is much research on festivals and events, only a small amount specifically studies festival volunteers, and even less their motivations. For example Allen, O’Toole, McDonnell & Harris (2005), and Getz (1997; 2007) examine volunteer recruitment and management; O’Neill, Getz & Carlsen (1999) examined how volunteers contribute to the perceived quality of an event; Jago & Deery (2002) examined the link between quality of service and the use of volunteers; and Kemp (2002) and Karkatsoulis, Michalopoulos & Moustakatou (2005) examined the link between volunteering at mega events, volunteer satisfaction and developing a sense of national pride.

THE RESEARCH CONTEXT - FRINGE SUNDAY

The Fringe has been an important, but separate element of the Edinburgh International Festival for 62 years and comprises an eclectic mix of music, arts, drama and dance performances. Fringe Sunday is an event run primarily as a ‘thank you’ to the citizens of Edinburgh and allows them to sample Fringe acts and performances for free (Edinburgh Festival Fringe, 2008). Fringe Sunday began as a small event on Edinburgh’s High Street, but as it grew a new location was needed to accommodate the crowds it attracted and in the early 1980’s the event moved to Hollyrood Park in Edinburgh. However in 2000, Fringe Sunday moved to its current location in the Meadows area of Edinburgh.
(Edinburgh Festival Fringe, 2008) and currently comprises a one day family event held normally on the second Sunday of the Fringe Festival.

Very little research has been conducted on festival volunteers, and consequently, the VFI (Clary, et al, 1998) has not been applied to festival volunteers as a group. Unlike the Fringe, Fringe Sunday is staffed almost entirely with volunteers and it is the aim of this study to utilize the VFI (Clary, et al, 1998) to examine the motivations of people volunteering for this one off event.

METHODOLOGY AND DATA COLLECTION

The sample and setting for this research were all those people who had expressed a desire to volunteer at Fringe Sunday and who attended one of two possible training and briefing sessions. Utilising the Volunteer Functions Inventory (Clary, et al, 1998) a two part questionnaire was developed specifically to highlight demographics of the volunteers and determine their motivations for volunteering for this event. The first section asked respondents to answer questions concerning age, gender and previous volunteering activity. The second section comprised the VFI which comprised five corresponding statements to each of the six functions, Values, Understanding, Enhancement, Career, Social and Protective, totalling 30 statements (see appendix 1 for detail). Volunteers were asked to rate each statement on a Likert-scale from 1, equalling ‘Not important or accurate’, to 5, representing ‘Extremely important or accurate’.

It was felt that measuring volunteer motivations prior to the event would provide a more accurate indication of reasons for volunteering as participants would not be influenced by their actual experience of the event. In order to achieve a maximum response, and to answer questions volunteers may have had during the completion of the questionnaire, the questionnaire was administered in the controlled environment of one of two training/briefing sessions under the supervision of the researcher. Ticehurst & Veal (1999 p138) describe this approach to a questionnaire survey as a ‘captive group survey’ and suggest that this method of questionnaire administration is expeditious and less problematic than in less controlled situations. The controlled nature of the questionnaire administration resulted in a total of 68 useable questionnaires being completed. As this figure represents 65% of the total number of volunteers for this event, it is argued that the threshold of “generalisability” as espoused by Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Lowe (1999) is achieved.

The sample population comprised a majority of females (72%). Some 35 (52%) volunteers from the sample were in the 18 to 25 age range, 23 (34%) volunteers were between 26 and 35, 7 (10%) were between 35 and 45, and the remaining three (5%) were over 45 years. It was found that 13 (20%) volunteers had volunteered for Fringe Sunday in a previous year. In terms of employment, it was found that 36 (53%) of the volunteers indicated they were currently employed, 20 (29%) were students, 9 (13%) were not currently working, two (3%) were self-employed, and one respondent was retired.
(57%) of participants were currently studying towards, or had completed, post secondary education.

The questionnaires were processed by SPSS and analysed by calculating the mean score of each function. The results were then cross-tabulated by gender and age. In addition, respondents were asked how they learned about the opportunity to volunteer at Fringe Sunday, and if they have volunteered for another event or organisation in the last year or last three years.

**RESULTS**

Fringe Sunday volunteers rated the VFI function of Understanding as the most important motivator for their involvement. The functions of Values, Career and Enhancement were also very important, while the Protective and Social functions were rated as the least important motivators. It can be seen from Figure 1, below, that Fringe Sunday volunteers were clearly motivated by the Understanding function, and also by the Values, Career and Enhancement functions. The Protective and Social functions both scored comparatively low; their mean scores were less than half of the total possible score, indicating that the sample rated the functions ‘Not important’ often. As such they are considered not to be motivating factors for Fringe Sunday volunteers.

The Understanding function was scored the highest by the sample. It is contended that when volunteering to satisfy the Understanding function, a person is seeking to learn more about themselves and the world, or “exercise skills that are often unused” (Clary & Snyder 1999 p157). Fringe Sunday volunteers indicated they were most motivated by learning or developing skills, and rated the VFI statements number 30, “I can explore my own strengths”, and number 18, “Volunteering lets me learn things through direct, hands on experience”, the highest for the function. The function of Values scored the second highest mean. Again, according to Clary & Snyder (1999), those individuals who are motivated by this function desire to actively show their concern for other people, and the function includes VFI statement number 3, “I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself”. Fringe Sunday volunteers rated all Values statements consistently important and very important. The VFI statements number 19, “I feel it is important to help others”, and number 22, “I can do something for a cause that is important to me” were rated the highest.

Fringe Sunday volunteers scored the Career function third most important. Clary & Snyder (1999) defined the Career function as driving those volunteers who have the goal of securing career-related experience through their activities. This study found that those Fringe Sunday volunteers who participated in this study were interested in the positive career benefits of volunteering for the event, such as the opportunity to make new business contacts, or to add experience to their CV.
The Enhancement function was ranked fourth, and as its score places it in the upper half of mean scores, it is considered to be the last function motivating Fringe Sunday volunteers. In the Enhancement function, volunteering is a means to improve one's self-esteem, to make new friends, and to feel needed by society; through volunteering one can “grow and develop psychologically” (Clary & Snyder 1999 p157). Within the Enhancement function, VFI statement number 29, “Volunteering is a way to make new friends”, was rated the highest by Fringe Sunday volunteers.

The lowest scoring functions were Protective and Social. The Protective function, which suggests that volunteers are motivated as a way to address personal problems, or to alleviate the guilt of being more fortunate than others was ranked second last by the volunteers, and Fringe Sunday volunteers rated the statements from the Protective function not important. The least important function for Fringe Sunday volunteers was Social. According to Clary & Snyder (1999), volunteers motivated by the Social function use their activities to reinforce their social relationships. VFI statements from the function included number 2, “My friends volunteer” and number 23, “Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best”. The results of this study would indicate that these were not significant factors for the Fringe Sunday volunteers sampled.

These initial results were then cross-tabulated according to gender. Figure 2 below, shows that female and male Fringe Sunday volunteers sampled were very close in their responses to the VFI survey. Both genders scored the functions in the same order of importance, giving Understanding the highest score, followed by Values, Career and Enhancement. The female respondents scored Understanding, Values and Career slightly higher than the male volunteers. However, it is interesting to note that the male volunteers sampled rated the Enhancement function, which satisfies the ego and self-esteem, noticeably higher than female volunteers.
The tendency for females to score most values slightly higher could be due to the response style of the female volunteers. The raw data showed that when females rated a statement highly, they would use the highest ratings, ‘Very important or accurate’ or ‘Extremely important or accurate’, more often. Male volunteers would use the highest ratings less often, instead using the lower two ratings, ‘Somewhat important’ and ‘Important’, in contrast with the lowest rating ‘Not important’.

Unfortunately, the size of the sample rendered a more sophisticated approach to statistical analysis invalid and consequently T.Tests were unable to be conducted. However, the results were cross-tabulated by age and figure 3, below, presents an overview of the mean scores according to age group. It can be seen that while Understanding is the still the most important function motivating the Fringe Sunday volunteers sampled, those in the 18 to 25 age range scored the Career function second most important. The volunteers in the 26 to 35, 36 to 45 and 45 and upwards age ranges, here treated as one group, scored the Values function second, and the Career function third. For the younger volunteers, the career-related benefits of the Career function proved to be stronger motivators than those in the Values function. In particular, the 18 to 25 age range rated the Career VFI statements 15, “Volunteering allows me to explore different career options”, and 28, “Volunteering experience will look good on my resume”, as the first and second most important motivations within the function respectively. For young people considering a career in festivals and events, volunteering at Fringe Sunday is an excellent opportunity to gain insight. They may also be looking for ways to develop their CVs, given that they may lack extensive previous work experience.

Yet the remaining age groups also rated Career motivators relatively high, indicating that career-related benefits are still important to volunteers who are already working. As a whole many of the volunteers aged 26 and upwards agreed with VFI statement 10, “I can make new contacts that might help my business or career”, and statement 1, “Volunteering can help me to get my foot in the door at a place where I would like to
work”. For the slightly older volunteers already in employment, volunteering for Fringe Sunday could be a potential networking opportunity, or a chance to consider a career change.

![Figure 3 – Mean Score of VFI Functions, by Age Group](image)

Finally, volunteers were asked how they had heard about Fringe Sunday, and if they had recently volunteered elsewhere. This study found that the most common method of learning about volunteering opportunities at Fringe Sunday was via the Edinburgh Festival Fringe website, [www.edfringe.com](http://www.edfringe.com) with over half of the respondents suggesting that they had found links on the Fringe homepage that presented more information about Fringe Sunday, and downloaded the volunteer application pack. Other methods of learning about opportunities to volunteer included viewing the Fringe shop window advert (16%) and speaking to family or a friend (10%). The remaining 20% of volunteers had previously volunteered at Fringe Sunday.

Respondents were asked to give an indication of volunteering activity over the previous 12 months and the previous 36 months. It was found that volunteering appeared to be a reasonably common activity with almost half of the respondents stating they had volunteered over the previous 12 months and 68% volunteering at some point in the past three years.

**DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

The aim of this research was to establish the motivations of Fringe Sunday volunteers by surveying the group using Clary, et al’s (1998) Volunteer Functions Inventory. The results show that Fringe Sunday volunteers are motivated mainly by the Understanding function, and by a mix of the Values, Career, and Enhancement functions. While Understanding was scored the most important function, the difference between the mean scores for the Values, Career and Enhancement functions are quite small. The Protective and Social functions scored significantly lower than the first four functions, and as such,
are not seen as significant motivators for Fringe Sunday volunteers. However, the mixture of functions motivating Fringe Sunday volunteers does support Ziemek’s (2006) observation that a group of volunteers will have more than one motivation for their actions. Yet, festival volunteers as a group prove to be different from those in Ziemek’s (2006) study, which found that for regular organisation volunteers in developed economies, the Investment model was rated lower than the Private Consumption model. For Fringe Sunday volunteers, the opposite was the case, with the volunteers appearing to be motivated to volunteer as a means to learn about themselves and also utilise skills they would not normally have the opportunity to put into practice. It might be suggested that such volunteers consider themselves under-utilised in their everyday lives and volunteer as a means of redressing this issue. Careful management of such volunteers might reap significant rewards to the particular event and the task of understanding volunteers desire to learn about themselves and, perhaps more importantly, teasing out under-utilised skills to the benefit of the event is a key consideration for event managers.

It was interesting to note the differences in motivations dependent on age profile and event managers would be well advised to understand the different motivators between various age groups. Whilst all age groups identified the Understanding motivation as being the most important, this study found that younger volunteers were also considering future careers. This subtle difference between very young volunteers and other age groups highlights a desire for vocational experience and the possible career aspirations of 18-25 year olds, and might assist event managers with future recruitment options.

**FUTURE RESEARCH**

Edinburgh is a model festival city, where numerous volunteers contribute to the festivals which take place all year round. It is a perfect location to further study and promote the knowledge about the motivations of festival volunteers and this study is considered the first of a series of similar studies of volunteers at future Fringe Sunday events. This study has suggested that future studies might be carried out on the next group of Fringe Sunday volunteers to find out if the motivation of self-development is being fulfilled by their experiences. It is contended that motivations to volunteer might be measured prior to the event, and levels of satisfaction of their volunteering experience discussed after the event. It is also suggested that differences in gender could also be further explored. Consequently, Fringe Sunday proved to be an excellent opportunity to apply the Volunteer Functions Inventory to festival volunteers and it is considered that the event was an ideal case study for volunteers at one off events or short term festivals. It is proposed that the VFI could now be applied to other festivals requiring short term volunteers to see if the results are similar, or to long term festival volunteers, to see if their motivations are vastly different. Future research could also be structured to ensure reliability. This research may have been limited by the self-reporting nature of the survey and it is recognised that the ‘social-desirability’ bias may influence some volunteers to overstate or understate the value of a motivation. However, the value of a volunteer’s own conscious answers to the VFI survey cannot be denied. Future research could try to
improve the reliability of the results by surveying the volunteers at two different points of time before the event, and using both sets of answers to generate a mean score.

The results of this study have implications for the recruitment and management of volunteers at events such as Fringe Sunday. It would appear that this group of volunteers use the opportunity not only as a means of personal development but also as a method of using skills they already possess but rarely have the opportunity to utilise. An understanding of motivations such as this will allow event organisers to more carefully focus recruitment strategies and influence the methods by which such volunteers are used.

REFERENCES


**Table 2: Fringe Sunday Volunteers VFI Survey**

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C 1</td>
<td>Volunteering can help me to get my foot in the door at a place where I would like to work.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S 2</td>
<td>My friends volunteer.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V 3</td>
<td>I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S 4</td>
<td>People I'm close to want me to volunteer.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E 5</td>
<td>Volunteering makes me feel important.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S 6</td>
<td>People I know share an interest in community service.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P 7</td>
<td>No matter how bad I've been feeling, volunteering helps me to forget about it.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V 8</td>
<td>I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P 9</td>
<td>By volunteering I feel less lonely.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C 10</td>
<td>I can make new contacts that might help my business or career.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P 11</td>
<td>Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U 12</td>
<td>I can learn more about the cause for which I am working.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E 13</td>
<td>Volunteering increases my self-esteem.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U 14</td>
<td>Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C 15</td>
<td>Volunteering allows me to explore different career options.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V 16</td>
<td>I feel compassion towards people in need.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S 17</td>
<td>Others with whom I am close place a high value on community service.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U 18</td>
<td>Volunteering lets me learn things through direct, hands on experience.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V 19</td>
<td>I feel it is important to help others.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P 20</td>
<td>Volunteering helps me work through my own personal problems.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C 21</td>
<td>Volunteering will help me to succeed in my chosen profession.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V 22</td>
<td>I can do something for a cause that is important to me.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S 23</td>
<td>Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P 24</td>
<td>Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U 25</td>
<td>I can learn how to deal with a variety of people.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E 26</td>
<td>Volunteering makes me feel needed.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E 27</td>
<td>Volunteering makes me feel better about myself.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C 28</td>
<td>Volunteering experience will look good on my resume.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E 29</td>
<td>Volunteering is a way to make new friends.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U 30</td>
<td>I can explore my own strengths.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Clary *et al* (1998)
VOLUNTEER MOTIVATION, SATISFACTION AND FUTURE INTENTION OF CHUNCHEON MIME FESTIVAL

Sea Youn Kwak, and Soonchun Park
Kyonggi University, Korea

Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to identify the motivation, satisfaction and future intentions of volunteers at the Chuncheon Mime Festival, which was held in Chuncheon, Gangwon Province, Korea, for ten days at end of May 2008. Given the dramatically increased size and quality of festivals and events in Korea over the past fifteen years, the understanding and managing of volunteers has been overlooked among festival organizations in comparison to similar festivals in western countries. The questionnaire consists of 4 parts: volunteer motivation, satisfaction, future intention and demographics. Descriptive statistics were addressed to determine who volunteers at the Chuncheon Mime Festival. The factor analysis and reliability was employed to identify the volunteers’ motivation and satisfaction. The regression analysis was used to identify between motivation and satisfaction, as well as between satisfaction and future intension. The study examined how volunteers’ motivation and social satisfaction affected their intention of again participating as festival volunteers. According to the volunteer survey, respondents indicate the importance of each of the 16 items on a motivational scale influencing their decision to volunteer at the festival. In Korea, volunteering is not a dominant and concerted social activity as it is in western countries, and Korean people do not have as long a tradition of volunteering. The origin and growth of the Chuncheon Mime Festival, however, is similar to western festivals in many ways.

Keywords:
Festival volunteer motivation, satisfaction, future intention, Chuncheon Mime Festival
INTRODUCTION

Volunteers are one of the primary concerns of most festival administrators because many festivals have limitations on their funding and resources (Getz, 1997; William, Dossa & Tompkina, 1995; Yi, 2000). Schmader, Executive Director of the Boise River Festival (1997, p.5), indicated that volunteers can augment event staffs, expand outreach and support, provide professional expertise and direction, maximise resources and minimise expenses, and boost involvement in community events.

For the success of festivals and events, managing volunteers effectively is essential (John, Twynam, Farrell 1999,2000). Cuskelly and Boag (2001) stated that recruiting and retaining volunteers with a sense of commitment to organisational goals and values is significantly important. Slaughter (2002) pointed out the benefits of retaining volunteers and investigated the motivations of long-term volunteers at events. She insisted that it is a vital component of volunteer retention to understand why an individual is motivated to volunteer.

During the past fifteen years, festivals and events in Korea have grown remarkably in both quality and quantity. However, many Korean festival organisations still do not have enough experience with volunteers since a volunteering culture is not as dominant in Korea as in Western countries. Additionally, the majority of festivals and events in Korea are operated by event agencies, mostly based on year-to-year contracts without a systematic organisational body. Hence, understanding the importance of volunteerism among current Korean festival organisations has been relatively limited.

This study contributes to knowledge through examining how volunteers’ motivation and social satisfaction affected the intention of volunteers to participate in future festival events. For the success of festivals the willingness of volunteers to again participate is essential.

Festival Volunteers’ Motivation

To retain volunteers, organisations need to understand the motivation of the individual volunteer. Clary, Snyder and Ridge (1992) argued that identifying individual volunteer motivation allows a volunteer manager to assign volunteers appropriate tasks. Additionally, providing the opportunity for volunteers to give feedback on their
Volunteer activities increase their satisfaction, which in turn boosts their commitment (Getz, 1997). Their desire to remain a volunteer is hence likely to increase. A volunteer’s motivation is generally reflected in two distinct dimensions: altruistic motivations which relate to a desire to help others, and egoistic motivations involving specific rewards to the individual (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991).

The literature on volunteer motivations has mainly focused on the area of human services with few studies targeting motivations to volunteer at festivals and special events (Ryan & Bates, 1995; Williams et al., 1995; Farrell et al., 1998; Saleh & Wood, 1998; Johnston et al., 1999-2000). Generally, volunteer motivation can be reflected as two distinct dimensions: altruistic motivation, or desire to help others, and egoistic motivation, or specific rewards to the individual (Johnston et al, 1999-2000). Altruism can be essential for volunteers in the area of human services, yet it cannot fully explain the reason why volunteers participate in special events and festivals.

Cuskelly, Harrington, and Stebbins (2002/2003) examined the motivational factor of commitment and its relation to career volunteerism. The authors concluded career volunteers have an active relationship with the organisation and want to contribute to the success of the organisation. This falls within the motivational factor of purposive which has been shown in previously cited studies. Auld and Cuskelly (2001) examined volunteers in Australian community based organisations which included organisations devoted to sport and recreation. Factors that emerged from this study were labelled altruism (wanting to give back to the community), involvement (wanting to be involved in the community), social interaction (meeting and interaction with people), and personal benefits (leisure).

Karen Churchard (1997), associate executive director of the Fiesta Bowl, cited some general reasons why people volunteer for events and festivals: pride of ownership, source of pride, personal development, friendship and networking, excitement, and good use of spare time. In a study of a Men’s World Cup Skiing event held in Whistler, Canada, in 1994, Williams et al. (1995) found the most significant motivation for resident volunteers was an interest in supporting their community and the national team. For non-resident volunteers, working with people who share similar interests was the most important reason to volunteer. Ryan and Bates (1995) studied the motivations of unique types of volunteers for the Manawatu Rose and Garden Festival in New Zealand. Four typical leisure motivations were shown: relaxation, social interaction, sharing knowledge and showing competency. Saleh and Wood’s research
(1998) on the motivation of ethnic festival volunteers showed that ethnic volunteers are more strongly dedicated to a specially ethnic event with particular culture-related motivations: sharing their cultural heritage with others, and strongly believing their commitment is good for the community. Farrell et al. (1998) suggested that volunteer motivation may differ depending on the nature of the particular event; for instance, volunteers at sporting events might be motivated by reasons that are different from those of volunteers at cultural events.

**Volunteer Satisfaction**

Volunteer satisfaction is based upon a link between motivations and actual experience. Cnaan and Glodberg-Glen (1991) stated that people will continue to volunteer as long as the experience, as a whole is rewarding and satisfying to their unique needs (p.281). If the volunteer is satisfied, the volunteer will continue to participate, but if dissatisfied, the volunteer will cease to participate. An alternative explanation of continuing participation is that volunteering provides an opportunity for individuals to satisfy basic human needs and if those needs are met, they will continue to volunteer (Chantal & Vallerand, in press). For volunteer satisfaction the activity must provide for the volunteer’s emotional side, as well as psychological side (Cho, 2007).

**Overview of the Chuncheon Mime Festival**

Chuncheon Mime Festival began in 1989 and is held around the end of May every year. This internationally known festival is based in Chuncheon, a city surrounded by lakes and mountains just two hours to the northeast of Seoul by train or car. The Chuncheon Mime Festival focuses on contemporary visual and physical theatre where body, movement and image create new theatrical experiences. All festival events are held in Chuncheon- either in one of five indoor theatres, in the downtown streets or on Goseumdochi ‘Hedgehog’ Island in the middle of the North Han River near the center of town. The Chuncheon Mime Festival has developed into the representative performing arts festival and is now recognised as one of the largest-scale festivals in Korea, attracting 150,000 visitors to the Chuncheon City.
### Table 1

**Information of Chuncheon Mime Festival**

| Hosted by | Chuncheon Mime Festival Corp., Korea Mime Council  
|           | Chuncheon MBC (Broadcasting Corp.) |
| Organised by | Chuncheon Mime Festival Organising Committee |
| Sponsored by | Chuncheon City, Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism, Korean National Tourism Organisation, Arts Council Korea, Province of Gangwon, Embassy of Australia in Korea, Embassy of Israel in Korea |
| Event Locations | Mime House, Bomnae Theatre, Chuncheon Culture & Arts Center,  
|           | Chuncheon Puppet Theatre, Chuncheon Lifelong Education Information Center,  
|           | Myeong-dong, Gangwon National University, Hallym University, Hallym College, The Amphi theatre of Children Hall, Gosumdochi (Hedgehog) Island,  
|           | All the downtown area of Chuncheon |
| Website | www.mimefestival.com |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Period</td>
<td>May 26~30 (5 days)</td>
<td>May 24~29 (6 days)</td>
<td>May 29~June 4 (7 days)</td>
<td>May 27~June 3 (8 days)</td>
<td>May 23~June 1 (10 days)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of visitors</td>
<td>70,000</td>
<td>100,000</td>
<td>112,000</td>
<td>131,000</td>
<td>157,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of volunteers</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>255</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Reports of Chuncheon Mime Festival*

Chuncheon Mime Festival has grown to be one of the three big mime festivals in the world along with London International Mime Festival in United Kingdom and Mimos Festival in France. The Chuncheon Mime Festival is a unique mime-contents festival in Asia. When the Chuncheon Mime Festival started in 1989, only nine mime performers participated and now about 900 performers from overseas as well as Korea present performances. The Chuncheon Mime Festival created a practically new culture of festival volunteerism among local college students and has operated an effective volunteer program since 1994.

Since the degree of volunteer work and commitment expected was relatively high - full-time for three weeks to two months - the Chuncheon Mime Festival organisation targeted local college (Gangwon and Hallym University) students, who were available to work on weekdays and could participate in the volunteer workshop prior to the festival. Korean people’s general attitude toward volunteering was also anticipated to
lead to a higher participation of students. Unlike American volunteering trends\(^1\), younger Korean people are more interested in volunteering because many Korean schools require volunteer activities as part of the curriculum. Additionally, field internship programs are not as developed in Korea, therefore many college students may think of volunteering as an opportunity to learn new skills and gain knowledge for future jobs (Farrell, 1998).

The field experience provided by volunteering is a positive element in future employment opportunities as students can point to specific experience as documented by job descriptions and performance reviews and recommendations. Beginning in 2004 the CMF volunteer program divided into two types of volunteer: Kkebi-jjang, which means a leader who direct the volunteer group and Kkebi, which means workers who do support and general duties at the CMF and work for only the festival period. Table 2 shows seven different volunteer positions and their duties with the number of volunteer placements in each position.

**Table 2**
CMF 2008 Volunteer Placement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Team Position</th>
<th>No. of Volunteer Leaders (Kkebi-jjang)</th>
<th>No. of General Volunteers (Kkebi)</th>
<th>Duties</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Performance</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>House manager, artist club, caring artists, conference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Educational Program Operation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Stage crew</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Ticketing, telephone marketing, selling, ticket promotion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operation</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Operation Support in Festival site, human resource, parking, Concession</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Working at Festival Office, Meal Coupon Control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Information booth, press center, Articles, Photos, Movies, PR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>255</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Report of Volunteer program of Chuncheon Mime Festival 2008

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\(^1\) According to findings reports from the September 2006 Current Population Survey (CPS) by the Bureau of Labor Statistics of U.S. Department of Labor in the United States, the age group that volunteered the most in 2006 was 35-54 year olds (31.2%), compared to early 20s (17.8%). See http://www.bls.gov/news.release/volun.nr0.htm.
METHOD

Data Collection
The questionnaire was distributed to a population of 255 volunteers, with 131 responding, representing a 51.37 percent response rate. The questionnaire asked volunteers to identify their reasons for participating in the festival, their satisfaction with the activities they did, and their intentions concerning future volunteer participation. The questionnaires were hand-distributed to those who completed their volunteer activities. When they visited the CMF organisation office to receive their volunteer performance certificate after the festival, a volunteer coordinator asked them to participate in this survey. The total number of survey participants is 125; although 131 volunteers returned questionnaires, 6 were rejected as incomplete.

Measures
Volunteer motivation was examined using a 16-item scale adapted for this study from scales developed by Farrell, Johnston, and Twynam (1998). Satisfaction was examined as respondents were asked to measure the importance of each volunteer motivation and satisfaction on a 5-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 = Disagree strongly to 5 = Agree strongly. The questionnaire utilised four elements: volunteer motivation, volunteer satisfaction, future intention and demographics.

Data Analysis
The analysis of the data from the volunteer survey was completed using the SPSS 12.0 computer program. Descriptive statistics were addressed to determine who volunteers at the Chuncheon Mime Festival. Factor analysis and reliability was employed to identify the volunteers’ motivation and satisfaction. Regression analysis was used to discriminate between motivation and satisfaction, also used for satisfaction and future intention. In this analysis, satisfaction and future intention were considered as the independent variables and the four motivation factors as the dependent variable.

RESULT

According to the volunteer survey, respondents indicated the importance of each of the 16 items on a motivational scale influencing their decision to volunteer at the festival. Table 3 outlines the five highest-ranking and five lowest-ranking reasons for
volunteering. The most important reason, with an average response of 4.560 (on the 5-point Likert scale), was “I want to work with different people.” Other high-ranking reasons related to broadening one’s horizons (4.536), interacting with others (4.392), and develop relationships with others (4.384), show that volunteers pursue personal development and new relationships through their volunteering activities. These egoistic motivations \(^2\) demonstrate the distinctive difference between festival volunteers and social volunteers. Nevertheless, in this survey, altruistic reasons such as “I want to do something worthwhile” (4.392) and “I want to help make the event a success” (4.427) also ranked highly as top motivators.

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Highest Ranking Reasons</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Lowest ranking reason</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I want to work with different people.</td>
<td>4.560</td>
<td>My friends/family were also volunteering.</td>
<td>3.152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to broaden my horizons.</td>
<td>4.536</td>
<td>I wanted to put something back into the community.</td>
<td>3.088</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to do something worthwhile.</td>
<td>4.392</td>
<td>I am involved in mime arts or CMF.</td>
<td>3.024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to interact with others.</td>
<td>4.392</td>
<td>I have more free time than I used to have.</td>
<td>2.832</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to develop relationships with others.</td>
<td>4.384</td>
<td>I have past experience providing similar services.</td>
<td>2.672</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The findings that working with different people and broadening one’s horizon are the most important reasons to volunteer are significant to festival volunteer management in many ways.

Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Volunteering experience</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It was an opportunity to learn new things and have new experiences.</td>
<td>4.3760</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It was an opportunity to show other people interest and consideration.</td>
<td>4.1600</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^2\) The use of this terminology is rooted in Korean culture and folklore. A Kkebi is a goblin – a good goblin who does good works but is not seen. Thus, these volunteers are seen as Kkebi – doing important work but without being too visible. They work behind the scenes but are vital to success of the festival.
<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It was an opportunity to meet and talk to a variety of people.</td>
<td>4.3200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The volunteer activity provides rewards, although not financial compensation.</td>
<td>4.1040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It was a good chance to learn about this festival operation and management</td>
<td>4.1618</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It was good chance for personal growth.</td>
<td>4.2480</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteering allows me to contribute to local development.</td>
<td>3.5760</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Many people show interest and praise for my volunteer activity.</td>
<td>3.5360</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A good opportunity to assess my value and feel good about my contribution.</td>
<td>3.9040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A strong sense of pride in my volunteer accomplishment.</td>
<td>4.1600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer activity was interesting and exciting.</td>
<td>4.1040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’m generally satisfied with the CMF volunteer activity.</td>
<td>4.1440</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 shows satisfaction of the volunteers and the confidence they gained through their experience at Chuncheon Mime Festival. The satisfaction items divide into two aspects: social satisfaction and personal satisfaction. For volunteers to be satisfied there must be attention paid to their emotional side as well as their psychological side. The motivation to participate originally may be different from the motivation to participate a second time as one thinks about the actual experience one had and whether what happened synchronised with what one expected. An aspect to maintaining on-going satisfaction is maintaining the relationships developed with other volunteers.
The most significant information on this table, particularly for those interested in finding qualified volunteers, relates to gender, education, and recruitment sources. Since the Chuncheon Mime Festival organisation targeted college students as the largest segment, advertising through college career centers and ads placed at college
campuses (48.8%) were powerful marketing channels to recruit volunteers. In addition, many volunteers first heard of CMF volunteering opportunities through friends and relatives (36%), as peer groups tend to share information. Over 60% of the volunteers were female and fully 72% were current college students. Almost 50% of the volunteers were recruited through their colleges.

Table 6

| Factor Analysis for Volunteer Motivations, Cronbach Alpha Reliability Coefficients |
| Factor/Item                                                                 |
| Rotated Factor Loadings                                                      |
| Factor 1 - Affiliation                                                       |
| . I would like to work with different people.                                | .830 |
| . I want to develop relationships with others.                              | .765 |
| . I want to interact with others.                                           | .688 |
| Factor 2 - Solidarity                                                       |
| . I want to feel part of my region.                                         | .800 |
| . I would like to contribute in region of Chuncheon.                        | .747 |
| . Most people of Chuncheon area volunteered in local festival.              | .675 |
| . My neighbors want to volunteer support for the local festival.            | .612 |
| . I want to extend the tradition for volunteerism in my family.            | .502 |
| Factor 3. Fulfilling experience                                             |
| . I wish to help CMF achieve success.                                       | .789 |
| . I want to work in a valuable position in CMF.                             | .712 |
| . I want to contribute my technical skills for CMF.                         | .635 |
| . I want to help to CMF in any case.                                        | .527 |
| . I wants a change in my routine life.                                      | .493 |
| Factor 4. Opportunity for career development                               |
| . I want to learn new knowledge or skills.                                  | .782 |
| . I can obtain an educational experience.                                   | .627 |
| . I want to gain some practical experience.                                 | .536 |
| Eigen values                                                                |
| 5.052                                                                       |
| 2.145                                                                       |
| 1.223                                                                       |
| 1.102                                                                       |
| Variance explained (%)                                                      |
| 31.573                                                                      |
| 13.408                                                                      |
| 7.642                                                                       |
| 6.89                                                                        |
| Cumulative variance explained (%)                                           |
| 31.573                                                                      |
| 44.981                                                                      |
| 52.623                                                                      |
| 59.513                                                                      |
| Chronbach α .842                                                           |
| Kiser – Meyer-Olikin .873                                                    |
The 16 items were examined in terms of item scale correlations and Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficients for each of the motivation constructs. Many constructs in the social sciences are concerned with human characteristics such as cognitive processes. However, constructs can “also represent phenomena where the units of analysis are not persons” (Kline, 1998, p198). The total respondents from Chuncheon Mime Festival volunteers (N=125) was the input data.

The factor analysis examined four constructs: affiliation, solidarity, fulfilling experience, and opportunity for career development.

Table 7
Rotated Factor Loading for Volunteer Satisfaction;
Cronbach Alpha Reliability Coefficients

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rotated Factor Loading</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 1. Personal Satisfaction (mean=3.632)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New experience</td>
<td>.807</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attention</td>
<td>.746</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase personal exchanges</td>
<td>.727</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rewards (non-financial)</td>
<td>.672</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal growth</td>
<td>.624</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accomplishments</td>
<td>.582</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 2. Social Satisfaction (mean=3.23)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participate in region development</td>
<td>.834</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition from other people</td>
<td>.761</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognising the importance of self-confidence</td>
<td>.663</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding the region</td>
<td>.592</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eigen values</td>
<td>5.161</td>
<td>1.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variance explained (%)</td>
<td>51.607</td>
<td>11.523</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cumulative variance explained (%)</td>
<td>51.607</td>
<td>63.131</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cronbach α: 0.886
Keiser-Meyer Olikin = .873

The fit indices for the satisfaction examined two constructs: personal satisfaction and social satisfaction. The result of satisfaction variance explained 51.607% which is over 50% of the group. The 15 items were examined and those with a low correlation were dropped from further analysis, leaving 12 items. The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients show 0.886 which is an acceptable percentage for social sciences. The Cronbach alpha value of 0.6 is recommended for use in research by Nunnally and
Bernstein (1994). The low coefficient for screening is explained by its relatively high SD and that it had only two indicators. The Keiser Meyer Olikin 0.873 shows each item has valid two constructs. These results provided evidence that satisfaction constructs were related but distinguishable from one another.

**Table 8.**
Regression of Motivation by Factor and perceived Social Satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variable</th>
<th>Non Std. Coefficients</th>
<th>Std. Coefficients (β)</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>β</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affiliation</td>
<td>-.087</td>
<td>.450</td>
<td>-.193</td>
<td>.847</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solidarity</td>
<td>.055</td>
<td>.106</td>
<td>.044</td>
<td>.519</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fulfilling experience</td>
<td>.324</td>
<td>.083</td>
<td>.294</td>
<td>3.897</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunity for career development</td>
<td>.503</td>
<td>.115</td>
<td>.385</td>
<td>4.359</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.133</td>
<td>.104</td>
<td>.112</td>
<td>1.278</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

F= 23.645  p=.000*  R²= .430  Adjusted R²=.411

* Dependent Variable: Social Satisfaction  * Correlation coefficients are significant at α=0.05 level

The standardised regression weights (factor loadings), mean, standard deviation, and Cronbach alpha reliability measures for each of motivation constructs. The means for each dimension ranged from 0.55 to 0.133. The standardised regression weights for the observed variable in motivation and social satisfaction are examined as Table 8.

**Table 9**
Regression of Satisfaction and Perception of Future Intention

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variable</th>
<th>Non Std. Coefficients</th>
<th>Std. Coefficients (β)</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>β</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Satisfaction</td>
<td>-.215</td>
<td>.578</td>
<td>-.372</td>
<td>.711</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Satisfaction</td>
<td>.682</td>
<td>.175</td>
<td>.392</td>
<td>3.896</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.278</td>
<td>.152</td>
<td>.184</td>
<td>1.832</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

F= 23.784  p=.000*  R²= .281  Adjusted R²=.269

* Dependent Variable: Re intention  * Correlation coefficients are significant at α=0.05 level
The result of standard multiple regression analysis demonstrated that the volunteer’s future intention to volunteer again was influenced by volunteer’s satisfaction (Table 9).

CONCLUSION

In Korea, volunteering is not a dominant and concerted social activity as it is in western countries, and Korean people do not have as long a tradition of volunteering. The origin and growth of the Chuncheon Mime Festival, however, is similar to western festivals in many ways.

From the perspective of recruiting and positioning, it may be easier and more expeditious for the Chun Mime Festival as an organisation to manage a group of volunteers composed of one dominant type (students and the young) rather than a more diverse group. However, it is difficult to retain college students as long-lasting volunteers, because college students tend to stop participating in volunteering activities, when they find employment after their graduation. It is also critical for community support that community residents participate as volunteers.

Because of the time commitment required, the supervisory positions may be primarily for college students. However, looking at the make-up of these jobs and increasing their flexibility, might allow the retention of more long-term college-student volunteers and encourage others to participate. The Chuncheon Mime Festival organisation should consider reaching out to other different groups of volunteers for these positions, such as housewives and full-time employees, in order to widen and diversify participation in the Chuncheon Mime Festival volunteer program and cultivate stronger relationships with the community. In addition, the Chuncheon Mime Festival could deploy former volunteers as volunteer team leaders or as the instructors in the orientation program in order to retain experienced volunteers and use their expertise.

As an outgrowth of this study looking at volunteer satisfaction and motivation it appears that the Chuncheon Mime Festival volunteer program needs an on-going evaluation program, which to date has not been done. Since the Chuncheon Mime Festival organisation did not employ sufficient staff to implement this kind of evaluation, and the volunteer coordinator had more duties beyond managing
volunteers, it was difficult for the Chuncheon Mime Festival to perform a well-planned evaluation process. The Chuncheon Mime Festival also needs to conduct a volunteer satisfaction survey for a deeper understanding of their volunteers. This could be helpful in discovering the reasons why some volunteers want to leave the volunteer program during the festival working period, and why other volunteers wish to stay on for the duration of the festival. In addition, during the working period, supervisory staff or other staff should respond to volunteers’ needs promptly, give feedback to volunteers, recognise their performance in a timely way, and respect volunteers as partners.

This study used a small and convenient sample of festival volunteers, especially in a performing arts festival. In future research, more diverse festival cases need to be examined, and longitudinal studies may be needed to assess causality.
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Interviews:


Ji Yu-Kyong (Volunteer coordinator). Personal Inter
ASSESSING THE INFLUENCES OF FESTIVAL QUALITY AND SATISFACTION ON VISITOR BEHAVIOURAL INTENTIONS

Seon Mi Son
Chungwoon University

Kyong Mo Lee
Kyonggi University

Abstract

It has been discussed in previous research that festival quality directly and positively affects behavioural intentions, whereas satisfaction has a mediating role between festival quality and behavioural intentions. This study attempts to examine more detailed relationship among festival quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions in the context of both direct and indirect influence. Three hypotheses were proposed based on positive relationships among variables. A total of 19 items were extracted for a survey to measure the festival quality perceived by festival visitors. Survey data was collected at a three day open-gate festival in Korea. Factor analysis was employed to condense the domains of festival quality, and regression analysis was conducted to verify the established hypotheses. Three festival quality factors of general feature, comfort amenities and socialisation were identified. Accordingly those factors were used for revealing the relationship among variables. Results showed that general feature of festival quality affect most significantly the satisfaction, recommendation and revisit intention. The implication of this research provides practitioners with the particular attributes to manage for a successful festival.

Key Words:
Festival Quality, Visitor Satisfaction, Behavioural Intention

INTRODUCTION

Relationship among service quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention has been widely adopted across service industries. In the field of tourism and hospitality, Thwaites (1999) identified from the extant literature, covering services marketing, sport tourism and service quality, salient issues specific to the delivery of service quality in a sport tourism environment. Oh (1999) tested an integrative model of service quality, customer value, and customer satisfaction using a sample from the
luxury segment of the hotel industry. Aside from tourism and hospitality, in management studies, Peters (1999) discussed service quality and total quality management as a business strategy designed to add value to customers. In event management studies, service quality has been researched as a significant factor to influence visitor’s satisfaction. O’Neill et al. (1999) investigated the conceptualisation and measurement of service quality and the relationships among service quality, customer satisfaction and repeat visitation in event settings. The results showed that, with significant satisfaction ratings, 77% of respondents stated that they intended to return to the event the following year and 88% indicated that they would have no hesitation recommending the event to their friends.

Within the festival and event management area, recent studies have continuously explored these relationships, and generated numerous results on the relationship among service quality, visitor satisfaction and behavioural intentions (Kelley & Turley, 2001; Illum, 2006; Lee & Beeler, 2007; Cole, Schofield & Thompson, 2007; Lee, Petrick & Crompton, 2007; Yuan & Jang, 2008). Notably, in the earlier studies of festival quality, the attributes of perceived service quality were extracted within the context of a PZB model. However, recent research on festival quality presents festival focused attributes of quality to measure the satisfaction. The key difference of these recent studies lies in the area of festival features such as festival programs, comfort amenities, entertainment, experiences and ambiance. In line with these studies, this research underpins the attributes of festival quality, aside from those traditionally extracted from service quality of a PZB model. Consequently this research pursues the result of relationships among festival quality, visitor satisfaction and behavioural intention within the area of festivals by employing specific festival attributes.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

**Festival Quality**

The construct of service quality has received a great deal of attention from services marketing researchers and has been systematically investigated over the past 10 to 15 years (Kelly & Turley, 2001). Unlike product quality, which in itself is hard to define, the search for a working definition of service quality is further complicated by the highly transitory and intangible nature of most services (O’Neill et al, 1999). Since Parasuraman et al. (1988) introduced SERVQUAL for the measurement of service quality, studies employing this model have been widely conducted in tourism, hospitality and other service areas (Atilgan et al, 2003; DeMoranville & Bienstock,
Early festival research and tourism studies examined festival quality within the context of the SERVQUAL dimension, which is comprised of five service quality attributes such as reliability, tangibility, responsiveness, assurance and empathy. However, recent festival research shows that the particular attributes are developed specifically for the festival quality measurement, which influences festival visitor satisfaction and behavioural intention. Lee et al (2007) developed a total of 10 items as perceived service quality of a festival with four dimensions of generic features, specific entertainment features, information sources and comfort amenities. These dimensions were also observed earlier by Baker and Crompton (2000) who confirmed the perceived quality of performance has a stronger total effect on behavioural intentions than has satisfaction.

Lee & Beeler (2007) extracted three service quality factors for festivals, including general feature (visual appearance of the festival, feeling of safety at the festival, cleanliness of the festival site, friendliness of vendors or shops), specific feature (parade, arts and crafts, the kids park, live entertainment stages) and comfort amenities. Cole & Illum (2006) divided festival service quality into two domains of performance and experience, and they described performance quality as a composition of three dimensions (activities, amenities and entertainment). On the other hand, in their study of a wine festival, Yuan & Jang (2008) revealed three factors of wine festival quality, which were composed of facilities, wine and organisation. In the field of sporting events, Kelly and Turley (2001) revealed 9 specific factors of employees, price, facility access, concessions, fan comfort, game experience, showtime, convenience and smoking. Aside from the service quality perspective, employing a service-mapping technique, Getz et al (2001) established the three domains of elements affecting visitor satisfaction, which was comprised of site elements, staff elements and other elements. Whereas, employing Herzberg’s hygiene and motivator theory, Crompton (2003) analysed 24 festival attributes condensed by six factors of Dickens ambiance, Christmas ambience, source of information, comfort amenities, vendor interaction and parking. Table 1 presents previous studies with regard to service quality and festival quality. The most common items related to festivals were extracted from the table for the questionnaire of this study.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quality Items</th>
<th>Study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parking</td>
<td>O’Neill et al. (1999), Getz et al. (2001), Murray &amp; Howat (2002),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Crompton (2003), Lee &amp; Beeler (2007), González et al. (2007),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rest area &amp; facilities</td>
<td>Getz et al. (2001), Murray &amp; Howat (2002), Crompton (2003), Lee &amp;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Beeler (2007), Lee et al. (2007), Nathanail (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleanliness of toilets</td>
<td>O’Neill et al. (1999), Cronin, Jr. et al. (2000), Getz et al. (2001),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Crompton (2003), Lee &amp; Beeler (2007), Hsieh et al. (2008), Nathanail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleanliness of the festival site</td>
<td>O’Neill et al. (1999), Oh (1999), Cronin et al. (2000), Getz et al.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2007), Lee et al. (2007), Hsieh et al. (2008), Nathanail (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Street signage to venue</td>
<td>O’Neill et al. (1999), Baker &amp; Crompton (2000), Getz et al. (2001),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lee &amp; Beeler (2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2008), Hsieh et al. (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accessibility</td>
<td>O’Neill et al. (1999), Kelly &amp; Turly (2001), Getz et al. (2001), McC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cain et al. (2005), Akbaba (2006), Lee &amp; Beeler (2007), González et</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>al. (2007), González et al. (2007), Lee et al. (2007), Yuan &amp; Jang</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2008), Hsieh et al. (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Akbaba (2006), Lee &amp; Beeler (2007), González et al. (2007), Wilkins</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>et al. (2007), Coll &amp; Illum (2006), Hsieh et al. (2008), Caro &amp; Garcia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety and security</td>
<td>O’Neill et al. (1999), Oh (1999), Cronin et al. (2000), Getz et al.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nathanail (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion &amp; Information</td>
<td>Baker &amp; Crompton (2000), Crompton (2003), Hudson et al. (2004),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>González et al. (2007), Hsieh et al. (2008), Nathanail (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diversity of activities</td>
<td>Murray &amp; Howat (2002), Crompton (2003), Hudson et al. (2004), McCain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>et al. (2005), Lee &amp; Beeler (2007), Wilkins et al. (2007), Coll &amp; Illum</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Hsieh et al. (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food and beverage</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Atilgan et al. (2003), McCain et al. (2005), Akbaba (2006), González</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>et al. (2007), Wilkins et al. (2007), Lee et al. (2007), Yuan &amp; Jang</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2008), Hsieh et al. (2008), Nathanail (2008)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lee et al. (2007)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Interaction with vendors</td>
<td>Crompton (2003), Lee &amp; Beeler (2007)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Friendliness of local residents</td>
<td>Oh (1999), Atilgan et al. (2003), Nathanail (2008), Lee et al. (2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excitement</td>
<td>Kelly &amp; Turly (2001), Crompton (2003), Coll &amp; Illum (2006), Lee et al.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kindness and help of staff</td>
<td>O’Neill et al. (1999), Cronin, Jr et al. (2000), Kelly &amp; Turly (2001),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Getz et al. (2001), Murray &amp; Howat (2002), Atilgan et al. (2003), McC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cain et al. (2005), Akbaba (2006), González et al. (2007), Wilkins et</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Relationship among Quality, Satisfaction and Behavioural Intention

It has been shown in service marketing research that service quality is on a juxtapositional line with satisfaction and behavioural intention, affecting later variables. As Cole & Illum (2006) mentioned, a high level of service quality will produce satisfied visitors who are more likely to spread positive word-of-mouth, and to be repeat visitors. Therefore, festival organisers need sufficient understanding of the relationship among quality, satisfaction and future behaviour. Notably, in the area of event management, the studies on the relationships between satisfaction and behavioural intention have been encouraged. At an earlier stage, employing a structural equations model, Baker and Crompton (2000) established the hypothesis that perceived performance quality would have a stronger total effect on behavioural intentions than satisfaction, and the results showed that evaluation efforts should include both performance quality and satisfaction. Likewise, Cole and Illum (2006) applied structural equation modelling analysis procedures, adopting Cole and Scott’s tourist experience model, and revealed the mediating role of visitor satisfaction in the relationship between service quality and behavioural intentions. In addition, experience quality was found to have a direct impact on visitors’ future behavioural intentions. In recent research, Lee and Beeler (2007) explored the effect of service quality dimensions on satisfaction and future intentions, comparing first-time and repeat visitors. There were differences between first-time and repeat visitors in terms of the strength of the relationship among service quality, satisfaction, and future intention. First-time visitors were more likely than repeat visitors to count on the quality of the festival to be satisfied. On the other hand, repeat visitors were satisfied with factors other than service quality.

| Previous Studies of Relationships among Quality, Satisfaction & Behavioural Intention |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| Relationship between quality and satisfaction | O’Neill et al. (1999) |

To examine the direct effect of service quality on future behavioural intention, Lee et al. (2007) found that perceived service quality had a direct significant effect on festival visitors’ behavioural intentions. In a specific festival setting, Yuan and Jang
(2008) examined how festivals can promote wine products and wineries and influence customer behavioural intentions. They proposed a theoretical model, focusing on the relationships among perceived festival quality, satisfaction and future intentions with the wine festival. Analogously, relationships among quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention have been shown in the researches of adjacent studies. Alegre and Cladera (2006) examined this relationship at a destination, and Murray and Howat (2002) studied a sample of 218 sports and leisure centre customers to better understand the key drivers of satisfaction and customers’ future purchase or visitation intentions. González et al. (2007) explored relationships among service quality measures and satisfaction and future intention. Both models supported a positive relationship between satisfaction and future intention. Table 2 shows previous studies of the relationships among these variables. To further understand the relationship among festival quality, visitor satisfaction and behavioural intentions, in this study regression analysis is employed to reveal the influence of respective festival quality factors on future behavioural intention

**METHODOLOGY**

**Study Framework**

As shown in Figure 1, a study framework is established on the basis of previous research and literature. Three hypotheses are proposed based on the direct and positive relationships among festival quality, visitor satisfaction and behavioural intentions.

![Figure 1](#)

**H1:** Festival quality is positively and directly related to visitor satisfaction.

**H2:** Festival quality is positively and directly related to behavioural intentions.

**H3:** Visitor satisfaction is positively and directly related to behavioural intentions.
Instrument Development

The festival quality attributes of the surveyed festival were identified from the previous literature and discussions studies on the basis of festival features (Lee & Beeler, 2007; Yuan & Jang, 2008; Cole & Illum, 2006; Lee, Petrick & Crompton, 2007). Accordingly, the questionnaire underpins the previous research using the quality attributes specifically developed for festivals, rather than the context within SERVQUAL. A total of 19 items were extracted to measure the festival quality perceived by festival visitors. Respondents were asked to value the festival quality of each attribute on a 7 point scale (1 = poor, 7 = excellent). Aside from festival quality, respondents’ satisfaction level and future behavioral intentions of ‘revisit’ and ‘recommendation’ were also measured on a 7 point scale respectively. At the end of the self-complete questionnaire, demographic characteristics of respondents were added to measure the respondent’s features.

Study Setting and Sampling

Data were collected at a three day open-gate festival, The 11th Nonsan Strawberry Festival, held annually in Korea. Over 500,000 people visit this event every year mainly to experience various programs themed on the strawberry. Questionnaires were handed out at the festival venue, and respondents were approached by survey interviewers who were college students majoring in tourism management, and who were trained for the survey beforehand. The college students were instructed to approach respondents with sufficient explanation of the purpose of research and contents of the questionnaire. By employing a convenience sampling method, a total of 250 questionnaires were completed by festival visitors. After eliminating unusable responses, 206 usable responses were used for data analysis.

Data Analysis

This study aims to reveal the relationships among festival quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions. To achieve this goal, three stages of data analysis were conducted. Firstly, descriptive statistics were used to identify mean values of 19 festival quality attributes perceived by visitors. Secondly, as there were no predetermined domains among the items, a factor analysis using principal axis component analysis was conducted to reduce the 19 festival quality items into a set of simplified quality factors. Lastly, regression analysis was employed to examine the hypotheses of the relationships among the variables of festival quality, visitor
satisfaction and behavioural intentions. This regression analysis was also used to discover the relative importance of the factors in predicting the overall visitor satisfaction and future intentions with the quality provided by the festival. In addition to the analysis for verifying hypotheses, a descriptive statistical method was used to identify the respondent demographic characteristics. Data analysis was conducted by SPSS 12.0 version for frequency analysis, factor analysis and regression analysis.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Profile of Respondents

A typical respondent to the festival survey was a 20 to 39 years old female. Table 3 shows the descriptive profile of respondents. Of 206 respondents of festival visitors, females accounted for 66%. This reflects that females are more interested in the surveyed festival. Age distribution illustrates that more than 73.3% (N=151) of the respondents were less than 49 years old. Respondents with a college and university education level were 56.3%. The majority of occupations were student (44%) and housewife (20.4%), as they were the important attendees of the experiential program of the festival.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N (%)</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>N (%)</th>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>N (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>70 (34)</td>
<td>15-19 years</td>
<td>35 (17)</td>
<td>Student</td>
<td>93 (45.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>136 (66)</td>
<td>20-29 years</td>
<td>70 (34)</td>
<td>Housewife</td>
<td>42 (20.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>206 (100)</td>
<td>30-39 years</td>
<td>46 (22.3)</td>
<td>Blue Collar</td>
<td>9 (4.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>40-49 years</td>
<td>40 (19.4)</td>
<td>White Collar</td>
<td>18 (8.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>50 years and over</td>
<td>15 (7.3)</td>
<td>Self-employed</td>
<td>21 (10.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>206 (100)</td>
<td>Specialist</td>
<td>18 (8.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Others</td>
<td>5 (2.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School and under</td>
<td>78 (37.9)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College &amp; University</td>
<td>116 (56.3)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters and over</td>
<td>12 (5.8)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>206 (100)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Descriptive Statistics and Festival Quality Factors

Table 4 presents the descriptive statistics to identify mean values of 19 festival quality attributes perceived by festival visitors. Respondents ranked “kindness and help of staff” as the most highly perceived attributes through their festival experience. The attributes of “parking” and “rest area” were positioned as the lowest items, which represent poor quality perception by visitors. Overall satisfaction of visitor’s perception on festival quality attributes showed 4.21, and the mean of revisit intention was 4.13, which had a higher position than the other behavioural intention of ‘recommendation.’ As shown in Table 4, three factors were abstracted, by the results
of factor analysis, for interpretation of the scale, and they explained 66% of the total variance. Three dimensions of festival quality factors were labeled as “general feature”, “comfort amenity”, and “socialisation” in accordance with the composition of the items. The composite reliability test indicated that reliability coefficients for the three factors ranged from 0.848 to 0.910, which exceeded the recommended significant level of 0.70. Therefore, sufficient internal consistency among the variables within each dimension was found.

Table 4
Descriptive Results & Factor Analysis of Festival Quality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quality Attributes</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Factor 1 (General Feature)</th>
<th>Factor 2 (Comfort Amenities)</th>
<th>Factor 3 (Socialization)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Diversity of activities</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>.816</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment sound system</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>.797</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion &amp; Information</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>.692</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Festival atmosphere</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td>.627</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment stages</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>.626</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accessibility</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>.598</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety and security</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>.592</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food and beverage</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>.577</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleanliness of the festival site</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td></td>
<td>.810</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleanliness of toilets</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>.796</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rest area &amp; facilities</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>.790</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parking</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>.704</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being well organised</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>.599</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information booths &amp; source</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td>.585</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Street signage to venue</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>.582</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction with vendors</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>.839</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friendliness of local residents</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>.834</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kindness and help of staff</td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>.732</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excitement</td>
<td>4.48</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>.632</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eigen Value</td>
<td>9.690</td>
<td>1.546</td>
<td>1.299</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variance extracted (%)</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>24.3</td>
<td>17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total variance extracted (%)</td>
<td>66</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chronbach’s Alpha</td>
<td>.904</td>
<td>.910</td>
<td>.848</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(7 Likert Point Scale: 1 = very low, 7= very high)

Relationships among Festival Quality, Satisfaction and Behavioural Intention

Festival Quality - Satisfaction

As presented in Table 5, the result of regression analysis shows the influence of three festival quality factors as independent variables on the overall satisfaction as dependent variable. The coefficient of determination (R²) 0.64 indicates that 64% of the variance in overall satisfaction is explained by three quality factors. The t-values level of 0.000, and positive regression coefficients indicate that three independent factors positively affect the respondents’ overall satisfaction. The partial correlation
coefficients, β of three independent variables shows that the most important factor in predicting visitors’ overall satisfaction is “general feature”, followed by “comfort amenity”. This means that these two factors are crucial for the festival organiser to obtain a high level of satisfaction from festival visitors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5</th>
<th>Festival Quality Influence on Satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Multiple R =0.805</td>
<td>R² = 0.649</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard error = 0.88</td>
<td>F = 120.595</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent variables</td>
<td>β</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F1 (General Feature)</td>
<td>0.921</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F2 (Comfort Amenity)</td>
<td>0.617</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F3 (Socialisation)</td>
<td>0.435</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>4.210</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Festival Quality - Recommendation

Table 6 shows the result of regression analysis of three festival quality factors as independent variables, affecting recommendation as dependent variable. The coefficient of determination (R²) of 0.54 indicates that 54% of the variance in recommendation is explained by three quality factors. The t-values level of 0.000, and positive regression coefficients illustrate that three independent factors positively affect the respondents’ recommendation intention.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 6</th>
<th>Festival Quality Influence on Recommendation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Multiple R = 0.736</td>
<td>R² = 0.542</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard error = 1.02</td>
<td>F = 77.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent variables</td>
<td>β</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F1 (General Feature)</td>
<td>0.819</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F2 (Comfort Amenity)</td>
<td>0.562</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F3 (Socialisation)</td>
<td>0.492</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>4.080</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Festival Quality – Revisit Intention

The result of regression analysis of three festival quality factors as independent variables with revisit intention as dependent variable is shown in Table 7. The coefficient of determination (R²) of 0.41 indicates that 41% of the variance in revisit intention is explained by three quality factors of general feature, comfort amenity and socialization. The t-values level of 0.000, and positive regression coefficients illustrate that three independent factors positively affect the revisit intention.
Table 7
Festival Quality Influence on Revisit Intention

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variables</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>Beta^2</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig. t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F1 (General Feature)</td>
<td>0.781</td>
<td>0.088</td>
<td>0.481</td>
<td>8.836</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F2 (Comfort Amenity)</td>
<td>0.518</td>
<td>0.088</td>
<td>0.319</td>
<td>5.860</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F3 (Socialisation)</td>
<td>0.475</td>
<td>0.088</td>
<td>0.293</td>
<td>5.373</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>4.130</td>
<td>0.088</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>46.831</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Satisfaction - Recommendation

As shown in Table 8, the result of regression analysis illustrates that overall satisfaction as independent variable affects the behavioural intention of recommendation as the dependent variable. The coefficient of determination (R^2) of 0.59 indicates that 59% of the variance in recommendation is explained by overall satisfaction. The t-values level of 0.000, and positive regression coefficients indicate that overall satisfaction positively affects the behavioral intention of recommendation.

Table 8
Satisfaction Influence on Recommendation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variables</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>Beta^2</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig. t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall satisfaction</td>
<td>.790</td>
<td>.046</td>
<td>.767</td>
<td>16.814</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>.794</td>
<td>.207</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3.836</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Satisfaction – Revisit Intention

Table 9 presents the result of regression analysis of the overall satisfaction as independent variable, affecting the behavioral intention of revisit as dependent variable. The coefficient of determination (R-square) of 0.541 describes that 54% of the variance in the behavioral intention of revisit is explained by overall satisfaction. The t-values level of 0.000, and positive regression coefficients indicate that the overall satisfaction positively affects the behavioral intention of revisit.

Table 9
Satisfaction Influence on Revisit Intention

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variables</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>Beta^2</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig. t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall satisfaction</td>
<td>.806</td>
<td>.053</td>
<td>.734</td>
<td>15.191</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>.739</td>
<td>.237</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3.123</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results of the relationship among festival quality, visitor satisfaction and behavioural intention provide the event manager with invaluable insights to enhance festival management performance. Three factors of general features, comfort amenity and socialisation are extracted from 19 festival quality items, and positively affect visitor satisfaction. General feature is the most important factor to satisfy festival visitors, and specifically event managers need to place their priority on the highly ranked general feature items such as diversity of activities, entertainment and food & beverage. Results also show that all of festival quality factors directly and positively affect the future intentions of recommendation and revisit. This finding reinforces the study of Cole & Illum (2006), which indicated that festival quality affects directly and indirectly behavioural intention, it further reveals that visitor satisfaction influences more on recommendation than on revisit.

**CONCLUSION**

Since Parasuraman et al. (1988) introduced SERVQUAL for the measurement of service quality the studies employing this model have been widely conducted in diverse study areas. Specifically the construct of service quality has received a great deal of attention from the researchers of tourism, hospitality and event management. However, as it has gradually expanded its application to wider coverage, specific quality attributes in terms of the applied study area were required to examine the more detailed implications for the area. Hence researchers have attempted to establish the proper quality attributes designed for festivals in event management studies (O’Neill et al., 1999; Kelly & Turley, 2001; Getz et al., 2001; Crompton, 2003; Lee et al., 2007; Lee & Beeler, 2007; Yuan & Jang, 2008).

This empirical research extracted 19 attributes of festival quality derived from previous studies. The lowest quality attribute of the survey festival was revealed as ‘parking’, ‘rest area and facilities’ and ‘cleanliness’, whereas the highest quality attributes were ‘excitement’ and ‘kindness & help of staff’. By factor analysis, 19 festival quality attributes were condensed to three factors, and labeled as ‘general feature’, ‘comfort amenity’ and ‘socialisation’. To further understand the relationships among festival quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention, regression analysis was conducted. Three hypotheses of direct and positive influences among variables were underpinned by regression analysis. Particularly, it is interesting to note that the quality factor of ‘general feature’ affects most significantly the satisfaction and behavioural intentions of recommendation and revisit. Therefore, it is imperative for the festival organiser to have sufficient understanding on this quality factor, and to
maximise the satisfaction level of visitors to generate their behavioural intention of recommendation and revisit.

In terms of assessing the relationships of festival quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention, this study appeared relevant and consistent with previous studies (Oh, 1999; Cronin et al., 2000; James et al., 2000; Murray & Howat, 2002; Cole & Illum, 2006; Lee & Beeler, 2007; Brea et al., 2007; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Chen & Chen, 2009). Specifically, this study underpins the researches of Cole & Illum (2006) and Lee & Beeler (2007) by and large, as the researches show relationships of variables in a festival setting.

Little has been published on relationships among quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention, compared to other fields of studies. This study provides some insights into the development of festival quality, and further explores the relationships among festival quality, satisfaction and behavioural intention. Therefore, it stimulates the future studies of festival qualities, and leads festival organisers and marketers to quality oriented planning and operation. Notwithstanding the result of this study, the obvious limitation of the study lies in geographical coverage of application. Also data were collected from a single specific festival with minimal sample size in relation to the overall number of festival visitors, which may fail to represent the population of the study and, thus, limit the generalisation of the results.

REFERENCES


STUDY OF SATISFACTION AND EVALUATION OF LOCAL FESTIVALS IN KOREA

Haesang Kang
Dongseo University, Korea

Abstract

The objective of this study is to identify the trends and state of festivals in Korea by comparing and analysing the satisfaction level, purpose of visit, and evaluation of each item for a range of cultural and tour festivals in Korea. The target festivals included the seven best festivals among the 52 cultural and tour festivals in Korea based on data from 2002 to 2007. The study result showed a relatively high satisfaction level for accessibility or program, and while items such as toilets and guidance have been improved constantly, souvenirs and food have remained without specific improvement. Since this study only targeted the best festivals it cannot represent all festivals in Korea, and absolute comparison was difficult because of the different content, history, and location of each festival, which could be a limitation of this study.

Keywords:
Cultural and Tour festivals in Korea, Satisfaction level, Festival evaluation

INTRODUCTION

Research Purposes

A festival is generally classified as a type of event, and plays various roles including as a tour attraction of the hosting place, image promotion of the region, expansion of the social foundation structure and activation of the local economy. With the establishment of a local self-government system in 1995 in Korea, each local self-governing organisation has developed and implemented its own festival, and is also trying to use it to promote the tour image of the hosting place, unite local residents, and form local identity. (Lee & Kang, 2003).

The government has appointed the festivals with potential tour productivity among 1,200 local festivals to cultural and tour festival, and provided financial support and promotion to plan an active local economy and development of a local tour industry since 1995.

As a result of such a festival promotion policy, the number of annual domestic and foreign tourists who come to visit the festivals has shown continuous increase, and a variety of successful outcomes have contributed to activate the local economy through the increased sale of local products, the success and preservation of region-specific traditional culture, the unification of local residents and the promotion of local image.
The government and the local self-government organisation have also set the festival as the central axis of local development in 2007, and changed their policies from quantitative growth of festivals until now to a qualitative one and a selected 'choice and enhancement' strategy.

In the end of 2007, the government chose the Andong International Mask Festival and the Boryung Mud Festival, when selecting 2008 cultural and tour festivals, as the representative festivals of Korea, and will keep providing financial support, consulting, and domestic and foreign promotional marketing to make the entire cultural and tour festivals including those two become the international ones which represent Korea.

The government is also trying to enact a policy to raise the spontaneity and competitiveness of the festivals by adjusting and reducing the flooding duplicate or similar festivals.

Especially, since the host of the festival, who receives financial support from the government or the local self-government organisation, must clarify where the responsibility for operation of festival budget lies, a reliable evaluation method is required to show the effect of the continuous financial support (Mossberg, 2000). Thus, even the general city or county festivals recently as well as the festivals selected as cultural and tour representatives are creating their own evaluation systems based on the evaluation framework of the government, and implementing satisfaction surveys and evaluation.

However, although implementation of the festivals based on self-examination of the tourist satisfaction and self-evaluation may help create a uniquely local festival, it is difficult to identify how our festivals are evaluated worldwide or what kinds of aspects need to be improved.

Therefore, this study will attempt to gain a thorough grasp of the situation and problem, and to suggest implications and alternatives by analysing the satisfaction survey results and evaluation data of each of the cultural and tour festivals in Korea based on the government report and evaluation report on the respective festival.

**METHOD**

This study was based on previous research on the evaluation and satisfaction levels of the festivals, and documented research based on the previous data. Two analysis methods were used for data analysis: Comparison analysis, which compares each different festival with the same item, and Time Switching, which compares the investigation outcomes since 2002 and in 2007 with the same item.

Each investigation data was based on the last 5 years' festival report of each local self-government organisation, as well as the cultural and tour festival report.

The depth interviews of the visitors for each festival were performed on the festival site on an equal distribution of the participants basis during weekends and weekdays.
and more than 200 effective sample cases of the respective festivals were used as a standard. The item used to interview satisfaction level was identical in each festival and seven stages of Q&A were selected: ① Not at all ~ ⑦ Very much.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

The planning, operation, and evaluation of a festival consists of one framework. The planning or operation of a new festival is implemented following the evaluation data of the previous festival, and goes through the controlling and adjusting processes in the form of evaluating the planning and operation including the admission system, event composition, promotion, and participants’ satisfaction, and the influence on politics, economy, society and culture, and environment. Therefore, the festival evaluation model forms a circle in which the evaluation data is used for the next event planning (Kang, 2004).

**Figure 1**

**Evaluation Model of Planning, Operation and Effect of the Festival**

Lee (1998), Influence and Effective Operation Policy of Cultural and Tour Festival, Korea Tour Research Institute.

The present evaluation method of the cultural and tour festival consists of two different kinds: first, quantitative evaluation narrated by the visitors, and second, qualitative evaluation judged by the festival experts who perform participant observation. The first quantitative evaluation is composed of the items on satisfaction level and consumption expenses, and its evaluation and analysis are performed by either each festival promotion committee itself or by the professional evaluation body requested.

Meanwhile, the qualitative evaluation is performed by the festival experts appointed by the government by comparing and evaluating each festival based on the on-site participant-observation of the festival involved.
According to Kim (2003), however, the evaluation system of the government has a problem in that it attempts to discuss merits and demerits by implementing a uniform evaluation under identical conditions, despite the differences in accessibility, accommodation facility, event scale, number of visitors, and period of stay depending on the characteristics of each type of local festival such as urban type, local product type, and local culture utilisation type. Especially, excessive emphasis on the effect of tourism is pointed out to be an aspect to be criticised because of the significant difference in each region in the readiness to receive foreigners or related tourists, which can be a less objective index. Especially, considering that the situation to receive foreigners and related tourism shows significant differences in each area, it demonstrates less objectivity as an index, putting too much emphasis on tourism effects of the festival in its criticism.

On the other hand, as most self-government systems implement supportive policies with consistent and sustainable evaluation systems, their preparation to receive visitors, facilities such as parking and guidance, and the experiential program are assessed to be improving gradually.

Most studies on the satisfaction factors of festival visitors are classified into two categories: first, studies which mainly verify influential relations around festival service quality on overall satisfaction (Lee et al. 2005), and second, studies which identify the level of influence the general and unique characteristics of festival have on visitors' satisfaction and types of influential factors (Lee, Petrick & Crompton, 2007; Lee & Beeler, 2007; Cole and Illum, 2006; Kim, 2007; Jang, 2006; Baek, 2006; Lee, & Han, 2005; Jeong et al, 2004).

While many researchers in western countries suggest facilities (Allen et al, 2002; Baker & Crompton, 2000; Cole and Illum, 2006; Lee, Petrick & Crompton, 2007; Lee & Beeler, 2007) or entertainment (Baker & Crompton, 2000; Cole and Illum, 2006; Lee, Petrick & Crompton, 2007) as the major item to measure satisfaction of festival visitors, researchers in Korea focus more on items such as souvenirs or shopping (Jang et al., 2008; Kim, 2007; Kim, Jeong, 2007; Lee et al., 2005), guidance, and promotion.

### Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Researcher</th>
<th>Satisfaction Factor Item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Allen et al. (2002)</td>
<td>Tour and promotion (2 items), program (6 items), facility (6 items), operation (2 items), food (2 items), shopping (2 items)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baker &amp; Crompton (2000)</td>
<td>General characteristic (6 items), convenience facility (4 items), entertainment (5 items), information source (3 items)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cole and Illum (2006)</td>
<td>Activity factor (7 items), facility factor (6 items), entertainment factor (3 items)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lee, Petrick &amp; Crompton (2007)</td>
<td>General characteristic (5 items), entertainment item (4 items), information resource (2 items), convenience facility (5 items)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lee &amp; Beeler (2007)</td>
<td>General characteristic (4 items), specific characteristic (4 items), convenience facility (7 items)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Kim (2007) Promotion guidance (5 items), event details (5 items), Souvenir. food (5 items), convenience facility (3 items)

Lee et al. (2005) accessibility. convenience (3 items), promotion guidance (3 items), event site facility (6 items), festival product (3 items), food (4 items), guidance staff (6 items), event details (9 items)

Jeong et al. (2004) Festival food and service (4 items), festival product and facility (3 items), festival site accessibility (4 items)

Lee et al. (2003) Event process. details (3 items), food value (3 items), accessibility. recognition of regional culture (4 items), festival product (2 items), convenience facility (2 items)

Bae (2002) Promotion (14 items), accessibility (12 items), participation (18 items), economic (20 items), foreigner acceptability (9 items), operation (15 items), image (12 items)

Meanwhile, the items for measuring festival visitors' satisfaction indicated by the Ministry of Culture and Tourism consist of a total of 18 including accessibility (1 item), promotion guidance (4 items), event details (4 items), festival products (3 items), food (2 items), nearby tour site (1 item), and convenience facility (3 items). These items have been managed since 2002 for continuous evaluation and improvement. They are also graded as best (7-8), excellent (10-11), promising (17-18), and preliminary (20) and being backed up.

Table 2
Ministry of Culture and Tourism Festival Evaluation Item (2007-2008)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accessibility</td>
<td>1. Easy and convenient access to the festival site</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Aware of the festival content and schedule through previous promotion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Guidance facility on the site is well equipped</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Event brochure is well prepared</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Staff service is satisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion Guidance</td>
<td>6. Event content is exciting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. Diverse event contents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8. Voluntary experiential program is satisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9. Event content helped have better understanding of the local culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Event details</td>
<td>10. A variety of souvenir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11. Quality of the festival souvenir is excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12. Reasonable price of the souvenir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Festival product (Tour souvenir)</td>
<td>13. A variety of food</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14. Reasonable price of food</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food (Eatery)</td>
<td>15. Willing to visit nearby tour site(already visited)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nearby tour site</td>
<td>16. Convenient use of parking facility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convenience facility</td>
<td>17. Rest area(bench, rest room) is well equipped</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18. The toilet is clean</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
RESULTS

Satisfaction Survey Outcome on Festival Item

The item which showed the highest satisfaction in the 2007 visitors' satisfaction survey by the Ministry of Culture and Tourism was accessibility which had a 5.36 score out of a total of 7. This was slightly increased compared to 5.32 in 2006. The next items were staff service and kindness (5.00), excitement (4.98), diversity (4.96), and guidebook (4.95) in order. Meanwhile, food price (4.19), souvenir price (4.25), convenience of parking (4.30), and diversity of food and souvenir were 4.34 for each which showed a very low score.

To sum up, the reason accessibility was improved could be partly attributed to the location of the festival sites but mostly to securing diverse types of transportation including increase of a shuttle bus or public transportation in order to enhance accessibility. The analysis result of the previous report data suggest the service and kindness of the event staff and excitement play important roles which affect the main program and experiential program. Therefore, the comparatively high score can be attributed to the accumulated drastic investment and management know-how of the festival.

This sort of satisfaction, however, is almost similar to the previous year. When the overall mean values of the 18 items were compared, this year's 4.68 is almost similar to 4.69 in 2006. Regarding each item, dissatisfaction of the food and the product on the festival site, pointed out last year, was still not improved.

Especially, when people simply expect to increase sales profit during the festival term, the work force used temporarily may increase the actual price of the material which mostly results in increased food or souvenir prices. It is, however, desirable in the long run to sell them at lower prices than usual in order to promote the long-term local image and sales increase of unique local products.

That no remarkable improvement has been identified of the food and the product, the central axis of the local income, while satisfaction of excitement and diversity of the event, the essential components of the festival, is being improved every year has been pointed out repeatedly each year. It seems to be inevitable to develop a new income product and improve the existing product to plan an active local economy through cultural and tour festivals in the future.
**Figure 2**
Satisfaction Survey Outcome on Cultural and Tour Festival Item

![Survey Diagram]

**Yearly Satisfaction Trend**

The common evaluation at the central government level on the entire cultural and tour festivals has been implemented comprehensively since 1999. However, after going through years of repeated improvement since then it is finally narrowed into the present 18 common evaluation items. This study, therefore, compared and analysed the data on visitors' satisfaction collected between 2002 and 2007 based on time series. While the hardware such as the toilets show consistent improvement, the core part of the festival, and promotion and guidance show no significant difference from the last year. However, similar to the 2007 result, the parts including souvenir and food which have a close relationship with the local economy did not show much improvement.

It is necessary to improve the attractiveness of tour souvenirs or unique local products to stimulate visitors' willingness to purchase in the future in order to spark the festival to play an important role in activating the local economy. It is also required to increase food sales by expanding the period of stay within the site.
Table 3
Annual Trend on Satisfaction of Each Item

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>factors</th>
<th>2002</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>Trend</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. accessibility</td>
<td>5.52</td>
<td>5.51</td>
<td>5.44</td>
<td>5.44</td>
<td>5.32</td>
<td>5.36</td>
<td>Slight change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. PR</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>Continuous improvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Information facilities</td>
<td>4.77</td>
<td>4.72</td>
<td>4.77</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>4.85</td>
<td>4.86</td>
<td>Continuous improvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. brochure</td>
<td>4.96</td>
<td>4.88</td>
<td>4.93</td>
<td>4.95</td>
<td>4.93</td>
<td>4.95</td>
<td>No change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. kindness</td>
<td>4.92</td>
<td>4.91</td>
<td>4.95</td>
<td>4.98</td>
<td>4.98</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>Continuous improvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. interesting</td>
<td>4.89</td>
<td>5.04</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.99</td>
<td>4.95</td>
<td>4.98</td>
<td>No change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. variety of program</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.98</td>
<td>5.01</td>
<td>4.96</td>
<td>4.96</td>
<td>No change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. experience</td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td>4.85</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>4.94</td>
<td>4.87</td>
<td>4.87</td>
<td>No change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. culture</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>4.93</td>
<td>5.04</td>
<td>4.94</td>
<td>4.88</td>
<td>4.85</td>
<td>Decrease (Improvement needed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. variety of souvenir</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>Slight decrease</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. quality of souvenir</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>Slight decrease</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. price of souvenir</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>No change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. variety of food</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>Slight decrease</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. price of food</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>Slight change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. tour</td>
<td>4.77</td>
<td>4.78</td>
<td>4.80</td>
<td>4.79</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>4.64</td>
<td>Slight decrease</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. parking</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>No change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. rest area</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>No change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. toilet</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>4.59</td>
<td>4.70</td>
<td>4.64</td>
<td>4.66</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>No change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>average</strong></td>
<td><strong>4.60</strong></td>
<td><strong>4.67</strong></td>
<td><strong>4.70</strong></td>
<td><strong>4.71</strong></td>
<td><strong>4.69</strong></td>
<td><strong>4.68</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The overall trend analysis from 2002 data to 2007 implies almost fixed level. Though satisfaction surely show slight increase from 4.60 in 2002 to 4.71 in 2005 but it's not significant. This means the visitors do not feel much improvement in real compared to the continuous effort the local self-government system puts on the improvement for them.
FESTIVAL SATISFACTION COMPARISON

The data on visitors' satisfaction in each festival suggested herein are a condensation of the records in the reports submitted by each festival host, and should not be considered as the absolute standard to discuss superiorities between the festivals as they are the outcomes of different surveys implemented by each different evaluation body during the respective festival. However, relative comparison is allowed as they are investigated about the same item and will be helpful to enable a better understanding of the overall flow.

Accessibility has a comparatively high satisfaction level, and Boryung and Kimje show the highest ratio among the seven best festivals. The high numerical value, despite the fact that the city neither has more developed public transportation system nor easy accessibility as it's located close to the sea, seems to indicate diverse transportation alternatives such as the shuttle bus gave a good image to visitors.

Boryung and Kimje also showed a high score in guidance system. Especially, the Boryung Mud Festival seemed to be well known to foreigners living in Korea or to foreign visitors, probably as a result of a promotion system targeting foreigners.

In the case of kindness, the Kangjin Celadon Porcelain and Yangyang Pine Mushroom festivals received high scores, and these analysis results draw attention because the two regions are located in the agricultural area. It can be assumed that the operational staff in the rural areas show a more intimate attitude to visitors than those in the urban areas.

In the case of the excitement of the program, Kimje Horizon showed a high score. It may be attributed to diverse programs to experience farming culture including cow wagon experience, rice cutting, blacksmith's shop experience, and water mill experience. Boryung Mud Festival also seemed to appeal to many foreigners as well
as to domestic tourists by providing a mud experience such as jumping into the mud in person.

The most interesting festival in diversity of the program is the Chuncheon Mime Festival, which has a unique item called 'goblin mess'. It is a program in which around 10,000 visitors and performers spend the night together on the small island. It is also the only and unique nighttime festival in Korea, which may contribute to having the high score in the excitement of the program.

Boyung Mud Festival, Chuncheon Mime Festival and Kimje Horizon Festival also showed high satisfaction scores in the section of experiential program. It implies that the importance of experiential program is increasing every year as each festival with a strong emphasis on experience shows a high score in diversity or excitement of the program.

In the case of introduction of traditional culture through the festival, Kangjin Celadon Ceramics showed high satisfaction. Although China or Japan are rather popular for celadons (ceramics), Kangjin Celadon Festival played a role in introducing our ceramic culture to the outer world.

Table 4
Satisfaction Survey Outcome for Each Festival (Item basis)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item average</th>
<th>festivals</th>
<th>Chuncheon Mime</th>
<th>Boryung Mud</th>
<th>Kangjin Celadon</th>
<th>Andong Mask dance</th>
<th>Yangyang Pine mushroom</th>
<th>Kimje Horizon</th>
<th>Jinju Oil lamp</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>accessibility</td>
<td>5.36</td>
<td>5.33</td>
<td>5.96</td>
<td>5.50</td>
<td>5.44</td>
<td>5.32</td>
<td>5.89</td>
<td>5.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PR</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>4.87</td>
<td>4.93</td>
<td>5.22</td>
<td>4.80</td>
<td>4.95</td>
<td>5.44</td>
<td>5.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information facilities</td>
<td>4.86</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>5.25</td>
<td>5.44</td>
<td>4.92</td>
<td>4.77</td>
<td>5.45</td>
<td>5.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>brochure</td>
<td>4.95</td>
<td>5.16</td>
<td>5.19</td>
<td>5.57</td>
<td>5.10</td>
<td>4.90</td>
<td>5.37</td>
<td>5.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kindness</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>5.18</td>
<td>5.20</td>
<td>5.55</td>
<td>4.90</td>
<td>5.54</td>
<td>5.51</td>
<td>5.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interesting</td>
<td>4.98</td>
<td>5.41</td>
<td>5.70</td>
<td>5.32</td>
<td>4.99</td>
<td>4.77</td>
<td>6.12</td>
<td>5.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>variety of program</td>
<td>4.96</td>
<td>5.53</td>
<td>5.44</td>
<td>5.41</td>
<td>5.17</td>
<td>4.79</td>
<td>5.81</td>
<td>5.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>experience</td>
<td>4.87</td>
<td>5.02</td>
<td>5.50</td>
<td>5.52</td>
<td>4.96</td>
<td>4.93</td>
<td>5.99</td>
<td>4.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>culture</td>
<td>4.85</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>4.87</td>
<td>5.64</td>
<td>5.03</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>5.31</td>
<td>5.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>variety of souvenir</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>5.11</td>
<td>4.66</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>5.02</td>
<td>4.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quality of souvenir</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>5.31</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>4.63</td>
<td>5.12</td>
<td>4.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>price of souvenir</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>4.89</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>5.03</td>
<td>4.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>variety of food</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>5.21</td>
<td>4.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>price of food</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>4.63</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>5.21</td>
<td>4.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tour</td>
<td>4.64</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>4.72</td>
<td>5.13</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>5.06</td>
<td>4.82</td>
<td>5.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parking</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>5.07</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>5.11</td>
<td>3.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rest area</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>5.04</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>5.28</td>
<td>4.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>toilet</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>5.16</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>5.60</td>
<td>4.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>average</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>4.88</td>
<td>5.24</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>5.41</td>
<td>4.77</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The low satisfaction score of the price or quality of souvenir indicates the necessity of commercialising unique local products or developing a variety of souvenirs when considering that most of the festivals in Korea are based on the local products or traditional regional culture. Kangjin Celadon Festival, however, which has a relatively high satisfaction in celadon souvenirs or diversity of local products, implies the potential and possibility of the development of local products later.

The satisfaction score in overall areas was low in diversity or price of food except for the Kangjin Celadon Festival. This could be an example of irrelevance between the festival and the local food, and shows that such delicious local food hasn't been provided in an appropriate manner to the visitors.

In the section of tour, Yangyang Pine Mushroom Festival and Kangjin Celadon Cultural Festival show a relatively high satisfaction score. One of the reasons can be attributed to having many famous tour sites around Gangwon or Jeolla provinces, but also proper guidance for the visitors of the festivals to visit nearby tour sites or the preparation of relevant transportation systems seems to secure more visitors to visit those sites.

Parking facility shows significant variation in the respective festivals. Chuncheon or Jinju show a very low score while Kangjin or Kimje show a high one. Though it is true that Chuncheon has a geographically small parking space as it is held on an island, and Jinju also has to deal with shortage problem of parking facilities as the festival site is near by the river side, considering that such festivals which utilised the public playground for parking and provided an easy approach to the shuttle bus had a high satisfaction level, it seems to be necessary for the festival host to plan all kinds of ideas for parking convenience of the visitors.

The item of rest area shows relatively low outcome as the space to enjoy a picnic or to sit and relax for a while seems to be necessary with increasingly more people visiting as a family unit. Andong, especially, showed a lack of rest areas, while there is enough space to provide for the visitors with its spacious festival site.

Toilets are an important facility where many people could experience different types of inconveniences, with cleanliness or quantity important when a number of visitors come to the festival at the same time on the weekend. While the majority of the festivals showed an almost satisfactory level, Jinju Oil Lamp had a relatively low score.
Though the comparison of overall satisfaction differs depending on the content, location, and size, Kangjin Celadon and Kimje Horizon had relatively high scores. Even if it may differ due to the reliability of the surveys collected, it may be desirable to establish various strategies and put every effort into improving the festival quality as the target festivals of the survey are the best ones appointed by the Ministry of Culture and Tourism.

The festivals with the highest occupancy ratio of outside tourists (including foreigners) among the visitors of the seven best cultural and tour festivals in 2007 were Boryung Mud Festival (95.5%) and Yangyang Pine Mushroom festival (94.4%) in order.
On the contrary, Andong Mask Dance, the best festival for three consecutive years, and Chuncheon Mime were 67.7% and 61.2% respectively. High occupancy of visitors doesn't guarantee success of the festival, because the farther from the metropolitan city with less residents the more occupancy of the visitors. On the other hand, low occupancy of the visitors because of the high participation of the residents doesn't necessarily mean the failure of the festival, because it can be interpreted that the local residents participated with enthusiasm (Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2007).

Regarding the survey result on the visitors whose main purpose is 'festival participation', Jinju (93.2%) showed the highest visitors ratio while Kimje and Boryung each showed over 80%. and Andong (61.3%) and Yangyang were relatively low. Overall mean value was 74.4%, and Chuncheon was excluded as the items were overlooked. According to the results above, 60% of participants are visitors to the festival. Because most of them have great expectations of the festival and want to enjoy it, it is necessary to develop more items including diverse programs and unique local food to provide them opportunities to experience more aspects of the festival and to stay longer.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

A festival is the core axis of local development that provides an opportunity along with pride for the local residents to enjoy the culture and economic benefits through the visitors. It becomes a chance for both the locals and the visitors to communicate with each other, experience other regional cultures, and to live a dynamic life through the festival. While the festival has become the essential glue and an agent for local development as mentioned above, the objective evaluation on the festival itself hasn't been relatively conducted well. The effort of the Ministry of Culture and Tourism to collect the data for years, show the evaluation outcome, and to improve the festival based on it can be viewed from a very positive perspective.
According to the survey result of 2007 visitors’ satisfaction, the items with high satisfaction included accessibility, service and kindness of the event staff, and excitement and food price, product price, parking convenience, and diversity of food and souvenirs showed a low score, which implies that more attention needs to be drawn to the items relevant to the local economy such as food or local products.

In the time series analysis as well, the part which has a close relationship with the local economy such as food or local souvenirs didn't show much improvement, while the hardware such as the toilets showed constant improvement.

Over 60% of the participants were visitors who came for the festivals. Most of them come to the festival with high expectations and want to enjoy it. Thus, it is necessary to develop more diverse programs and unique local food so that they can experience more varieties and stay for a longer period.

This study may have a little reliability or objectivity problem as it is carried out based on the survey by the individual festival and the comprehensive data of the Ministry of Culture and Tourism, but it provided an opportunity to identify the gradual improvement of the festivals. If the festivals can be improved through this sort of evaluation system it should be maintained in the future.

Since this study targeted the best festivals, it is hard to see that they represent the Korean festivals. Because the content, history, and location of each festival differ, it is also hard to conduct absolute comparison. These indicate the limitations of this study.

REFERENCES


